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THE
MODERN TRAVELLER.

POPULAR DESCRIPTION,
GEOGRAPHICAL, HISTORICAL, AND TOPOGRAPHICAL,
OF THE
VARIOUS COUNTRIES OF THE GLOBE.

SPAIN AND PORTUGAL.

VOL. I.

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THE

WOMAN'S SUFFRAGE

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OF THE FIRST VOLUME.

SPAIN.

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THE

MODERN TRAVELLER,

ETC. ETC.

SPAIN.

[A kingdom lying between lat. $43^{\circ} 44'$ and $35^{\circ} 57'$ N., and extending from long. $9^{\circ} 13'$ W. to $3^{\circ} 15'$ E.; bounded on the N. by France and the Bay of Biscay; on the E. and S. by the Mediterranean and the Gulf of Cadiz; on the W. by Portugal and the Atlantic.]

WITH the exception of Italy, Spain is the most interesting region in Christendom; the most fertile in romantic associations, the most remarkable in national character. Were there no other distinguishing circumstance in its records than the fact, that it has been twice, or rather thrice, almost completely in the military possession of foreign invaders, and yet, has ultimately triumphed over its enemies, this would give to its annals a peculiar attraction. Twice has Spain been the debateable ground between Europe and Africa. Rome and Carthage contended for empire on its soil; and when the Saracens made their desperate effort for the possession of Christendom, Spain was one of the advanced positions on which they seized. The claim of succession to its crown has

arrayed contending armies from England, Germany, and France, on the Spanish territory; and of the eventful history of the last five and twenty years, the most extraordinary and interesting portion is that which relates to the Peninsular war.

The authentic annals of Spain* date from its consolidation into a Roman province under the first imperial Cæsar. This was for a long time adopted by Spanish writers as their historic era, being thirty-five years earlier than that which is vulgarly assigned to the birth of our Lord. In Aragon, this continued to be in use till the year 1358; in Castile, twenty-five years later; and in Portugal, so late as 1415. The earliest known division of Spain, was into *Citerior* and *Uterior*, Hither and Further Spain, in reference to the Iberian chain; but, soon after this, we find it divided by Roman writers into three provinces, Lusitania, Hispania Bætica, and Hispania Tarraconensis. Lusitania, bounded on the north by the Douro, on the south by the Guadiana, and having for its eastern limit, a line drawn from Simancas to Puente del Arzobispo, included the whole of Portugal and Algarve, with the kingdom of Leon and part of Estremadura. Bætica (so named from the river Bætis, the Guadalquivir,) had the Guadiana for its northern and western boundary, and for its eastern limit, a line drawn from *Murgis* or *Muxæra*, a village near the ancient pro-

* The various derivations assigned to the name of the country, shew that nothing certain is known respecting its etymology. Thus, one ancient geographer deduces it from a King Hispanus; another from the city Hispalis (Seville), the ancient capital; a third from *σπανία*, *scarcity*, in supposed allusion to its sterility; and a fourth finds its origin in the Hebrew! The country received from the Greeks the appellations of Iberia (from the river Iberus or Ebro) and Hesperia, or the west country.

montory of *Charidemus*, now called *Cabo de Gata*, to the territory of *Castulo*, which was nearly in the same situation as the modern *Cazlona*. It answered pretty nearly to what is now called *Andalusia*, comprising the kingdoms of *Seville*, *Jaen*, *Cordova*, and *Granada*, but included also a part of modern *Estremadura*. *Hispania Tarraconensis*, which received its name from the town of *Tarraco* (the modern *Tarragona*), comprehended all the hither or eastern part of Spain, answering generally to *Catalonia* and the kingdom of *Aragon*. Under the latter Roman emperors, some alterations were made in this division, and it was afterwards totally obliterated by the desolating invasions of the country by the northern nations. The modern division of Spain results from the successive formation of distinct and independent kingdoms and principalities, on the expulsion of the Moors, between the middle of the eighth century and the end of the fifteenth. The Asturian monarchy was the germ of the Spanish greatness. The small province which it comprised, was at one time the only portion of the country unconquered by the Moors. At length, towards the close of the fifteenth century, by the marriage of *Ferdinand*, the fifth king of *Aragon*, with *Isabella* of *Castile*, the crowns of *Asturias*, *Leon*, *Castile*, *Aragon*, and *Granada* were united.

The modern division of Spain distributes it into fourteen provinces or captain-generalships, which for the most part retain the names of kingdoms, and are in fact distinguished from each other by a striking variety of national character, as well as by a material difference in their internal government. These again have their subdivisions. According to a census made by royal authority in 1787-8, their names and respective population are as follow :

		Souls.	Souls.	Extent in Square Miles.
Biscay	Alava	71,399	308,157	3,001
	Guipuzcoa	120,716		
	Lordship of Biscay	116,042		
Kingdom of Aragon		623,303	14,882	
Principality of Catalonia		814,412	12,111	
Asturias		347,776	3,725	
Kingdom of Leon	Jurisdiction of Leon	250,134	665,432	12,420
	Palencia	112,514		
	Salamanca	210,380		
	Toro	92,404		
Kingdom of Galicia		1,345,803	16,060	
Estremadura		416,992	14,478	
Andalusia	Kingdom of Seville	754,293	1,837,024	27,542
	Cordova	236,016		
	Granada	661,661		
	Jaen	177,136		
	Sierra Morena	7,918		
Kingdom of Murcia		337,686	7,957	
Valencia		783,084	7,764	
Navarre		227,322	2,475	
La Mancha		206,160	7,620	
New Castile	Jurisdiction of Cuenca	266,182	933,865	23,573
	Guadalaxara	144,370		
	Toledo	334,425		
	City of Madrid	156,672		
	Province of Madrid	58,943		
	Royal desmenes of Aranjuez and Le Pardo	3,266		
Old Castile	Jurisdiction of Avila	115,172	1,196,964	21,114
	Burgos	465,410		
	Old Castile	74,669		
	Segovia	167,525		
	Soria	170,565		
	Valladolid	196,839		
Royal desmenes of St. Ildefonso and the Escorial		6,784		
			10,143,975	176,497

Of these, it was estimated that 478,716, or not quite a 20th, were nobles; 276,090 servants; and

131,747, or nearly an 80th part, ecclesiastics; that is, upwards of 60,000 seculars, above 49,000 monks, (two-fifths were Franciscans,) and 22,300 nuns. The parishes are stated at 20,080; the convents at 3,094. The proportion of inhabitants to the square league is, in Guipuzcoa, as high as 167; in Cuença, as low as 25: in the inland provinces, the average is 42; in the maritime provinces, 75. Since the time that this census was taken, the proportion is supposed to have increased. In 1799, it was ascertained to exceed 12,000,000; the increase appearing to have taken place chiefly in the kingdom of Aragon. According to a statement published at Madrid in 1802, and cited by Laborde, the adult population* was estimated at not quite 10,500,000, and the proportion of males and females was supposed to be equal. The married persons were estimated at not quite 4,000,000; and allowing 4,000,000 only for children, this would carry the population to between 14 and 15,000,000. Hassel, in his "*Statistique Européene*," estimates the territorial surface at 25,145 square leagues of 25 to a degree, and the total population at 10,730,000, being 425 inhabitants to every square league; and this in a country supposed to be capable of furnishing subsistence for 78,000,000, and which, according to the general opinion, actually contained, under the Romans, 40,000,000 of people.†

* Laborde is evidently inaccurate in mistaking this for an estimate of the whole population: the men are stated at 5,204,187; the women at 5,205,692; and out of these, it is supposed that there were 3,890,660 married persons.

† Laborde is disposed to reduce this estimate one half, viz. to 20 millions, though some ancient authorities carry the population of Spain under the Romans, as high as 52 millions. At the close of the fourteenth century, according to several Spanish writers, (whose statements, however, Laborde deems exaggerated,) the population was 21,700,800; viz. Castile, 11,000,000; Aragon,

Since the commencement of the Peninsular war, the decrease in the population must have been considerable. It is impossible to arrive at any satisfactory estimate; but the present population can hardly be rated higher than 12,000,000.

Besides this general division of Spain, there are other demarcations which have respect to the military, ecclesiastical, and financial departments. There are, according to Laborde, eleven grand military districts; viz. Old Castile, Aragon, Catalonia, Valencia and Murcia, Navarre, which is termed a vice-royalty, Guipuzcoa, Andalusia, the coast of Granada, Galicia, Estremadura, and Madrid. The three naval depôts, or stations, Cadiz, Ferrol, and Cartagena, also constitute distinct governments. Laborde speaks of another subdivision of the country into six departments and thirty provinces; "but this new organization," it is added, "has been carried into effect principally in Castile and Leon." The ecclesiastical provinces are eight in number, viz. Toledo or New Castile, Seville, Santiago de Compostella in Galicia, Granada, Burgos, Tarragona, Saragossa in Aragon, and Valencia. The suffragan bishoprics are forty-four. There are seven royal audiences, or superior courts of judicature, the seats of which are at Corunna, Seville, Oviedo, Saragossa, Valencia, Barcelona, and Cacerez; also, two royal chanceries, which are courts of still higher authority, — one at Valladolid, comprehending within its jurisdiction all the territory beyond the right bank of the Tagus, and one at Granada, including all the

7,700,000; Granada, 3,000,800. In the sixteenth century, under Ferdinand and Isabella, it was estimated at 20,000,000. In 1688, it did not amount to 12,000,000. In 1700, it had sunk to 8,000,000, and only fifteen years later, under Philip V., to 6,000,000! Since then, it has been very slowly increasing.

country on the left. Navarre retains, among other ancient privileges, an independent royal council. But the supreme judicial tribunal is the royal council of Castile, which holds its sittings at Madrid. The tribunals of exception, however, which withdraw both persons and property from the jurisdiction of ordinary tribunals, are so numerous, that at least half the business of the kingdom is independent of the ordinary judges. At the head of these, are the fifteen courts of the Inquisition. Further details will occur in describing the provincial peculiarities. It will now be requisite to take a brief survey of the physical aspect of the country.

PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

THE Spanish peninsula, lying between Europe and Africa, and partaking of the climate of both, may be considered as occupying a geographical position peculiarly advantageous, as respects both the facility of intercourse with other nations, and the means of internal defence. Situated between two seas which spread its commerce into every part, it collected on either hand, in the time of its maritime greatness, the wealth of both Indies; while, on the only side on which it is accessible to foreign invasion, the Pyrenees present a formidable, though it has not proved an insuperable barrier. Its greatest longitudinal extent, from Cape Finisterre to Cape Creus, is 650 miles; its breadth, from Cape Ortegal to Gibraltar, 550. Exclusive of Portugal, its superficial extent may be stated in round numbers at 176,500 square miles. No European country, except Switzerland, is so mountainous. Besides the great Cantabrian chain which connects with the Pyrenees, and extends along the shores of the Bay of Biscay to Cape Finisterre, a lon-

itudinal range, sometimes called the Iberian mountains, runs across the peninsula, in an irregular line, from north to south, terminating at Cabo de Gata, on the coast of Granada: from this range, four other chains diverge, extending westward to the Atlantic. These mountains, though differing in their geological character,* may be considered as one connected groupe. They are thus described by Laborde.

“ The first chain that we perceive on leaving Cape Finisterre, stretches along the whole of the north of Spain, and joins the Pyrenees. In this are the sources of the Miño and the Duero, which empty themselves into the Atlantic, and of the Ebro, the course of which is towards the Mediterranean. These mountains, advancing towards the south-east, divide the streams which flow into the Ebro, from those which flow into the Duero. On one side, they form the outline of Aragon, and on the other, that of Old Castile. They advance thus as far as Cuença and Molina, the names of which they take; and soon after, give rise to the Tagus on the right, and the Xucar and the Guadalaviar on the left. Here we find the *nucleus*, as we may call it, or knot of the whole chain, Mount Cayo, which seems to be the reservoir of all the waters that rise in springs round this point, and take their course towards the two seas. This same chain, still advancing towards the south, forms a mass, whence the Guadiana flows, and, further on, the Guadalquivir; finally terminating at the Cabo de Gata. The rivers which rise within this chain,

* The mountains surrounding Toledo, and those between Piera and Igualada, in Catalonia, are of granite; but the prevailing formation is limestone. Gypsum abounds in several provinces. The mountain of Filabra near Almeria, is said to be entirely composed of a pure white statuary marble. Granada, in particular, contains many valuable varieties of marble.

divide it into so many large valleys and intermediate plains, yet, leaving in the intervals considerable ramifications, all of which are attached to the principal trunk. As the rivers flow in parallels towards the ocean, so, the mountains which overhang and swell them with their waters, run in parallel ridges from the mountains of the Asturias in the north, to those of the Alpuxarras in the south. Thus, the mountains of St. Andero, which join the Pyrenees, run along between the Duero and the sea. The mountains of Guadarrama, which separate Old from New Castile, run between the Tagus and the Duero. Another chain, which divides New Castile from the plains of La Mancha, runs from the north-east to the south-west, between the Tagus and the Guadiana: in this chain we find the *Sierra de Guadalupe*. On the other side of the Guadiana is the famous *Sierra Morena*, from which we descend into the beautiful plains of Andalusia, watered by the Guadalquivir, and overlooked by the last chain of mountains in Spain, the Alpuxarras, which extend to the coast.

“ The direction of the mountains and rivers of this country sufficiently points out what are its natural lines of defence. Setting out from the defiles of *Pancorvo*, four barriers shut up the avenues of Spain from north to south; and these long retarded the progress of the Christians against the Moors. The mountains of Spain are almost all calcareous; and no traces are to be seen in them of volcanoes. Though, from the north-east, the country gradually becomes lower, yet, the high plain or table land of the Castiles has an elevation of 300 fathoms. The mean height of the barometer at Madrid, shews that capital to be elevated 309; fathoms above the level of the

ocean.* Madrid, consequently, stands as high as the town of Inspruck, which is situated in one of the highest defiles of the Tyrol. The elevation of Madrid is fifteen times greater than that of Paris, three times greater than that of Mount Valerian, and also three times greater than that of Geneva. According to Mr. Thalacker, the mineralogist, that of the king's palace at St. Ildefonso, in the environs of Madrid, is 593 fathoms, which is higher than the edge of the crater of Mount Vesuvius. No other monarch in the world is possessed of a palace in the region of the clouds !†

“ The height of the plain of the Castiles has an effect on its temperature. We are astonished at not finding oranges ripen in the open air under the fortieth parallel of latitude ; the same as that of Tarentum, part of Calabria, Thessaly, and Asia Minor. The mean temperature‡ of Madrid appears to be 59° of Fahrenheit ; while that of St. Petersburg is $39^{\circ} 52' 30''$; that of Berlin $46^{\circ} 57' 30''$; that of Paris $53^{\circ} 56' 30''$; that of Naples $63^{\circ} 30'$; and that of the countries situated under the equator, on the level of the ocean, from 79° to 81° . Genoa is 4° further north than Madrid ; and yet, the temperature of Genoa raises the glass almost 2° higher than that of the capital of Spain.

“ European Spain, situated in a latitude under which

* Recueil d'Observations Astronomiques, par M. Humboldt, p. 18.

† In France, the heavy summer clouds are from 550 to 600 fathoms high.

‡ Naturalists find the mean temperature of the year, by adding together all the heights of the thermometer observed in the course of the year, and dividing the total by the number of observations. The mean heat of a place in the temperate zone, may differ sensibly, therefore, from the medium taken between the maximum and the minimum.

palm-trees flourish upon the plains, presents the majestic spectacle of a chain of mountains, the summits of which shoot up into the regions of perpetual snow. Don Clemente Roxas has ascertained, that, in the *Sierra Nevada* of Granada, the *Pico de Venleta* is elevated 1781 fathoms, and the *Mulahacen*, 1824 fathoms above the level of the sea. None of the mountains of the Pyrenees are of so great a height. *Mont Perdu*, the highest ridge of the Spanish Pyrenees, is only 1763 fathoms; and the highest of the French Pyrenees is only 1722. The peak of *Mulahacen* in the *Sierra Nevada* of Granada, is only 76 fathoms lower than the peak of Teneriffe. Yet, even this summit, if situated in the same latitude as the town of Mexico, would not be perpetually covered with snow; for the never-melting snows begin, under the equator, at the elevation of 2460 fathoms; under the 20th parallel of latitude, at 2350 fathoms; under lat. 45°, at 1300; and under lat. 62°, at 900 fathoms: so great is the effect of the depression of the curve from the equator to the poles.”*

NATURAL HISTORY.

THE soil of Spain is for the most part highly productive. Grain was anciently exported from this country; and under the Moors, agriculture was in a very flourishing state; but it has been on the decline ever since their expulsion at the beginning of the seventeenth century. Scarcely two-thirds of the country are now under cultivation.† A traveller may

* Laborde's View of Spain, vol. i. p. clx.—clxiv.

† “Waste lands are numerous in Aragon and Murcia, and they are equally so in New Castile, viz. between the frontiers of Aragon and Torrija; between the Bravo and the river Alberche; between the confines of Valencia and Aranjuez; between Aranjuez and

pass over six, eight, or ten leagues, without meeting with the smallest trace of culture; and the cultivated lands present, with a few exceptions, a languid system of slovenly husbandry. One principal cause of this, is the monopoly of the soil by the *grandees* and the convents. "The lands," says Laborde, "for three, six, eight, twelve, and fifteen leagues in extent, often belong to one owner: the nobility and the clergy possess nearly the whole. The third part of Spain is held by the houses of Medina Celi, Alba, l'Infantado, Aceda, and some few other *grandees*; the archbishops and bishops; the chapters of Toledo, Compostella, Valencia, Seville, Murcia, &c.; and a few of the religious orders, particularly the Benedictines and Jeronimites. The major part of these lands is pasture. It is not, therefore, the uniting of so many of these domains under a small number of proprietors, that appears to be so objectionable; but it is the consequent improper management of the lands they include, and the deficiency of establishments for their profitable culture. The *cortijos*, or farms, usually comprise twice as much land as can well be cultivated under the management of one master; and the time occupied in taking the ploughs to the fields, amounts to a moiety of what should be devoted to the labour of tillage. On the other hand, the proprietors do not overlook their

Toledo, towards Alarcon, &c. So also in Seville, beyond Ecija, between Algesiras and Chiclana, and between Seville and Cantilana: in a space of five leagues in the territory of Utrera, there are 21,000 fanegas. Thirty thousand may be enumerated in the territory of Ciudad Rodrigo, belonging to the kingdom of Leon; and still more in that of Salamanca, Estremadura abounds with wastes; and in Zavala alone, in the district of Badajoz, there is an extent of twenty-six leagues in length by twelve in breadth."—LABORDE, vol. iv. p. 34.

servants in husbandry, but live in the cities, leaving to subalterns the management of their estates, while the manorial houses are suffered to dilapidate. Their woods disappear by the destructive axes of their agents; the lands are but half cultivated for want of hands; labourers from other parts receive no encouragement to come and settle, for lack of the means of subsistence; and the few villages which are inhabited, are rapidly hastening to decay."

Other causes of the depression of agriculture are adverted to in the following paragraphs. "The heat of the climate will not permit persons to work in the open fields for a long time together. The Spanish labourer takes his *siesta*, and smokes his *cigarro*, during which intervals his work ceases. The multiplicity of feasts lessens the number of working days. It is true, that the former have been virtually much abridged; but then persons are obliged on such days to attend mass, and this occasions much loss of time, especially to such labourers as are occupied at a distance from a church. Many also entertain scruples of conscience respecting the working on such holidays, though they have been suppressed. The diocese of Toledo still retains forty-one feast-days, which, added to fifty-two Sundays, make the sum of eighty-three days; leaving only two hundred and sixty-two for the purposes of labour, even supposing the peasants to labour on those holidays which have been suppressed. The days dedicated to the titular saints of particular parishes, the patron saints of private families, and the guardian saints of individuals, are so many other feasts on which labour is temporarily suspended. It may be said of these festivals, as well as of the pilgrimages to a multitude of hermitages and isolated chapels, that some are observed

for the sake of vows, some for devotion, some through custom, and by far the greatest number for the pleasure of rambling.*

“ The difficulties attending the transporting of heavy articles, impedes the progress of agriculture. The roads in Spain were formerly almost impassable ; carriage was extremely difficult, and could only be performed on the backs of horses, asses, or mules, which was both tedious and expensive. Some years ago, excellent roads were made throughout the kingdom ; but the Spaniards have not been induced to become more industrious, nor to forego their ancient customs. Scarcely any waggons are employed, and Catalonia and the kingdom of Valencia are almost the only provinces in which carts have come into general use. The difficulty attending carriage, renders the conveyance of provisions to a market expensive, and, while it diminishes their value to the grower, advances the price to the buyer ; thus does it operate to the discouragement of agriculture. This remark should be understood principally as applying to the central provinces, which have fewer communications than the rest.

“ The uncertainty of a market for commodities is another obstacle. The Government is frequently changing the laws respecting exportation. It was

* “ The Count de Capomanez states the sum lost every feast-day, by the suspension of labour, at six millions of reals, or four millions of livres tournois. He here comprehends the persons employed in trade and manufacture, as well as those occupied in agriculture. If, as Dr. Adam Smith has proved, labour, in a national point of view, constitutes wealth, what a prodigious loss does Spain annually experience by the effects of a blind superstition ! Taking the livre at 10*d.* English, then 4,000,000 livres are equal to 166,666*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.* the loss of one day. Allowing the number of feast-days thus retained to be forty-one in the year, the annual deficiency will amount to 6,833,333*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.* ! ”

permitted in the year 1765 ; prohibited in 1769 ; and again allowed in 1783. These variations render the spirit of agriculturists timid and wavering."

Most of the evils, in fact, under which this fine country labours, and by which it has been depopulated, are to be traced to the imbecility and wickedness of its wretched government.

The chief productions of Spain are, wheat, barley, maize, rice, flax, hemp, the sugar-cane, madder, barilla, saffron, and almost all kinds of fruits. Andalusia is the granary of Spain. Leon and Old Castile are almost equally productive. Barley is cultivated in every part, but especially in Granada, Seville, Old Castile, and Murcia. Valencia produces chiefly maize and rice ; the sugar-cane is also cultivated here with success, and a little cotton. The olive flourishes in almost every part of Spain, as does the vine ; but the eastern and southern provinces yield the finest grapes. Catalonia is exceedingly rich in forest plantations, to which, of late years, the Spaniards have turned their attention. The mountainous districts of this province are covered with the beech, the pine, the evergreen oak, and the cork-tree ; the chestnut and hazel-nut grow on the sides of the hills and in the valleys. Elms and willows fringe the margins of the rivers, and all sorts of fruit-trees flourish in the plains. The mountains of Biscay, though thinned, in many parts, of their once impenetrable woods, still exhibit extensive forests. A quantity of cider is made in Asturias, where the apple-tree abounds. Woods of ash, elm, white poplar, mulberry-tree, carob-tree, and different varieties of oak,* occur in other districts. The pine and the yew

* *Quercus ilex*, or evergreen oak ; *quercus suber*, or cork-tree ;

clothe some of the *sierras*; and in some parts of Valencia, there are forests of palm-trees, which constitute the principal wealth of the country. The two Castiles and La Mancha are almost entirely bare of timber.

The animal kingdom in Spain presents nothing remarkable. The birds, quadrupeds, reptiles, and insects are the same as are found in the southern provinces of France. The breed of Spanish horses was famous in the time of the Romans, and the wools of Bætica and Cantabria were held in high esteem.

Spain was formerly celebrated for its mineral treasures; but, since the discovery of America, its mines have been neglected, and now produce but little. Gold, silver, copper, lead, iron, antimony, cobalt, cinnabar, plumbago, sulphur, and (it is said) coal,—also, amethysts, agate, chalcedony, and garnets are found in different parts of the country. Mineral springs are very numerous.

“In what country,” exclaims M. Laborde, “will those who employ themselves in natural history find more interesting objects? Three-fourths of the mountains in Spain are composed of admirable marble and alabaster. In Catalonia alone, there are 177 different kinds, without including the jasper of Tortosa. The green marble of Granada, and the flesh-coloured, have a brilliancy to the eye, and a fineness to the touch, which rank them with the most beautiful oriental substances. Several of the provinces of Spain are still enriched with mines of gold and silver, red lead, and

quercus coccifera, or kermes oak. In the two Castiles, Estremadura, and Andalusia, the acorn of the *ilex* is eaten; and, according to Laborde, is considered as a delicacy. He says, they call them *bel-lotas*, and eat them either raw or roasted.

quicksilver. A Flora and a Herbal of this kingdom are desiderata, and no other country would afford richer materials.

“ Those who take interest in the fine arts, historical recollections, and the monuments of antiquity, may, in Spain, walk over the ruins of Saguntum, Numantia, Tarragona, and Merida, — the theatre of the campaigns of Hannibal, the Scipios, and the unfortunate sons of Pompey: they may repose in the shade of the ancient cypresses of the fountain of Sertorius, and read the name of *Optimus* in the inscriptions, in the native country of Trajan and Adrian. But the monuments which the Roman people left profusely in every part of the empire, are not the only ones in Spain. A people less powerful, though equally celebrated, less known, though as worthy of being so, have left in this country, perhaps, the only monuments which exist of them in the world. The Arabs spent ages in embroidering, if I may use the expression, the walls of Granada and Cordova, and in completely clothing them with an assemblage of ornaments, the grace and lightness of the details of which, are equal to the grandeur of the masses. While those voluptuous people ornamented in this manner the baths and retired cabinets of their seraglios in the south, the Goths raised the dark and austere monuments of their religion in the north. Forests of columns supporting pointed roofs, lighted by windows stained with glaring colours, immense iron gates, loaded with carved ornaments, and marble mausoleums, casting long shadows upon funeral inscriptions, present another kind of monument, more solemn and more historical. At last, the era of the revival of the arts in the age of the Medicis, commenced in the reign of Charles V.; and it

may be supposed that Spain, which at that period was superior to the rest of Europe, was not inferior to it in this kind of glory. In fine, persons who delight in the knowledge of politics, laws, and customs, will find in Spain a primitive people, whose character retains all its purity. Half of this beautiful country still lies fallow, but the other half proves what it might be made. All its productions are of a remarkable quality: the corn loses only five parts in a hundred in grinding, while every where else it loses fifteen. The olives are twice as large as those of Provence, and would produce as good an oil, if the people knew well how to make it. The wines of Malaga, Xeres, and Alicante are sufficiently known. The wools have long excited the admiration and jealousy of neighbouring nations. It is in Spain only that we meet with forests of palm-trees without crossing the desert, and plantations of sugar-canes without seeing slavery."

Unhappily, the drawbacks which this Writer enumerates—bad roads, bad inns, high prices, and scanty fare—are not the only ones which now oppose the progress of the traveller in this interesting country.

CHARACTER AND MANNERS OF THE SPANIARDS.

BEFORE entering on the topographical description of the peninsula, as far as we are made acquainted with it by modern travellers, it may not be unacceptable to the reader, to have presented to him a brief general sketch of the character and manners of the natives. This is the more necessary, as the Spaniards are a people far less generally known than the inhabitants of any other country in Europe. There are peculiarities of character and customs which nothing

but a long residence in the country, and a familiar intercourse with the natives, can furnish a foreigner with the opportunity of observing.

It is a common mistake, to judge of a people by the conduct of its political and ecclesiastical government. The picture of the Spaniard drawn by most European travellers, is but a caricature, in which his best features are either distorted or rendered not discernible. He has been represented as at once intolerant, indolent, ignorant, and superstitious, and not more a slave in his political circumstances, than in his disposition. Such is the odious light in which he has constantly been exhibited by those who have caught but a passing glimpse of him, in their impatience to escape from his country, where so few comforts for travellers are found. But, to judge of him rightly, we must separate him from his government, and from that intolerant hierarchy which has been fatally intrusted with civil power and the sword of justice; and if, in spite of these two baneful influences acting upon the national character for so many ages, the Spaniard should be found not quite the degraded slave and bigot that he has been supposed to be, the unmerited contempt which we are apt to entertain for his character, may not only abate, but, perhaps, may even be changed into admiration.

The truth is, how much soever the assertion may sound like a paradox, that the Spaniards are less influenced in their habits, and even their political opinions, by their government, than any other people in existence. To how great an extent their natural good sense and noble feelings have withstood the baneful influence of the intolerant inquisitorial jurisdiction established in their country, will be noticed hereafter.

They have, indeed, been uniformly submissive, on principle, to the acknowledged authorities; but, at the same time, they have never been blind to the errors, the fopperies, and the profligate manners of the court. In other countries, we see the fashions and morals of the court transmitted downwards, from the royal palace to the humblest cottage; but in Spain, no such result has been observable, at least since the accession of the Bourbon dynasty. In illustration of this, may be instanced their strong attachment to the national costume. Every province has its own peculiar dress, a dress which has remained invariably the same for ages, notwithstanding that, from the time of Philip V., the French modes have been the prevalent ones at court. This singular attachment to costume were in itself scarcely worth the noticing, did it not evince a patriotic spirit, universally felt and acted upon. The following anecdote, given by an eye-witness, will shew how far a feeling of this kind may have a political bearing:—

It is a whimsical practice in many parts of Spain, after the passion-service on Saturday in Holy Week is ended, to burn in some public place, the effigy of Judas Iscariot. When the nation happens to be at war with any power, Judas is exhibited in the garb of the enemy. Like our Guy Faux, he is shewn suspended to a stake, but with this difference, that he is generally stuffed with combustibles: on the application of a match, his entrails gush forth in spiral volumes of flame, and his whole frame is finally exploded to atoms. “I witnessed this exhibition,” says the narrator, “at Valladolid, in 1796, after the Spanish Government had concluded peace with France, and declared war against England. I expected, therefore, to see Judas exhibited in the dress of an Englishman, when,

to the universal satisfaction of the applauding multitude, he popped forth a complete modish French fop, with his *citoyen*, as they called it, or *surtout*, reaching down to his heels, his hair *à la Brutus*, that is, cropped behind and bushy at top, his red cravat *à la guillotine*, and every other attribute of a revolutionary nonpareil. The merry circumstance, however, was nearly terminating in a serious affray; for, one of the by-standers pointing at some of the students, who had already adopted this outlandish dress, and calling out, *Mira a los hermanos de Judas!* ‘Look at Judas’s brothers!’—the insulted party rushed upon him; the people defended him, and some blows were exchanged; but the police interfering, succeeded at last in quelling the riot. The French fashion was thus literally exploded, and that not only in Valladolid, but, as if by previous concert, in numberless other places; no one venturing ever after to appear in a dress thus become the object of universal contempt and derision.”

In proof that this people think for themselves, in opposition to court measures and state policy, we might mention the general dissatisfaction which was evinced at that period, at the peace made with France, and the war declared against England. It was then a current saying, and became quite proverbial:—*Con todo el mundo guerra, y paz con Ynglaterra*: “War with all the world, but peace with England.” Numberless pasquinades were every where posted up in Madrid, often on the very walls of the royal palace, ridiculing the impolitic measures of government, and pointing out in satirical terms, the losses incurred, and the misfortunes entailed upon the nation.* Even the lewd and

* After the defeat of the Spanish fleet by Admiral Jervis, off Cape St. Vincent, in 1796, which the Madrid Gazette—the only journal then published in the kingdom—took no notice of for

scandalous conduct of the Spanish queen escaped not the public, any more than the private censure and animadversion of the community.* Much had the usurper Joseph to endure from this species of witty

some time, the following pasquinade, question and answer, was seen in large characters, posted over the very gates of the palace:—

“ Que navios han llegado?—Los que el Ynglés ha dexado.

Pregunto: quantos han venido?—Los que el Ynglés ha querido.

Se saven de ellos los nombres?—Ya, muy bien lo saven en Londres.

Conque a hora havra promocion?—En honra de la nacion.

Que haran de los oficiales?—Pór lo menos generales.

Se pagaran los marineros?—Quando hayga mas dineros.

Y los mantos? y los cokos?—Que vagan a matar piojos.

Pregunto: quantos han matado?—Dios los hayga perdonado!”

Pray, what ships are returned?—Why those the English have suffered to escape.

But do tell me how many have come back?—All those that the English have let pass.

Are their names known?—Yes, perfectly ere now in London.

O now then there will be promotions?—Much to the honour of the nation.

What will they make of the under officers?—Nothing less than admirals.

But will they pay the seamen's wages?—O yes, when there is more money to be had.

And the crippled, and the maimed?—Let them go and kill lice.

But pray how many have been slain?—Oh, for these, God pardon them!

The strictest search was made, but in vain, for the author or expositors of this pasquinade. One morning, on the same spot, was seen the following notice:—*En valde me buscais; solo estava quando lo hice*—In vain you try to find me out; I was all alone when I did it.

* A striking likeness of her majesty was painted on a board, and raised on a pole above the heads of a multitude, who, forming themselves into a mock procession, paraded thus, for some time, the streets of Madrid, and finished the ceremony by lodging the portrait in the most notorious brothel of that metropolis.

warfare: one instance deserves mention. A stone was rounded into the form of a melon, of the oblong species resembling a cucumber, called in Spanish, *pepino*; which word happens to be as well a term of contempt,* as the diminutive of *pepe*, the familiar abbreviation of Joseph, answering to our Joe. This stone, painted green, was suspended before the palace gate, with the following label in large characters:—

*Quando madura este melon,
Reynara Napoleon—*

When this melon ripens, Napoleon will reign.

Although every exertion was made to discover the authors of this and other satirical jokes, so incessantly played off against the intrusive government, in no instance was it discovered with whom they originated. No threats could frighten, nor any promises induce any individual to betray his neighbour; a circumstance which displays a magnanimous trait in the Spaniard's character, — that of inviolable fidelity towards his friends. The only exceptions to this general characteristic are to be found among the courtiers or nobility.

A remarkable instance of patriotic secrecy occurred in General Romana's army, while it was doing duty with the French in the north of Europe. That general received information by a messenger despatched to him from England, that a British squadron was lying off the Isle of Fiunen, to transport himself and his troops back to Spain, should he only be able to effect his retreat to the coast. This secret intelligence he communicated to the officers of his staff, who imparted

* *No vale un pepino*, he is not worth a cucumber, is a proverbial saying.

it to the other officers and subalterns, and these last disclosed it to the troops. Eight days elapsed before the general could put his design into execution ; yet, of the thousands who were in the mean while aware of his intentions, not one was found base enough to be induced by the hopes of reward, to betray the secret to the French, who were in force sufficient to have marred the project. These brave fellows, on their return home, were allowed by their government to wear, as a badge of distinction, a cross in the form of a mariner's compass, with the appropriate motto—*La patria es mi norte* : My country is my pole.

The simultaneous and unanimous decision repeatedly manifested by the Spaniards on great national emergencies, is a trait deserving of notice, more especially when we consider the great extent of their country, together with its distribution into so many distinct principalities, the natives of which differ from one another very materially in dialect, dress, character, and manners ; and when we reflect also, that, under their arbitrary government, they had no public or regular medium of communication, such as the free press affords, but that, on the contrary, they were studiously kept in the dark with regard to cabinet measures, and were prohibited, under the strictest inquisitorial penalties, from making the authorities in church or state, and the established order of things, the subjects of their animadversion. What, in spite of all this, but a strong patriotic feeling, could have inspired them one and all, at the very moment when Bonaparte unmasked his designs upon their country, to raise their long-neglected standard in opposition to the victorious eagles of France ? The Asturias, without waiting to learn the determination of the other pro-

vinces, set the example of defiance to the usurper. The other provinces as spontaneously and resolutely adopted the same step. The universally pervading sentiment was, that they would not, and therefore could not, be conquered. Yet, there was enough to appal them, and to make the most daring shrink from the venturous undertaking. They knew that they had no resources but their own individual courage and exertions, while they had to contend against the most formidable power in Europe, whose veteran armies, in all their pride of recent victories, were already in the heart of their country, and masters, by treachery, of all their principal fortresses. The flower of their troops had been artfully decoyed out of the kingdom, and sent to serve with the French at the opposite extremity of Europe. What remained of their shattered and dismantled navy, had been put into the hands of the enemy by their infatuated sovereign, and placed under the usurper's control. Their treasury was drained of the last mite, and the whole national resources were already exhausted. No wonder that Bonaparte, after having been able to effect all this under the sanction of their idiot king, imagined he could make of still passive Spain, in the forlorn and seemingly hopeless situation in which his unprincipled policy had placed her, an easy, and even a bloodless conquest. But, on pulling down the hereditary sovereign from his throne, in order to seat there his brother, he at once dispelled the charm that so bound the minds, and rivetted the respect of that loyal and magnanimous people. He soon found that he had mistaken the character of the nation he was now contending with; nor did any circumstance in his career surprize and startle him so much, as the unlooked for, undivided, and resolute opposition he met with from the Spanish people,

to the accomplishment of his ambitious designs.* But he was still more surprised and discontented, when he found this people so unconquerably obstinate and persevering in their resistance, in spite of all the outrages and cruelties by which he sought to overcome and intimidate them. It was, indeed, the English who drove the French out of Spain; but it should be remembered, that before our army entered that kingdom, Bonaparte's choicest troops, his conquering veterans, had already perished. And, indeed, considering the nature of the country, and the disposition of its inhabitants, it is probable, that, even had not Great Britain put forth, as she generously did, her strong arm in their defence, the war would only have been indefinitely protracted; that the people would never have been wholly subdued. It is an incontrovertible fact, that, during the whole time that the French remained in Spain, they never possessed an inch of her territory, except the very ground they occupied. They were always either attacked in the field by the regular troops, or hunted down in every direction, like beasts of prey, by the guerillas; nor was ever any respite allowed them which the natives could prevent.

The Spaniard, viewed also under the influence of his church, is not altogether the blind bigot, the into-

* By persons well acquainted, from personal intercourse, with the Spanish character, this determined and ungovernable spirit of resistance was not unforeseen. The author of a volume of poems, published in London, in 1808, (the Rev. W. P. Mac Donald, chaplain of De Roll's regiment,) ventured to predict in a note, that the Spaniards, whom Napoleon mistook for a nation of passive slaves, would give him more trouble to subdue, than any with whom he had hitherto contended. Mr. Southey is also entitled to the credit of having, from the first, predicted that from Spain would proceed the stone that should, by rolling, become a mountain, and overwhelm the imperial colossus.

lerant fanatic, that he has been represented. Let any one of our brave countrymen who served under Lord Wellington in the peninsula, say, if ever he was shunned or slighted by the natives on account of his differing with them on the score of religion. They would tell him readily, that they like not his religion; but it never entered into their heads, to extend, on that account, their dislike to his person. This enlightened discrimination between the person and his persuasion, is universal, in spite of the endeavours of the Inquisition to destroy it. The Spanish Government scrupled not to name Lord Wellington,* though a Protestant, to the supreme command of its Catholic army; while in Great Britain, no Roman Catholic subject could aspire to the honour of commanding a single regiment. And though Ballasteros, whose pride was hurt at seeing a foreigner thus preferred before himself, omitted no remonstrance that might in any way have tended to defeat the measure, yet, he never once ventured to urge the creed of his rival as any bar to his holding

* "There exists throughout Spain," Mr. Bowring affirms, "with some exceptions, produced by narrow interests and passing circumstances, a great affection for England. Our heresy is talked of with pity, rather than with blame. Ana Bolena, whose name is familiar to almost every Spaniard, divides the imprecations of the Spanish people with her abandoned tyrant and lord. English knights and Spanish cavaliers had 'foughten together in chevalrie,' through many an age and in many a fray. The names of British *lores* (lords) are prominent in several of the Troubadour compositions, and are mentioned by the Valencian *romanceros*, as bravely leading on their troops against the Moors. The marriage of Philip with Mary strengthened the connexion between the two countries; and the wars to which family piques have given birth, have not been able to root out sympathies planted too deeply to be destroyed by temporary events." *London Magazine*, vol. vii. p. 513. — Art. *Spanish Romances*.

the high appointment. In proof of the liberal-mindedness even of many of the Spanish clergy, we might refer to the readiness with which they concurred in the Cortes, of which they formed a considerable portion, in abolishing the Inquisition, and suppressing the monastic institutions.* Few have gone further than the Spanish divines in their opposition to the undue influence of the court of Rome, and to all the usurpations of the papal see, from the earliest ages to the present time.

The Spaniards have every requisite in their character for forming the finest troops imaginable. Though proverbially high-minded, they are perfectly submissive to the lawful authorities. Naturally abstemious, they are contented with the simplest fare and clothing, scorning delicacies of every kind, and never drinking to excess, though their excellent wines are sold cheaper than our small beer: indeed, *borracho*, or drunkard, is deemed one of the most opprobrious terms in their language. No trouble, fatigue, or privation, in the discharge of their duty, ever makes them murmur or repine. Whoever witnessed the patriotic enthusiasm of the Spanish forces in 1811, when they appeared in the most ragged, famished, and forlorn condition possible, must be fully sensible of the truth of these assertions. Though never army was worse provided for, or suffered more disasters than theirs, no mutiny ever took place among them; none ever refused obedience to their leaders, and not a man of them ever deserted to the enemy.

* See, for example, the learned Dr. Villanueva's remarks on the answers given by the Irish Catholic Bishop, Dr. Doyle, before the Committee of the House of Commons, relative to the papal jurisdiction.

It may appear astonishing, that this same people should have remained so long patient and passive under the wretched and ruinous government of Charles IV., who shewed themselves so determined in resisting the usurpation of King Joseph. The fact is, that their indignant feelings at the atrocious conduct of Bonaparte, their sympathy also for Ferdinand, whom they knew only as the victim of persecution before and after the invasion, their general dislike to the French, and their hatred of French revolutionary principles,—all concurred to rouse them from their lethargy, and made them rush to arms. Hitherto, they had been swayed by their high sense of the obedience due to the established authorities, never deeming themselves absolved from their allegiance on account of the personal vices, or even the misconduct of their rulers; and though their government was internally as despotic as it was externally weak and contemptible, yet, its tyrannical measures never immediately affected the lower orders, or the great mass of the community. Contrasted with those of the same class in other countries, in spite of all the defects of their government, they enjoyed under it a state of comparative happiness, and even independence. The leases of their farms, in most places, were held to perpetuity, with seldom any augmentation of rent; and when a storm, inundation, or any other unavoidable accident happened to damage or destroy the fruits of their industry, a discount in their favour was usually allowed or awarded them, in proportion to the loss they had thus sustained. In case even that a distress were put upon their property, (a thing almost unheard of among them,) the mechanic's tools, and the farmer's labouring utensils, never became forfeited to their owners; it being, in the mild spirit of their law,

accounted cruel and unjust to deprive such persons of the absolutely necessary means of retrieving their misfortunes. Had a husbandman, however, neglected for several seasons to cultivate some portion of his farm—a vineyard or a corn-field—allowing it to run wild and become unproductive, any neighbour, desirous of gaining possession of it in order to turn it to account, might, in many of the inland districts, make it his own, on planting, before witnesses, a vine root in it, and engaging to pay a proportional rent for it to the proprietor. All this might be an ill-judged system in a populous, well-improved, and trafficking nation; but, in a country so thinly peopled as Spain, from the interior of which, owing to the badness of the roads, nothing can be exported but on the backs of mules, the case is different. There, no motive operates to stimulate the industrious exertions of the natives, further than their own particular wants, and the fulfilment of the agreements understood to exist between the husbandman and the proprietor.

The ready and unexpensive means afforded to every one not litigiously inclined, of maintaining his civil rights, also contributed not a little to make them contented under the existing order of things.

To shew how far this was the case, it is necessary to premise, that ever since the expulsion of the Moors from Spain, a ridiculous, but legal distinction has been kept up between those who can prove themselves not descended from that infidel race, and those who cannot. The former constitute an inferior class of nobility, called *hidalgos*, or gentlemen, who are entitled to the appellation of *Don*, and are admissible to posts of honour in the state or army. They also enjoy privileges and immunities of which the king, though so

absolute a monarch, cannot deprive them, among which is an exemption from certain taxes, and from impressments into the army; only, should the king in person take the field, they are under obligation to follow him as volunteers. Persons entering the church, on their taking holy orders, are merged in this class. But what is very singular, an Irish Roman Catholic settling in Spain, is accounted one of this dignified class, enjoys its immunities, and may forthwith aspire to the first posts of honour in the kingdom; while a native, unable to prove his *sangre limpia* (pure blood) and uncontaminated descent from Christian ancestry, finds himself deprived of all such privileges, and debarred from every dignified situation. The Irish, however, are considered as sprung from one common origin with the Spaniards.

The whole population being thus divided into two great castes, the noble and the plebeian, two magistrates, named *alcaldes*, are annually chosen by the inhabitants in every town and village; the one a noble, by the nobles, to defend their rights, or adjust their differences; the other, for a like purpose, a plebeian, by the plebeians. Those who are elected *alcaldes* are generally distinguished by a reputation for good sense and integrity; and, except such flattering testimonial of the public esteem, their post affords them no emolument. The poorest, even, are as readily chosen as the rich; nor is it uncommon to see the servant of some wealthy plebeian, should he happen to be of the dignified caste, nominated the *alcalde* of the nobles. In 1797, an instance of this kind occurred in *Bascillo*, a village eight miles from Valladolid, situated on the banks of the Duero. The servant of a plebeian *cachican*, that is, the keeper of a vineyard and wine-vaults, having been chosen noble *alcalde* for that year, had

to decide a difference between his master and one of his own order. His decision was given against his master ; but the judgement, once definitively passed, becomes part of the law. Should any one, indeed, deem himself thereby aggrieved, he can appeal, but at a great expense, to the court of chancery. This, however, is rarely done, not so much in consideration of the costs, as because the cases are so few in which that court has been induced to annul or alter the sentence passed by these rustic judges. When a case is to be tried in any of these petty courts, if the affair concerns those of only one caste, the magistrate of that caste alone attends : if otherwise, both magistrates are present. No peculiarity of costume distinguishes them, but no sooner have they taken their seat in the court-hall, and assumed each a rod, the badge of their office and authority, than silence ensues, and all stand uncovered before them. When they have heard the parties, and given their decision, they lay down their rods, quit the bench of justice, and mingle with the by-standers on the same footing of equality as before, talking on every subject but the one they have just decided upon. There can be little doubt that Cervantes had this singular court in his eye, when he invented the admirable fiction of Sancho's government in the island of Barataria ; a word evidently derived from *barato*, cheap, and chosen by him, it would seem, to designate a jurisdiction obtained without cost, and enjoyed without profit, like that of the village *alcalde*. This rude system of judicature, the Spaniards carried with them into the New World ; and the Indians of Mexico are still governed, in their separate villages, by native magistrates of their own colour. Its naturalisation in those distant colonies among a semi-civilised race, is a circumstance more

remarkable, perhaps, than its existence in the mother country, where it has grown out of the peculiar constitution of society, and is sanctioned by venerable usage. In both Old and New Spain, however, these rustic courts of equity may have been indebted for their authority and popularity to their being, with all their imperfections, the only tribunals where either a prompt decision or an impartial sentence was to be obtained. Nothing could possibly be worse than every part of the civil, fiscal, and criminal administration in the Spanish colonies ; * and yet, according to the representations of Spanish writers themselves, the state of things at home could not be much less deplorable. The ordinary and regular forms of civil process are slow and complicated to so ruinous a degree, that the expenses of gaining a just cause are, we are told, much greater than the loss of submitting to an unjust demand. The appeals from one jurisdiction to another are endless, and the whole machinery of the courts is exquisitely adapted to the encouragement of interminable litigation and of the unprincipled chicanery of the writers, who form the sole medium of communication between the client and the judge. The Baratarian tribunal were infinitely preferable to such a system.

It would be difficult, not to say impossible, to give a fair representation of the national character of the Spaniards, not only on account of the varied aspect which it assumes in the several classes of society, but because the natives of different provinces differ from each other not less widely than the inhabitants of distinct countries. The Castilians, especially the inhabitants of Old Castile, pride themselves, not wholly

* See *Mod. Trav.*, Mexico, vol. i. p. 96.

without reason, on their high sense of honour. They are described as gloomy and taciturn, more solemn and stately than the inhabitants of any other province, but upright, generous, and sincere,* “the most worthy people in Spain,” though not the most active or industrious. Those of New Castile are said to partake in great measure of this spirit of generosity and nobleness; † they are sober, temperate, and equally

* If a Castilian says to you, “*Mi casa esta a su disposicion de V. M.*,” my house is at your disposal,—you may enter it all times, with as little ceremony as you would your own, and share with him, as a brother, in his family-fare and entertainments. At no time can you visit him amiss; and the more you make yourself at home with him, the more he likes and prizes your acquaintance.

† The very banditti of the country are not unsusceptible of a romantic spirit of generosity and sense of honour. Of this we shall venture to cite a singular instance. A volume, indeed, might be filled with similar traits of generosity and Quixote-like heroism, displayed by these desperate outlaws. Melero, a notorious chief of robbers, who was afterwards taken and executed at Valladolid, was one evening prowling in disguise near that city, when he was addressed by a poor student, supplicating an alms to enable him to prosecute his studies at the university. The robber inquired how he came to be so reduced in his circumstances; on which the student told him, that a rich old uncle on the father’s side, a canon of the cathedral, had, at his father’s death, got possession, as executor, of all the family property, to a certain amount; out of which he had hitherto refused to allow him even the necessary means of subsistence. The robber, upon this, gave the student a dollar, saying that it was all the money he then had at his disposal; but that if he would meet him at the same place, about the same hour, on such a day, he would probably have it in his power to do more for him. He then inquired, in a seemingly careless manner, the uncle’s name and address, and departed. They met again at the time and place appointed, when the robber delivered to the student a bag of gold equal in amount to the paternal property which had been unjustly withheld from him. Melero had, it appeared, in the interim, broken into the canon’s house, and forced him to deliver up the whole of his hoarded treasures. The overplus only of the sum stated, he reserved for himself. The circumstance was made known by the nephew himself, after his uncle’s death and the execution of Melero.

free from every species of falsehood or duplicity, while they are of more docile temper, and, under a lofty aspect and grave demeanour, conceal a proneness to excessive mirth. The Castilian is rather slow in yielding his confidence, but, when it is once conceded, it is given with all his heart and soul. This character of probity and hospitality is ascribed to the natives of some other provinces. The Galicians, in particular, as they are the most industrious, so they claim to be regarded as the most thoroughly trustworthy. *Tan fiel como un Gallego*, as faithful as a Galician, is a proverb. They are the reapers and general labourers, and their very name (*gallego*) has become, from this circumstance, synonymous with servant. Next to them, the Catalonians and the Valencians, though differing from each other as widely as the Scotch from the Irish, have the reputation of being active and enterprising. The Murcians bear the worst character; they are described as "lazy, listless, plotting, and suspicious." The Biscayans are precisely the reverse; laborious, active, frank, lively, sociable, fiery, and generous. Laborde compares the Biscayan to the Basque, the Catalonian to the Provençal, the Valencian to the native of Lower Languedoc, the Galician to the Auvergnese, and the Andalusian to the Gascon. And these varieties in the national character are recognised even in the colonists. "The Andalusians of Venezuela, the Biscayans of Mexico, and the Catalans of Buenos Ayres, differ essentially," Humboldt says, "in their aptitude for agriculture, the mechanic arts, commerce, and science. Each of those races has preserved, in the New as in the Old World, the shades that constitute its national physiognomy; its harshness or its mildness of character, its modera-

tion or its excessive love of gain, its kind hospitality or its love of solitude.”* “The Catalans, the Galicians, and the Biscayans, who have had the most frequent intercourse with America, form there, as it were, three distinct corporations, which exercise a remarkable influence over the morals, the industry, and the commerce of the colonies. The poorest inhabitant of Siges or of Vigo is sure of being received into the house of a Catalan or Galician *pulpero* (retail dealer), on landing either at Chili, or at the Philippine Islands. I have seen the most affecting instances of these attentions rendered to unknown persons during whole years, and always without a murmur.”† “If a native of their own country lands without a farthing,” says another Traveller, “the first Catalan he meets, takes him to his house, gives him work, or recommends him to some of his countrymen. There are many countries in which one brother would not do for another, that which a Catalan is always inclined to do for his countrymen.”‡ In this respect, they have been compared to the Scotch. Captain Basil Hall, in like manner, bears testimony to the honourable character of the old Spaniards of the Colonies. “As merchants,” he says, “they are active, enterprising, and honourable in all their dealings. It is only on the national question between them and the natives, that they are illiberal. Towards those with whom they are acquainted personally, or with whom they have business to transact, they are always fair and reasonable. They are much less tainted with bigotry than the natives; they are men, taken generally, of pleasing conversation and manners, and

* Pers. Nar. vol. iii. p. 426.

† Ibid. vol. ii. p. 169.

‡ Lavayssé's Venezuela, p. 108.

habitually obliging ; and when not pressed by immediate danger and difficulties, especially so to strangers ; for, notwithstanding their characteristic jealousy, their prejudices never interfere with their cordial hospitality and even generosity to foreigners who treat them with confidence and frankness. A Don, it is well known, is the most stately of mortals to those who treat him with hauteur or reserve ; but, to those who really confide in him, and treat him, not precisely in a familiar manner, but in what they term *un mode corriente*, he becomes as cordial and open as any man." *

Colonists seldom exhibit the most favourable specimens of the national character. If the Spaniards are an exception to the rule, the fault must lie in their institutions and the wretched character of their government ; and perhaps the native excellence of the Spanish character shews itself in nothing more, than in its having resisted to so great an extent the debasing tendency of ages of misrule. Dr. Southey has forcibly depicted the state of moral and political degradation into which Spain had gradually been relapsing since the power of the monarch and the church had been rendered paramount and absolute, and which had reached its extreme point of depression at the epoch of the French revolution. " The effects of this double tyranny," he remarks, " were not immediately perceived ; but, in its inevitable consequence, it corrupted and degraded every thing to which it could extend,—laws, morals, industry, literature, science, arts, and arms. In other countries, where absolute monarchy has been established, and the Romish superstition has triumphed, both have been in some degree

* Hall's Extracts from a Journal, vol. ii. p. 270.

modified by the remains of old institutions, the vicinity of free states, and the influence of literature and manners. But in Spain and Portugal, almost all traces of the ancient constitution had been effaced ; and as there existed nothing to qualify the spirit of popery, a memorable example was given of its unmitigated effects. The experiment of intolerance was tried with as little compunction as in Japan, and upon a larger scale. Like the Japanese government, the Inquisition went through with what it began ; and though it could not in like manner secure its victory, by closing the ports and barring the passes of the Peninsula, it cut off, as much as possible, all intellectual communication with the rest of the world. The courts of Madrid and Lisbon were as despotic as those of Constantinople and Ispahan. They did not, indeed, manifest their power by acts of blood, because the reigning families were not cruel, and cruelty had ceased to be a characteristic of the times ; but with that cold, callous insensibility, to which men are liable in proportion as they are removed from the common sympathies of humankind, they permitted their ministers to dispense at pleasure exile and hopeless imprisonment, to the rigour and inhumanity of which death itself would have been mercy. The laws afforded no protection, for the will of the minister was above the laws ; and every man who possessed influence at court, violated them with impunity, and procured impunity for all whom he chose to protect. Scarcely did there exist even an appearance of criminal justice. Quarrels among the populace were commonly decided by the knife ; he who stabbed an antagonist or an enemy in the street, wiped the instrument in his cloak, and passed on, unmolested by the spectators, who never interfered further than to call a priest to the dying

man. When it happened that a criminal was thrown into prison, there he remained till it became necessary to make room for a new set of tenants; the former were then turned adrift; or, if their crimes had been notorious and frequent, they were shipped off to some foreign settlement. After the triumph of the monarchical power, the Cortes had fallen first into insignificance, then into disuse. There was no legislative body; the principle of the government being, that all laws and public measures of every kind were to proceed from the will and pleasure of the sovereign. Men of rank, therefore, if they were not in office, had no share in public business; and their deplorable education rendered them little fit either to improve or enjoy a life of perfect leisure. It is said also to have been the system of both governments, while they yet retained some remains of perverted policy, to keep the nobles in attendance about the court, where they might be led into habits of emulous extravagance, which would render them hungry for emoluments, and thereby dependent upon the crown. The long-continued moral deterioration of the privileged classes had produced, in many instances, a visible physical degeneracy; and this tendency was increased by those incestuous marriages, common in both countries, which pride and avarice had introduced, and for which the sanction of an immoral church was to be purchased.

“The armies partook of the general degradation. The forms of military power existed like the forms of justice; but they resembled the trunk of a tree, of which the termites have eaten out the timber, and only the bark remains. There appeared in the yearly almanacks a respectable list of regiments, and a redundant establishment of officers; but brave and capable of endurance as the Portuguese and Spaniards are, never were

there such officers or such armies in any country which has ranked among civilised nations. Subalterns might be seen waiting behind a chair in their uniforms, or asking alms in the streets; and the men were what soldiers necessarily become, when, without acquiring any one virtue of their profession, its sense of character and honour, its regularity, or its habits of restraint, they possess all its license, and have free scope for the vices which spring up in idleness. Drawn by lot into a compulsory service, ill-disciplined, and ill-paid, they were burdensome to the people, without affording any security to the nation.” *

Religion, taking the word in its emphatic sense, was in a most miserable condition; but it presented, in some respects, a less gloomy aspect. Although the people at large were under the absolute dominion of superstitious feeling, and the parochial clergy, as well as the monastic orders, were nearly on the same level with the laity in point of mental enlargement, yet, there were signs of the approach of a better state of things. The dignitaries of the church were men of respectable characters. The spirit of intolerance was mitigated; much had been done, by commercial intercourse and other circumstances to diminish the horror in which heretics had been formerly held; and some progress had been made towards the introduction of liberal opinions. The morals of the lower classes were deeply depraved, and the influence of what may be called their vulgar rather than their popular literature, must have greatly tended to the increase of their licentiousness. The robber or the assassin was usually the hero of the ballad; nor was the Spanish drama free from this gross perversion of right feeling and taste. Even the higher

* Southey's Hist. of the Peninsular War, vol. i. pp. 4-7.

orders were infected by this corruption of manners. Noblemen delighted to ape the ruffian and the bravo ; and women were found among those of distinguished rank, who affected the dress and the manners of the vilest of their sex.

One cause, however, which tended more than any other circumstance to demoralise the lower classes and to increase the number of banditti, was the great temptation held out to smuggling, together with the excessive rigour of the penal laws in reference to such offences. All contraband articles, being the property of the king, were retailed under his authority at an enormous profit ; and whosoever was found guilty of selling a single ounce of tobacco without that authority, was punished, for the first offence, with fine and imprisonment ; for the second, with years of hard labour ; and for the third, were sentenced to the galleys for life ; the informer being, in each case, progressively remunerated. Those who had once entered, therefore, upon this perilous mode of life, could never think it safe to retrace their steps : commencing as smugglers, they often ended by joining the banditti, dreading less to end their days on the scaffold, than to drag out upon the chain a lingering life of toil and ignominy. The bands of " the army of faith " are said to have been chiefly composed of these desperadoes.

Yet, in spite of all these demoralising influences, it is remarkable, that the character of the peasantry in general had partaken but little of the national decay ; and those who have dwelt among them have borne honourable testimony to their social virtues. At the period alluded to, Dr. Southey remarks, " there was not the slightest appearance of improvement in the principles of the government, or in the administration of justice ; but, if such a disposition had arisen, no

nation could have been in a more favourable state for the views of a wise minister and an enlightened sovereign. For the whole people were proudly and devotedly attached to the institutions of their country; there existed among them neither sects, nor factions, nor jarring interests; they were one-hearted in all things which regarded their native land. Individuals felt for its honour as warmly as for their own; and obedience to their sovereign was, with them, equally a habit and a principle. In spite of the blind and inveterate despotism of the government, the maladministration of the laws, and the degeneracy of the higher classes, both Spain and Portugal were in a state of slow, but certain advancement; of which increasing commerce, reviving literature, humaner manners, and mitigated bigotry, were unequivocal indications." Such was the moral and intellectual state of the population of both kingdoms towards the close of the eighteenth century.

Prior to the French invasion, indeed, if we may trust the perhaps partial accounts of some travellers—but that very partiality on the part of foreigners, speaks loudly in favour of the national character—the Spaniards were among the happiest people in the world. Spain was still the land of romance, of chivalrous gallantry, of the dance, and of song. A spirit of poetry animated the whole population. "There is not a hill, nor a valley, nor a streamlet," says the Translator of Spanish Romances, "which it has failed to consecrate. The very beggar decorates his petitions with poetical imagery: he asks 'a blessed alms from tenderness for one the flower of whose life has been blasted,' or from whom 'the light of heaven has been shut out by a celestial visitation.' The muleteer chants his ever-varying *cancion* to a strain that varies never;

but, while the sun shines, (and it is seldom clouded,) his voice is always heard ; and there is scarcely a village where some *repentista* (improvisatore) has not his portion of poetry and praise.....Even in the obscure and trackless recesses which have scarcely ever been trodden by the foot of a stranger,—in spots beyond the influence of civilisation, where the mass-book and the lives of the saints make up the sum total of the learning of the most learned,—the historical romances have served as the great depositories, the faithful archives of all that is interesting in the chronicles of Spain, since *Rodrigo el Desdichado* completed the ruin which *Witiza el Nefando* had begun. These beautiful and touching compositions have been conveyed from tongue to tongue ; and have served to transfer from generation to generation, in all their strength and freshness, the events as well as the sympathies of other days.....The nationality of the Spaniards, and the geographical position of their country, to which that nationality is partly owing, have preserved, even down to the present day, many of the characteristics of the age of chivalry. The respect and devotion with which the fair sex are treated, are quite remarkable. ‘I kiss your feet, my lady,’ is the accustomed salutation. A woman is a sacred object ; and the very meanest Spaniard would shrink with horror from the slightest outrage committed on a female. *Manos blancas no ofenden*, ‘White hands can never offend,’ is the universal consolation, even when feminine indiscretion becomes ungente. Down to the time of Charles III., it was the custom, in many of the southern provinces, for a gentleman to bend on one knee whenever a lady addressed him. The Spanish drama is crowded with incidents and beautiful sentiments founded on the extraordinary influence of woman. The power of

beauty (*armas de la hermosura*) and the divinity of kings, are the two great subjects of the Spanish stage." *

The Spanish dances are all strictly national; some are supposed to be of Moorish origin: the two most remarkable are the fandango and the bolero, which will be noticed hereafter. This favourite national amusement is for the most part performed in the open air to the sound of the guitar and the tambarine, each dancer keeping time with the castanets fastened to the hands and heels. In some shady, sequestered thicket, the traveller may often espy such light-hearted groupes as Milton paints, when

“ — the jocund rebecks sound
To many a youth and many a maid
Dancing in the checker'd shade;
And young and old come forth to play
On a sunshine holiday,
Till the livelong daylight fail.”

Or, if he happen to pass when, seated near some fountain or brook, they are enjoying their *merienda*, or afternoon repast, whether young or old, he will be invited to partake of their fare, or at any rate to taste their wine. Nor are the guitar and tambarine silent on such occasions; at regular pauses, the voices resume the amorous catch of the sweetly plaintive *seguidilla*. In the fine moonlight summer nights, these innocent revelries are often kept up till a very late hour; and to the fancy of the traveller, might call up the gay groupe described by the Roman bard:

“ Jam Cytherea choros ducit Venus, imminente Luna,
Junctæque Nymphis Gratiae decentes
Alternò terram quatunt pede.” †

* London Magazine, art. Spanish Romances (by Mr. Bowring), vol. vii. pp. 405, 509; viii. p. 50.

† Horat. lib. i. od. 4.

The two Castiles are the only provinces in which the Spanish language is spoken in its purity, on which account it is called *Castiliano*; and it is remarkable, that the Castilian peasant speaks it as correctly, and with as appropriate an accent as the courtier. The Spanish language was formed, according to the opinion of their own writers, during the three hundred years of the Visigothic dominion. "It is evidently," remarks M. Sismondi, "the result of a mixture of the German with the Latin, the terminations of the latter being contracted. The Arabic afterwards enriched it with a number of expressions which preserve their foreign character; and this circumstance has no doubt had an influence on the pronunciation of the language." The laws promulgated by the Visigothic sovereigns, were in Latin. During the domination of the Moors, there was a period at which the Arabic was almost universally employed, except in the churches. The Spaniards who had taken refuge in the mountains, still retained, however, together with their old laws and religion, their use of the rustic Roman, although they did not all speak the same dialect. In Catalonia, the Provençal, or Limousin, prevailed; in Asturias, Leon, and Old Castile, the Castilian; in Galicia, the *Gallego*, the parent of the Portuguese; in Navarre and some parts of Biscay, the Basque, — a Celtic dialect, or, according to some, of Numidian origin, and of an antiquity prior to the Roman conquest.* When, in the eleventh century,

* The Cantabrian or Biscayan, though it has many words in common with the Latin, and is probably related to the Celtic dialects which were succeeded by the Latin, claims to be considered as a language distinct from either the Celtic, the Latin, or the Spanish. In some words, it is said to bear a resemblance to the Irish, and it has adopted a few German words, while it has furnished the modern Spanish with more than a hundred original

the Christians began to recover Spain from the Saracens, the languages which had been preserved by these mountaineers, were introduced into the South; and Spain became divided, as to language, into three longitudinal portions. The Catalan, spoken in the states of Aragon, extended along the shores of the Mediterranean, from the Pyrenees to the kingdom of Murcia; the Castilian was spoken throughout the central region, from the Pyrenees to the kingdom of Granada; and the Portuguese, from Galicia to the kingdom of Algarve.*

This brief preliminary sketch of the institutions, character, and provincial distinctions of the Spanish people, will, it is hoped, sufficiently prepare the reader to accompany the modern traveller in his tour through this highly interesting country. We shall make our entry into the Peninsula by the eastern pass of the Pyrenees, taking for our principal guide in this direction, the French traveller, M. Laborde, who visited Spain in 1808, 9. His "View of Spain," though it cannot be very highly commended for either its discrimination or its accuracy, and has no pretensions to the character of a scientific work, contains a more full and minute topographical description of the country, than any other publication extant. We shall avail ourselves at the same time, of the interesting "Journey through Spain in the years 1786, 7," by our highly respected countryman, the Rev. Joseph Townsend; †

words. Its construction is extremely intricate, the verbs having eleven moods. It is spoken in the angles of France and Spain adjoining the northern extremity of the Pyrenees.—See *Quart. Rev.* vol. x. p. 281, Art. *Adelung's Mithridates*.

* Sismondi's *Hist. View of the Literature of the South of Europe*, vol. iii. chap. 23.

† Mr. Townsend recommends the traveller who wishes to make the tour of Spain, to begin his journey in autumn, when he may

the Travels of Henry Swinburne, Esq., at an earlier part of the eighteenth century; and the brief sketches furnished by M. Thiers, who crossed the Pyrenees at the critical period of November 1822.

ROUTE FROM PERPIGNAN TO BARCELONA.

As soon as you have quitted the plains of Provence, and entered those of Languedoc, you are sensible, says the last-mentioned Traveller, of the vicinity of Spain: "it almost begins there, and the Rhone may be said to be its boundary. As soon as you have crossed it, you are struck with a new pronunciation. The girdle and the reddish-brown bonnet thrown backwards, already announce the costume of Catalonia. At Roussillon, the ancient Narbonne is in sight, and Spain itself seems to appear. The old Romance language,—which, mixed with the Italian in Piedmont, with the French in Provence, with the Spanish in Languedoc, forms in turn the Piedmontese, the Provençal, and the *langue d'Oc*,—here becomes almost pure Catalanian. The women wear a light hood, which they either fold in a square form on their heads or suffer to hang upon their shoulders. The men wear a long red cap, which hangs down the back,—a degenerated form of the net in which the Catalonians

go by Bayonne, Burgos, Valladolid, and Segovia, to Madrid. During the winter, he may visit all the south of Spain,—Toledo, Cordova, Seville, Cadiz, Malaga, Granada; and pass through Murcia and Valencia to Barcelona. "Returning by Zaragoza to Aranjuez in the spring, he may follow the Merino flock to the mountains of the north, while the country on which he has turned his back, is rendered unfit for travelling, by dissolving heats, want of provisions, and malignant fevers. This season will be best employed in Galicia, the Asturias, and Biscay, taking Salamanca and Leon in the way."

envelop their hair. A short jacket, a red girdle folded several times round their loins, wide pantaloons, and shoes or *sabots*, (for they are not acquainted here with *spartillas*,) form the rest of their dress. Their resemblance to the Catalonians is easily accounted for, when we recollect, that the Pyrenees rapidly decline between Catalonia and Roussillon, and that these two provinces were under the same dominion till the reign of Louis XIII."

Perpignan is an ancient place, strongly fortified. It derives importance from its position, being the passage from Roussillon to Catalonia. It is situated in a beautiful plain, bounded, on the west, by Mount Canigou, one of the highest summits of the Pyrenean chain; on the north, by the mountains of Corbières; on the east, by fertile hills, which divide it from the sea-coast; and on the south, by the Catalonian mountains. The temperature is so mild, that the orange flourishes in the neighbourhood, in the open air; and immense olive-plantations extend to the foot of Canigou. From Perpignan to Boulon, a distance of six leagues, the road leads over this plain. On the right, is seen *Mas-Dieu*, an ancient seat of the Templars; also the villages of *Pollestras*, *Vilamulaca*, *Passa*, and *Tresserra*: on the left, situated on an eminence, is *Banuls dels Aspres*.

Boulon, though now only a village, was formerly a fortified town. Part of its walls, and the ruins of its fortifications, are still to be seen. It is finely situated on the right bank of the Tec, and on the edge of a fertile plain. Its ancient name was *Stabulum*; and a Roman military road formerly passed through it. The Tec is here very broad, and often dangerous after rains, from the swelling of the river and the shifting of its sands. In its ordinary state, carriages and cattle

ford it, and foot-passengers cross it on rafts or in small boats. At some distance from Boulon, the traveller begins to ascend the Pyrenees by a gentle rise, which gradually becomes steeper. The road, however, is fine and wide, and supported on the precipices by very good walls, bridges having been thrown over the hollows. It formerly required the strength of thirty men, and almost as many oxen, to drag up a carriage, which four horses now draw with ease. At the end of two leagues, the traveller arrives at the village of Ecluse, the *Clausura* of the Romans; and soon after reaches the summit of the mountain. The castle of Bellegarde, standing on a round, lofty, insulated mountain, defends this defile, called the pass of Pertus (Portus). From this very elevated point, is obtained a boundless view over both kingdoms. At the pass below, there is an office for the examination of passports, with a guard-house. A little further on, a bridge marks the boundary which separates France from Spain. There were formerly some columns here, which the French, in the days of the Republic, threw down and destroyed.

The province of *Catalonia*, on which we now enter, extends forty leagues from east to west, and forty-four from north-east to south-west. On the east, it is bounded by the Mediterranean; on the south, by the kingdom of Valencia; and on the west, by Aragon. Its principal towns are, Barcelona, the capital and the seat of a bishop; Tarragona, the see of an archbishop; Urgel, Lerida, Gerona, Salsona, Vich, Tortosa, all episcopal sees; six other towns dignified with the name of cities, and five sea-ports. It contains, according to Laborde, besides its eight cathedrals and eighteen collegiate chapters, twenty-two abbeys, a grand priory, and 2,784 religious houses. The pro-

vince is watered by twenty-six rivers, ten of which fall into the sea. The Ebro, the largest of them, is very important for its navigation.

Catalonia was one of the first provinces of Spain, in which the Romans succeeded in establishing their power; and it was also one of the first that shook off the yoke of the Saracens, being recovered from them by the French at the end of the eighth, or the beginning of the ninth century. From A.D. 839, it formed a distinct sovereignty, of which Barcelona was the capital, and was governed by sixteen successive counts, till Raymond V., the last of these, ascended the throne of Aragon, in consequence of his marriage with Petronilla, the heiress to that kingdom: he died in 1172. The dominions of these Counts of Barcelona comprised, besides Catalonia, Roussillon, Cerdagne, the county of Foix, and a great part of Languedoc. After the accession of this house to the throne of Aragon, Count Raymond's successors extended their dominion over the islands of Majorca and Minorca, Sicily, and the kingdom of Valencia. At length the whole Spanish monarchy was united under the Castilian sceptre.

The circumstances of Count Raymond's accession to the throne of Aragon, are of a romantic character. Ramiro, brother of the warlike Alphonso I., had been summoned from a monastery to succeed him on the throne. He obtained a dispensation from his vows in order to marry; but, when his daughter Petronilla was yet an infant, conceiving that he had done enough in providing for the legitimate succession, he abdicated the crown in her favour, having first affianced her to Raymond Berenger as her preceptor and consort. He then buried himself again in a monastery, where, nevertheless, he continued to occupy himself with the cares of government. The illustrious husband of

Petronilla is said to have refused, even after the death of Ramiro, the offered title of king. His queen survived him, but resigned the throne at his death, in favour of their son, Alphonso II. Their grandson, Pedro II., distinguished himself by his love of poetry and his gallantries. He was the liberal patron of the Provençal bards, and died in defending the cause of the Albigenses. The male line of Raymond Berenger became extinct at the death of Martin, son of Pedro IV., after having reigned in honour and prosperity during 273 years. To this truly illustrious house, religion, literature, the arts, commerce, — in a word, the cause of civilisation in Europe, was greatly indebted. Its princes, to the glory of having conquered the Moors, added the proud distinction of having humbled kings and tyrannical pontiffs, and, in a barbarous age, exhibited the rare example of a wise tolerance and a respect for the unalienable rights of man. King Martin was succeeded by Ferdinand of Castile, six of the judges to whom the claims of the rival pretenders to the throne were referred, having pronounced in his favour.

Under the Counts of Barcelona, Catalonia was divided into *viguerias*, or jurisdictions governed by a *viguier* (vicar), or lieutenant, with very extensive powers. This kind of magistracy existed even after the union of Catalonia with the Spanish monarchy; but the viceroys, on whom the king conferred the command of this province, gradually undermined the authority of the *viguiers*; and at the conclusion of the seventeenth century, they had lost their most important privileges. The political revolution which seated a branch of the Bourbon family on the throne of Spain, gave a fatal blow to the remains of independence

in Catalonia. Having taken up arms against its new sovereign, it was deprived of its ancient privileges; the *viguerias* were abolished, and it was placed, like the rest of the kingdom, under corregidores.

From the middle of the eleventh century to this period, Catalonia had enjoyed its own laws and local customs, which Count Raymond, in 1068, had substituted for the Gothic laws, then fallen into desuetude. By the gradual enfranchisement of the serfs,* the feudal system had been abolished. After the union of Catalonia with Aragon, the principality still had its own states, who shared the legislative power with the sovereign. They assembled at Barcelona, and occasionally in several other towns. After Roussillon was united to Catalonia, they sometimes met at Perpignan. The deputies were composed of the three orders, clergy, nobility, and commons. The first consisted of the bishops, abbots, deputies of chapters, and of some religious bodies; the second, of all the nobles above the age of twenty, and of proprietors of noble fiefs; the third was called *universidades*, better expressed by the word *commons*, for, in Catalonia, the name of university is given to the municipalities and corporations of towns. The deputies from towns admitted to the states were very few. The states still assembled at Barcelona as late as 1702; but Philip V. abolished these privileges, of which the Catalans were extremely jealous; and they retained only the right of sending deputies to the states-general of the Spanish monarchy.

The aspect of the country on the southern side of

* The last serfs in Catalonia, of whom any mention is made, were the inhabitants of *Remenca*, whom Ferdinand the Catholic enfranchised in the year 1483.

the mountain barrier,* presents a striking contrast to that of the fertile plains of Roussillon. In ascending the Pyrenees on the French side, the limestone formation is succeeded by schist, which extends to the very summit. To the mixture of the clay formed by the mouldering schistous rocks with the calcareous earth, Mr. Townsend ascribes the luxuriant fertility of the marly lands below. But the moment you begin to descend to the south, the rock changes to granite, and the face of the country appears barren and desolate. The only useful vegetable productions of these high mountains are, the ilex and the cork-tree: the latter is very profitable on account of its bark.† At the feet of the Pyrenees, on the Catalonian side, is seen an extensive valley, every where shut in by mountains, excepting a small opening to the sea near Castellon de Empurias in the Bay of Roses. In this extensive basin, which, as seen from the mountains, seems flat and level, are many hills, some rising boldly, some gently swelling, and covered with various kinds of soil, chiefly decomposed granite. In some parts, the "hungry sand" has acquired an unusual proportion of clay, and is exceedingly productive. The cultivated land is covered with vines, olive-plantations, and rye; the uncultivated abounds with the cork-tree. It is a descent of about a league, by a very fine road,

* The mountains which divide France from Spain in this direction, are, Swinburne says, of no very considerable elevation. That of Canigou, according to M. Raymond, is 8,562 feet above the level of the sea.

† The operation of peeling the bark cannot be repeated here, Swinburne says, above once in seven or eight years; but, in the southern parts of Spain, it is performed every fifth year. The trunks, when recently stripped, are of a dusky red. The surrounding mountains are clothed with these trees, which attain a great size and age.

to the foot of the Pyrenees, where stands the little town of *La Junquera*, at the entrance of a plain, which Strabo describes as fertile in flax and abounding with bulrushes ; whence the plain was called *Campus Juncarius*, and the town *Juncaria*. It contains a parish-church, an office for the king's duties, and a guard of fifty men ; but, though situated on the frontier, has but little trade. There is but one inn in the place, and that a wretched one, though tolerable in comparison with the *posadas* which await the traveller in many parts of Spain. At this first office, travellers are usually very strictly searched ; but, unless the principal officers are present, or too many curious spectators flock about the carriage, a small bribe, as in most other places, will obviate this inconvenience.* *La Junquera*, though now a mere village, was once a considerable city, and an episcopal see. It was peopled by a colony from Marseilles. Near it, in 920, was fought a bloody battle, between the Moors and the Christians, in which the latter were routed with great slaughter. On leaving *La Junquera*,† the

* There is one great inconvenience, however, not to be so easily avoided by those who travel in their own carriage, namely, the payment of an enormous duty, amounting generally to three-fourths of the value of the carriage. The only way to get clear of this expense, is to engage to send the carriage out of the country within a stated time ; in which case, the party must have a letter of recommendation or credit, to some person established at *Junquera*, who is to answer for the performance of such engagement, binding himself to pay the supposed duty. The merchants at *Perpignan* take care to furnish travellers with the letters necessary for complying with this indispensable formality.

† Mr. Townsend was struck by seeing the peasants here " exercise their skill in drinking without touching the mouth of the bottle with their lips." It is surprising, he says, from what a height they " let the liquid fall in one continued stream, without missing their aim or spilling a drop. For this purpose, the orifice

road becomes stony, and cut up with gutters, running a long way by the side of the mountains, through passages more or less narrow, crooked, and deep. The traveller has to cross seven times the river *Llobregat*, which, by its sharp windings, renders this route at times dangerous. It is frequently almost dry; but, in rainy weather, it becomes impassable. After proceeding two leagues, he comes to *Hostal-nou*, and crossing the river *Muga* by the bridge of *Molins del Rey*, enters the district of *Ampurdan*. An immense plain then opens before him, carefully cultivated, and divided by hedges of aloe and wild pomegranate. Wheat, rye, flax, and hemp, with vegetables of every kind, cover the earth, together with orchards and olive-grounds, and the whole scene is rich and smiling. After travelling for a league over this fertile plain, the traveller arrives at *Figueras*, "an ugly, straggling town," situated in the middle of the plain. It has, like almost all Spanish towns, its square (*plaza*); the streets are tolerably wide; and it contains a parish-church, two convents (Cordelier and Capuchin), an hospital, a small garrison, and about 4,000 inhabitants; but it has little trade, and that little is owing to its proximity to France. There are two passable inns in the place. The luggage of travellers is here searched again by the revenue-officers, who may be got rid of as at *La Junquera*.*

In the reign of Ferdinand VI. a spacious fortress

of the spout is small, and from their infancy they learn to swallow, like the Thracians, with their mouths wide open—*Threïcîa amystide*. Horat. lib. i. od. 36."

* French money passes at *Figueras*, with the trifling loss of about a real (2½d.) in a louis d'or. Travellers should take care to change their French money here for Spanish; as, the further they advance into the kingdom, the greater is the loss incurred by the exchange.

was built near Figueras, at an immense expense. It stands on a little eminence, commanding the whole plain, and is reckoned one of the finest fortifications in Europe. It bears the name of the castle of *San Fernando*. The form is an irregular pentagon. The walls are of freestone and very thick, the moats deep and wide, and the approaches mined. The principal cordon is not seen from without. The ramparts, magazines, stables, cellars, caserns, and hospitals are defended by a casemate; and the firm, bare rock on which it is built, has been turned to so great advantage, that trenches can scarcely be opened on any side, the ground being every where stony. It will serve as an intrenched camp of from 16 to 17,000 men. The French, in their late wars with Spain, have always got possession of it by stratagem; * a striking illustration of the remark, that such fortresses are better adapted to overawe a turbulent population, or to protect the borders of a kingdom from the incursions of barbarous hordes, than to serve as a defence against invasion.

From Figueras to Gerona is a distance of seven leagues, over an undulating country. About half-way, the road passes over the high mountain of *La Cuesta Regia*, the base of which is composed of a sort of pudding-stone, on which is superposed schist. Limestone reappears between Figueras and the *Col del Oriols*.

* "Political motives," says Laborde, "the discussion of which does not belong to our subject, caused it to be reduced in the last war: but the event was not attended with any impeachment of the Spanish valour. In the council-room of the fortress there are still to be seen spots of ink occasioned by the rage of an officer, who threw his pen and ink against the wall, refusing to sign the capitulation, or in his fury at having been obliged to sign it. The walls have since then been whitened; but through negligence, or by chance, the honourable spot still appears!"

Beyond that pass, the road descends to the bridge thrown over the *Ter*, near which a considerable number of houses ranged in two lines, form a sort of suburb to Gerona. In all the villages on this road, the people are mostly employed in making ropes, baskets, and shoes of a small rush or reed, called *esparto* (*juncus*?).

Gerona (*Gerunda*) is delightfully situated on the declivity and at the foot of a steep mountain. The *Ter* runs through the town, watering the rich valley which opens to the S.W. It is an episcopal city, and formerly gave the title of prince to the eldest son of the King of Aragon. It is famous for the different sieges which it has sustained, and for the brave defence which it has always made.* The town is nearly of a triangular form. The streets are narrow and gloomy, but the houses are tolerably well built.† The churches, Swinburne says, are darker than caverns. The inhabitants lead a melancholy, undiversified kind of life: they have no theatre, no public amusements, no common rendezvous. Every one seems to live alone. The population is above 14,000, one-fourth of whom are priests, monks, nuns, and students. They carry on very little trade. The only manufactories are a few looms for weaving coarse woollen and cotton stuffs and stockings, which have been established in the asylum within the last twenty years. The cathedral and the collegiate church are the two most remarkable edifices in Gerona. The former is built on the

* In the succession war, it distinguished itself by its faithful adherence to the Archduke Charles, and its desperate defence against his successful rival. After it had fallen, the Catalans blockaded it for eight months.

† Mr. Townsend says, the whole city seems to be built of the pudding-stone.

ridge of the mountain, which gives it a very elevated foundation ; it displays a majestic front at the top of three grand terraces, ornamented with granite balustrades. The ascent to it is by a superb flight of steps, eighty-one in number, and of a breadth the whole extent of the church. The front is decorated in bad taste with three orders of architecture, Doric, Corinthian, and Composite, and flanked with two hexagon towers. The interior is large and handsome ; it has only a nave in the Gothic style. The high altar is insulated, and consists of a pavilion, supported by four pillars of mixed marble. The pavilion, the tabernacle, and the steps are of silver, ornamented with precious stones and raised figures. The monuments of Raymond Berenger, Count of Barcelona, and of the Countess Mahault, or Mahalta, his consort, are placed against the wall of the sanctuary. The treasury of this church was formerly very rich, consisting of chalices, patens, vestments, staves, crosses, shrines, relics, censers, lamps, candlesticks, and other articles of gold and silver, set with jewels, which afforded a rich spoil to the French, on their gaining possession of Gerona. The collegiate church of San Felice (formerly Sta. Maria *extra muros*) is of Gothic architecture, consisting of a nave and two aisles divided by pillars. There is a very high and ancient tower in front of the façade. There is a very curious piece of architecture in the Capuchin convent,—an Arabian bath of elegant construction, consisting of columns standing on an octagon stylobate, encircling a reservoir. About a mile from Gerona, there is a Benedictine nunnery, into which only ladies who can bring proof of their nobility are admitted. But in the seminary of the Beguine nuns, poor girls are gratuitously instructed. The university of Gerona, founded in the year 1521,

by Philip II., was abolished in 1715, by Philip V. At that time, the Jesuits had all public instruction in their hands, except two chairs of philosophy and theology. At the suppression of that order, the public instruction was concentrated in one college, where 900 students were taught the Latin grammar, rhetoric, philosophy, and theology. The library of the Jesuits was left. It is a very extensive and well-chosen one, and is open to the public. There are, besides, three other chairs, supported at the expense of the town.

At the commencement of the Peninsular war, Gerona was surrounded with old walls in good repair, and had, besides, four forts with redoubts upon the high ground above it; but its principal defence was the citadel of *Monjuiz*, a square fort, in length about 720 feet on each side, with four bastions, and four outworks, which commanded it from an eminence about sixty fathoms distant. The population of the city amounted at this period to between 13 and 14,000 souls. The history of the siege which it sustained from the French, equals in interest almost any event that occurred during the whole war; and though it does not strictly fall within the design of our work, the reader will readily pardon the length of the digression. We avail ourselves of Dr. Southey's narrative.

General Duhesme had laid siege to Gerona in July 1808, with an army of 11,000 men; but the place was seasonably relieved, and the enemy defeated by Caldagues. On the 6th of May, 1809, the French again appeared upon the heights of *Casa Roca* and *Castaroja*, and began to form lines around without opposition. A battery of eleven mortars was planted upon Casa Roca, from whence it commanded the city. Works were also erected against *Monjuiz*. The garrison,

consisting only of 3,400 men, were not numerous enough to impede these operations. No precautions, however, were wanting on their part, nor were any means of defence omitted. The citizens, like the crusaders of old, took the cross, and eight companies of 100 men each, were formed and organised. The women also, maids and matrons alike, enrolled themselves in an association, called the company of Santa Barbara, to perform whatever they were capable of, like their countrywomen at Saragossa. Their governor, Camp-marshal Don Mariano Alvarez, forbade all persons from speaking of capitulation or peace under pain of death. The garrison and people received this edict with acclamations of applause.

When the French had completed their lines, they sent a flag of truce, requiring Alvarez to spare himself and the city the dreadful consequences of a resistance. He admitted the officer to his presence, and bade him say to his general, that, for the future, no more flags of truce need be sent, as he was determined to have no other communication with him than at the cannon's mouth. This was on the 12th of June. On the night between the 13th and the 14th, about an hour after midnight, the bombardment began. The alarm was beat; the aged and children, roused from their sleep, repaired to the cellars and other places of security; and the female company of Santa Barbara hastened to their posts. A sally was made early on the 17th, against some works, supposed to be the base of a battery against the *Puerto de Francia*. They succeeded in their object; but the success was of little importance, and dearly purchased. Many brave men fell, and 110 were brought back wounded. The bombardment continued; and among the other buildings which it reduced to ashes, the military hospital was destroyed.

The hospitals of San Domingo and San Martin were also rendered uninhabitable. Thus, the labour and difficulty of providing for the sick and wounded increased with their numbers. About the end of the month, an epidemic affection of the bowels became very prevalent, and in July, a bilious fever, usually endemic in Gerona.

The main attacks of the enemy were directed against Monjuiz. Their tremendous artillery soon rendered the outworks untenable, though every foot of ground was defended with a heroism unexampled in modern times, except at Saragossa. At the beginning of July, three batteries played upon three sides of this little fortress. That planted against the north front, consisted of twenty four-and-twenty-pounders. While the French were battering it, that angle on which the flag was hoisted, fell into the ditch. Don Mariano Montorro descended for it in the midst of the fire, brought it up in safety, and replanted it on the wall. The fire of the garrison had ceased, for they perceived that the French were secured by their trenches. The enemy judging from this silence that the courage or ammunition of the besieged had failed, in the night between the 4th and 5th, assaulted the breach. It was for this that the garrison had reserved their fire, and they poured it so destructively, that the French retreated with great loss. For three days, they continued their fire upon the breach. Between two and three on the morning of the 8th, 6,000 men assaulted it; at the same time, the town was bombarded. The enemy advanced, filled the fosse, and proceeded to the breach. A mortar, which lay hidden among the ruins of the ravelin, and which discharged 500 musket-balls at every shot, was played off upon the enemy by Don Juan Candy. The havoc which it

made was tremendous. After thrice attempting in the course of the day to win the breach, the enemy retreated, leaving 1,600 of their number slain. The tower, however, of San Juan, which stood between the west curtain of the castle and the city, was blown up, the magazine, no one knew how, having taken fire. Those on the spot were buried in the ruins, twenty-three of whom were extricated alive amid the incessant fire which the enemy kept up upon the spot. The company of Santa Barbara distinguished themselves greatly that day: covered with dust and blood, under the burning heat of July, and through the incessant fire of the batteries and musketry, they carried water and wine to the soldiers, and bore back the wounded. The French from this time continued to batter the fortress on three sides, and stationed sharpshooters in the trenches on every side. So perilous now had the service become, that the sentinels were changed every half-hour. It became at length impossible to observe the operations of the enemy, so thick were their marksmen, and with so fatal precision did they take their aim. By the beginning of August, the besiegers had pushed their parallels to the edge of the fosse. The ravelin was the object at which they aimed. It was repeatedly attacked by night, but the assailants were always repulsed. It was now discovered that the enemy were mining. The French wished to destroy a breast-work which protected the gate of the castle, through which was the passage to the ravelin. The breast-work was blown up, leaving the gate exposed: a battery then kept playing upon it, which rendered the communication between the castle and the ravelin very difficult. A sally was made against this battery, and the guns were spiked. The French, however,

had artillery in abundance : other pieces were soon mounted, and the fire continued on the gate and ravelin. A covered way was also formed from their own parapet to the breach of the ravelin : by this, on the night between the 4th and 5th of August, they poured a sufficient body of troops through the breach, to overpower the forty men who were stationed there ; but the musketry from the castle forced them to abandon the place they had won. It remained, therefore deserted, like a place left for the dead, who covered it.

All the guns of Monjuiz had now been silenced, and the enemy were so near, that the Spaniards knocked them down with stones. The garrison had held out thirty-seven days since a practicable breach was made ; a week had elapsed since the ravelin was lost ; and the three sides of the castle were in ruins. There was but little water left, and that was nauseous and unwholesome. The number of soldiers was every day diminished by disease, as well by the chances of war. On the evening, therefore, of the 11th, the besieged withdrew from the ruins of Monjuiz into Gerona, every man taking with him two hand-grenades and as many cartridges as he could carry. Matches were left in the magazine, and the retreat was effected with the loss of but one man.

The French general, Verdier, assured his government, that the city could not now hold out longer than from eight to fifteen days. He little dreamed that his besieging army of 17,000 men, covered by another army of 18,000 under General St. Cyr, had yet a protracted resistance of five months to contend against. He planted a battery against the bulwark of San Pedro, and another on Monjuiz, commanding all the works in the plain, and the whole line of the city from

San Pedro to the tower of Gironella. Other batteries placed by San Daniel's Tower, commanded fort Calvary and one of its advanced posts. Meanwhile, 700 fresh troops were introduced into the place by Don Ramon Foxa and Don Jose Cantera. Alvarez now planted three cannon on the roof of the cathedral. A watch was kept upon the tower, to observe the movements of the enemy, and ring the alarm whenever an attack was about to be made. The sick were removed from the church, where they had been placed, to a safer quarter, by the company of Santa Barbara. At the end of August, breaches having been made, Alvarez declared in his general orders, that every foot of ground in the city should be defended. The contagion, however, increased, the magazines were exhausted, and famine began to be severely felt; yet, not a word of capitulation, not a thought of it was entertained. At this crisis, a convoy of 4,000 foot and 500 horse under General Garcia Conde, part of Blake's army, forced its way into Gerona, and 3,000 remained there. Conde, with the rest and the beasts of the convoy, accomplished his return as happily as his entrance. This seasonable supply, however, was small, only sufficient for fifteen days.

On the 18th of September, three great breaches having been made, which the French engineers declared to be all practicable, the French, in the evening, sent another flag of truce. Alvarez returned a verbal notice to the bearers of it to retire: they requested to be heard, but were ordered to withdraw from the walls on peril of their lives. They persisted in offering a letter, and then both the castle of the Constable and the tower of Geronilla fired. On the return of the officers, the enemies' batteries were again opened: all night, the firing was kept up, and the French troops

were collected on the heights of Campdura and Monjuiz for the assault. The next forenoon was employed in preparation. Between three and four o'clock, the watch on the cathedral apprised Alvarez, that troops were descending from Monjuiz to San Daniel ; and the like notice was received from the forts of the Constable and the Capuchins. A second report from the cathedral announced that the enemy was advancing from all parts to the breaches, many of them with sapping instruments. The *somaten*, or alarm-bell, was now rung from the cathedral, and the *generala* was beaten. Two thousand men came on straight from Monjuiz, an equal number from between that place and San Daniel, and as many from San Miguel ; at the same time, a movement of troops was observed in the woods of Palau. They advanced against the *Puerto de Francia*, and the forts *Calvary* and *Cabildo*. It was not without surprise that they found the Geronians prepared to receive them at all points. Nasch, the defender of Monjuiz, had his post at the *quartel de Alemanes*, where one of the principal breaches was made ; Colonel Marshall, an Englishman, was at the breach of Santa Lucia ; a company of crusaders, all clergy, were stationed at the breach of San Christoval ; the rest of the garrison, crusaders, and all the townsmen, manned the walls. The excellent company of Santa Barbara were distributed among the difficult posts, and all the other women were invited by proclamation to assist them in this important hour. At the *quartel de Alemanes*, the enemy mounted the breach, and succeeded in forcing their way into the first quadrangle of that great building. The French batteries continued to play upon the walls and the buildings adjoining the breach ; and a huge fragment fell upon those who were fore-

most in the assault, just as part of the Ultonia regiment were about to charge them : a few Spaniards were buried with them among the ruins. The Geronans then rushed on, drove back the enemy, and fought hand to hand with the assailants. Four times the assault was renewed in the course of two hours ; and at every point the enemy were withstood and beaten off. Alvarez was every where. He had prepared cressets to light up the walls and breaches in case of another attack after darkness closed ; but the foe withdrew long before night in the utmost disorder, leaving behind him 800 of his best men slain. Of the besieged, 44 fell, and 197 were wounded. Our brave countryman, Colonel Marshall, died of his wounds.

Ten days had now elapsed since the supplies were introduced, which were only sufficient for fifteen days' consumption ; and there remained neither wine nor bread. A scanty mess of pulse or corn, with a little oil or a morsel of bacon in its stead, was all that could be furnished ; and this not from the magazines, but was given by the inhabitants, who shared their stores with the soldiers, lamenting that they had nothing better to bestow. The summer fever became more prevalent, and relief was now eagerly looked for. Great attempts were meantime made by Blake to succour the place. On the 26th of September, a firing was heard towards Los Angelos, and a strong body of the garrison sallied out to assist the convoy, conducted by Don Luis Wimpfen, who had the command of the advancing army. When they reached the heights of San Pelayo before La Bisbal, O'Donnell was sent forward with 1,000 men, who, breaking through the enemy, set fire to one of their encampments, and made way for 160 laden beasts, which entered safely through the *Puerto del Areny*. This

small supply disappointed the hopes of the besieged. The scarcity of their provisions obliged them to diminish their numbers; and O'Donnel one night, after the moon was down, succeeded in cutting his way through five and twenty posts of the enemy, many of which he surprised and plundered, spreading alarm through the whole French lines.

Verdier was now superseded by Augereau, who took and burned the town of Hostalric, where magazines were collected for the relief of Gerona. All hope of further supply was now cut off from the besieged, who were carried off, chiefly by dysentery, from thirty-five to seventy a day. Augereau straitened the blockade, and drew his lines closer, to prevent escape or the possibility of introducing supplies into the city. He stretched cords with bells along all the interspaces, and kept watch-dogs at all the posts. The bombardment was continued, and always with greater violence during the night than the day. He found even means of sending letters into the city, relating his victory at Hostalric, describing the hopeless state of Blake's army, and threatening the most signal vengeance, if the besieged persisted in holding out. He offered to grant an armistice for a month, and suffer supplies to enter, provided Alvarez would capitulate at the end of that time, if the city were not relieved. But no selfish considerations could induce the Spaniards to listen to terms which would let loose so large a part of the besieging army as this armistice would have done for other operations.

Famine, however, did the enemy's work. The stores were all exhausted. The French endeavoured to tempt the garrison to desert, by holding out provisions to them. The out-sentinels frequently made a truce with each other, and laid down their arms, when the

French soldier would give his half-starved enemy a draught from his leathern bottle or brandy-flask ; and after talking together, they returned to their several posts. There was something in this consoling to humanity, when contrasted with the street-fighting scenes of Saragossa. The only disgraceful circumstance which occurred in all this siege on the part of the Spaniards, was the desertion of ten officers in a body, two of whom were men of noble birth. They had plotted to make the governor capitulate, and, finding their intentions frustrated, they went over to the enemy in open day. Towards the end of November, many of the inhabitants, being utterly hopeless of relief, ventured to pass the enemy's lines, several of whom succeeded in doing so. At this time, Samaniego, the first surgeon of the garrison, delivered in to Alvarez a report of the state of health, adding, as he gave it into the hands of that noble Spaniard, something implying the melancholy nature of its contents. " This paper, then," said Alvarez, " will inform posterity of our sufferings, should there be none left to recount them." He then bade Samaniego read it. It was a dreadful report. There did not remain a single house uninjured by the bombardment. The people slept in cellars, vaults, and holes amid the ruins ; and the wounded were often killed in the hospitals. The streets were broken up, so that the rains and the contents of the sewers stagnating there, occasioned pestilential vapours, rendered still more noxious by the dead bodies which lay rotting amid the ruins. The siege had now lasted seven months, and within the last three weeks, 500 of the garrison had died in the hospitals. A dysentery was raging and spreading ; the sick were lying upon the ground without beds, and almost without food ; and there

was scarcely fuel to dress the little wheat that remained and the few horses which were unslaughtered. The breaches, which had been assaulted ten weeks ago, were still open, and it was easier to defend than to repair them. A fourth had now been made, and the enemy, learning from the officers who had deserted, that the ammunition of the place was nearly expended, ventured upon bolder operations. They gained possession by night of the *Calle del Carmen*, commanding the bridge of San Francisco, the only means of communication between the old city and the post on the opposite side of the *Ter*, from whence also they could batter forts *Merced* and *San Francisco de Paula*. During another night, they got possession of fort Calvary, which they reduced to ruins, and of the redoubt *Cabildo*: the city redoubts fell next. The enemy were now close to the walls, and thus cut off the forts of the *Capuchins* and the *Constable*, the only two remaining outworks. The garrison of both amounted only to 160 men, with scarcely any powder, little water, and no food. These posts were of the last importance. It was resolved to make a sally for relieving them; and the garrison of the town gave up for this purpose their own miserable rations, contributing enough for the consumption of three days. The ration was at this time a handful of wheat a day, or sometimes the quarter of a small loaf instead, with five ounces of horse or mule's flesh every alternate day. The few men allotted for this service, or indeed who were equal to the task, sallied in broad day through the *Puerto del Socorro*, within pistol-shot of the redoubts which the enemy possessed. They were in three bodies, two of which hastened up the hill towards the two forts, while the third remained to protect them from being attacked in the rear from the

Calle del Carmen. The sally was so sudden, so utterly unlooked for by the besiegers, and so resolutely executed, that its purpose was accomplished, though with the loss of about forty men,—nearly a third of those employed in it. This was the last effort of the Geronians. The deaths increased in a dreadful and daily accelerating progression. The burial-grounds were without the walls; and hands could not be found to carry out the dead to the deposite-house, where 120 bodies were lying at once uncoffined, in sight of all who passed the walls. The besiegers were now erecting one battery more in the *Calle de la Pulla*, close upon one of the breaches, and commanding the whole space between forts Merced and San Francisco de Paula. Such was the state of things, when, on the 4th of December, Alvarez was seized with a nervous fever. On the 8th, it was so increased, that he became delirious; but a lucid interval occurred, in which he resigned the command. During the night a council was held, composed of the two juntas, military and civil, at which it was resolved to treat for a capitulation. The whole of the 10th was employed in adjusting the terms. The garrison were to march out with the honours of war, and to be sent prisoners to France, to be exchanged as soon as possible for an equal number of French prisoners, then detained in Majorca and other places. None were to be considered prisoners but those who were ranked as soldiers: the commissariat, intendants, and medical staff were thus left at freedom. The French were not to be quartered upon the inhabitants; the official papers were neither to be destroyed nor removed; no person was to be injured for the part he had taken during the siege; those who were not natives of Gerona, and the natives also who chose to depart, should be at liberty to leave the place, and to take

with them all their property, or dispose of it as they pleased.

While the capitulation was going on, many of the enemy's soldiers came to the walls, bringing provisions and wine to be drawn up by strings,—an honourable proof of the respect with which they regarded their brave opponents. During the night, the deserters who were in Gerona, with many soldiers and peasants, attempted to escape. Some succeeded, others were killed or taken in the attempt, and not a few dropped with weakness on the way. To those who remained, the very silence of the night, it is said, was a thing so unusual, that it became a cause of agitation. At day-break, it was found that the soldiers had broken the greatest part of their arms, and thrown the fragments into the streets or the river. When the garrison was drawn up in sight of the French, their shrunken limbs, hollow eyes, and pale and meagre countenances sufficiently manifested by what they had been subdued. The French observed, not without admiration, that, of the artillery of the city, as well as of Monjuiz, most of the guns had been fired so often, that they were rendered useless. Brass itself had given way, says Samaniego, before the constancy of the Geronans.*

There are two roads from Gerona to Barcelona. The post-road, which is inland, is the worst, but the shortest, a distance of sixteen Spanish leagues. The inns on this road are very bad, and frequented only by muleteers. The only place on this road which deserves notice is Hostalrich, where there is a modern fortress that commands the outlet of a desert country. Mr. Swinburne, who took this road, says, that great

* Edinb. An. Reg. 1809, chap. 32.

part of it lies through the most savage wilds in nature. "Nothing but mountains upon mountains, covered with pines." A rambling, sandy river fills up the hollows, winding through all the hanging woods and narrow dells. There is a pass called *El Purgatorio*, so narrow as scarcely to admit a carriage between the rocks; and the road generally, he says, is as bad as any of the cross roads that were in Sussex. The prospects, however, on either hand, he says, are for the most part delightful. Gothic steeples are seen towering above the dark pine groves; and he mentions especially, the bold ruins of La Rocca, and the rich fields on the banks of the Besos.

The other road is by the sea-side; the distance seventeen leagues and a quarter. It is at first very broad, but, passing over a light soil without substance, is very muddy in winter, and dusty in summer; besides being cut at all times into deep ruts. As it approaches the river La Tordera, it becomes still worse, and sometimes dangerous. The soil is then softer; the road grows narrower, and is frequently covered with pools of water. Almost the whole country is uncultivated; but the mountains are clothed with perpetual verdure, abounding with the elegant arbutus, and a rich variety of flowering shrubs and aromatic herbs. The Tordera is crossed by a bad wooden bridge. It may often be forded without difficulty; but after rain it becomes an impetuous torrent, inundating the neighbouring country, and cannot be crossed even in boats till the swell begins to subside. From the impatience of passengers to proceed, it has sometimes happened, that, in the mid-current, the boat has been carried away and upset by the rapidity of the stream. Soon after crossing the Tordera, the road ascends a hill, which commands a view of the sea,

and numerous villages appear as far as the eye can reach. The little town of *Calella* stands in a charming situation, and is well built. It contains a parish-church, a monastery, a tolerable inn, a hospital, and several forges and distilleries, with about 2,400 inhabitants. Here the traveller comes close upon the sea, and does not again lose sight of it all the rest of the way to Barcelona. There is a constant succession of villages and houses all along the way. At *Arenex del Mar*, or *Santa Maria de Arenex*, a village containing 3,500 inhabitants, there is a beautiful church; also, a convent of Capuchins, manufactories of cotton, silk-stockings, and calico, a school for navigation, a forge for anchors, and a dock for building small vessels.

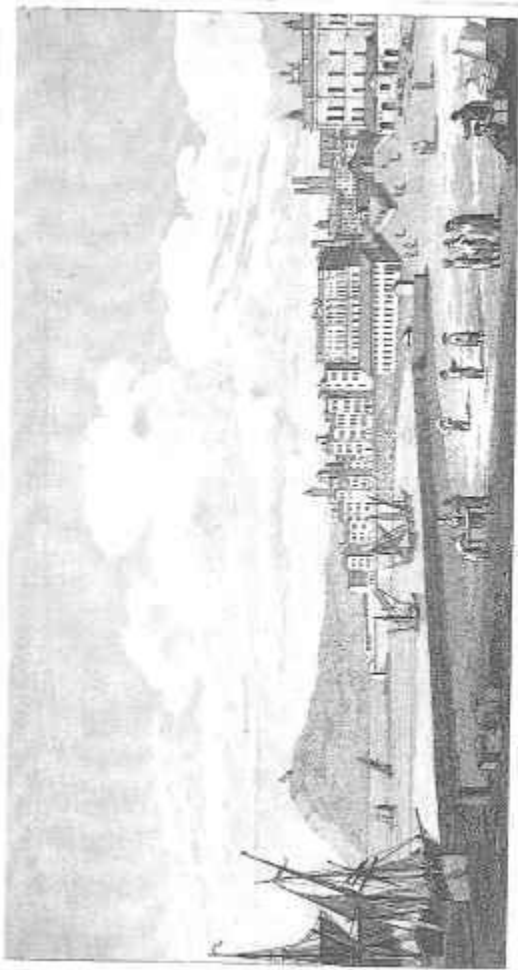
All these villages on the sea-coast have an air of neatness and comfort, and the activity of the inhabitants is every where apparent. The women and children are occupied in making lace and blond; the men are employed in fishing, navigation, and commerce. The coast is covered with small vessels and barks, which carry on a coasting trade with Roussillon, Spain, and Italy, and sometimes even venture across the Atlantic.

It is a distance of between four and five leagues from Calella to the sea-port of Mataro, the representative of a town which existed under the Romans, further inland, where many vestiges of its ancient buildings are still visible. The Moors rebuilt it on a smaller scale, on the spot which it now occupies, and enclosed it with walls, giving it the name which it now bears. It is conjectured to be the *Illuro* of Ptolemy and Pomponius Mela. The approach from Gerona is beautiful. The city (for it ranks as such) is pleasantly situated on the coast, at the extremity of a small, fertile plain, which terminates at

the foot of a chain of wooded mountains. The old town is built on an eminence, and is walled: the streets are narrow, though less crooked than those of the more ancient Spanish towns, except the principal one, which is broad, straight, and tolerably well built, and has a small stream running down it, bordered with trees. The new town, originally a suburb, is much larger, more open, and better constructed. The population, which, in 1770, was between 4 and 5,000, and is stated by Mr. Townsend, in 1786, at 9,679, had risen, in 1808, to upwards of 25,000. The town contained several churches, three convents of monks, two of nuns, and a hospital; also, numerous manufactories of silks, calicoes, lace, &c., and several distilleries and tan-yards. The place is also distinguished, Mr. Townsend says, by the excellence of its red wine. Scarcely an idle person is to be seen. All through Catalonia, indeed, you admire at every step the industry of the inhabitants, who, working early and late, give fertility to a soil which naturally, except for vines, is most unproductive; but when you come to Mataro, you are perfectly enchanted. The farms are so many gardens, divided into beds of about four feet wide, with a channel for the passage of the water to each bed, and every farm has its *noria*, a species of chain-pump of extreme simplicity. The light soil, thus rendered fertile, produces on the same spot, corn, wine, oranges, and olives. The American aloe is planted as a fence.

The road from Mataro, along the coast, is excellent. On the right is seen a chain of hills, covered with evergreens, and studded with villages. A thick wood of poplars clothes the banks of the *Bezós*, which is usually crossed by a ford, but is frequently rendered impassable by the rains. It then suddenly swells and





overflows; and what renders its passage still more dangerous, is, that it is apt to form quicksands.* After passing the small forest of poplars on the opposite bank, the road leads over a long, fertile plain, covered with trees of all kinds, and watered by numerous streams. A beautiful avenue of nut-trees commences about a league from *Barcelona*; and on the right, numerous country-houses are seen, extending to the villages of *Sarria*, *Horta*, and *Gracia*, all three delightfully situated. The city now presents itself with a majestic appearance, its whole extent being seen; and, on the opposite side, rises the mountain of Monjuich, by which it is commanded.

BARCELONA,

WITH its fort Monjuich (or Monjuiz), is one of the strongest places in Europe; and Mr. Townsend speaks of it as "one of the most delightful cities in the world." The situation is beautiful; the air, Mr. Swinburne says, "equals in purity, and much excels in mildness, the boasted climate of Montpellier." It stands in a plain, bounded on the N.E. by an amphitheatre of hills, while, on the S.W., the mountain of Monjuich defends it from the unwholesome winds which blow over the marshes at the mouth of the Llobregat.† To the north, the coast projecting into the sea forms a noble bay, and the Mediterranean

* Mr. Townsend noticed, as he crossed this river, fifty felons, clothed in green, employed in clearing the channel. "It is curious," he remarks, "to observe this mark of contempt for the Moors, in clothing their vilest criminals, and even their hangman, in green, the sacred colour of Mohammedans."

† This river is the largest between the Ter, which runs by Gerona, and the Segre, which, rising in the Pyrenees, falls into the Ebro.

closes the prospect on the east. The form of the city is almost circular, being built round the old Roman town, which occupied a small eminence in the centre, where traces of the ancient walls and other remains are still visible. The sea has retired many hundred yards from the port-gates, and a whole quarter of the city, with its Gothic church, stands upon the sands that were once the bottom of the harbour. The immense quantities of sand brought down from the granite mountains by the rivers, and carried into the sea, are thrown back into the harbour by the current and southerly winds, and have formed a dangerous bar. Swinburne mentions, that a company of Dutch and English adventurers had offered to bring the river into the port by means of a canal, on condition of being allowed a free importation for ten years; but the proposal was rejected. "The port is handsome; the mole, which is all of hewn stone, is a master-piece of solidity and convenience. Above is a platform for carriages; below, vast magazines, with a broad quay reaching from the city-gates to the lighthouse." For this, as well as for various other important benefits, Barcelona is indebted to the patriotic Marques de la Mina, Captain-general of Catalonia, who died in 1768. Besides cleansing and beautifying the city, he laid the foundations of the town of Barcelonetta on the neck of land which runs out into the sea, to the S.E. of the city, where formerly there stood only a few fishermen's huts. "As the land was given *gratis*, the houses were soon run up on a regular plan; a ground-floor and one story above, with three windows in front, and a pediment over them; the whole consisting of four and twenty regular streets, twenty-five feet in breadth, intersecting each other at right angles, and forming a perfect square." In its parochial church,

dedicated to San Miguel, the ashes of its founder are deposited under "a tasteless monument." Another of La Mina's improvements is, the rampart or great walk upon the walls, extending the whole length of the harbour. It is built upon arches, with magazines below, and a broad coach-road and foot-path above. The citadel, built by Philip V. after he had reduced the Catalonians, occupies a large extent of ground, where formerly stood 600 houses, a church, and three convents. It has six strong bastions, but is calculated, as Swinburne remarks, "to overawe the inhabitants, at least as much as to defend them from a foreign enemy." For this purpose, indeed, it was built, and it is completely commanded by Monjuich. The lowness of its situation renders it, moreover, damp, unwholesome, and swarming with mosquitoes. Indeed, the atmosphere at Barcelona is always moist, but especially in winter and spring, and during the prevalence of easterly winds; owing to which circumstance, as Laborde supposes, the inhabitants are liable to scorbutic and catarrhal complaints. Bilious fevers also, he tells us, prevail in summer; and yet he adds, "the inhabitants are generally healthy enough."

Barcelona is said to have been founded by the Carthaginians about 230 years B.C., and 300 years subsequently to the first establishment of the Carthaginians in Spain. It received its name, *Barcino*, in honour of their general, Hamilcar Barcas. They did not long retain possession of it, as we find the Ebro fixed as their boundary so early as the end of the first Punic war. After the fall of the Carthaginian commonwealth, the Romans made Tarraco their chief city in this part, and neglected Barcino, though they made it a colony by the name of Faventia. In the year 414, it fell, with the rest of Catalonia, to the lot

of the Gothic chief, Ataulph, and remained under the dominion of the Goths till A.D. 714, when it was forced to submit to a Saracen conqueror. Tarragona being now no better than a heap of ruins, Barcelona became imperceptibly the capital. Lewis the Debonair, son of Charlemagne, recovered it from the Moors, A.D. 805,* and it was governed by viceroys appointed by the French till A.D. 874, when, during the reign of Charles the Bald, it became, either by royal grant or by force of arms, an independent earldom. For more than a century, the Barcelonans were engaged in incessant struggles with the Moors,† but ultimately maintained their independence till the annexation of the principality of Catalonia to the crown of Aragon in the twelfth century. The inhabitants of Marseilles appear to have carried on a considerable trade with these provinces at a very early period; but Barcelona is said to have derived the commercial spirit which it has always retained, from the Jews. Here it was that Ferdinand and Isabella received Columbus on his first return from the New World; and from this port, that illustrious and ill-requited navigator sailed on his second expedition in the year 1493.

In no city of Spain has the heroic and invincible spirit displayed by the Spaniards in the defence of their towns, been more frequently put to the test, than

* Under the Moors, Barcelona held out against the besieging army of Louis, King of Aquitaine, for seventeen months, and was not taken till its walls and most of its buildings were destroyed, and one-half of its inhabitants had perished in the conflict or with famine.

† In 985, the city was taken by Almanzor, King of Cordova, six days after a victory over the Catalonian army, and was set on fire, almost all the inhabitants being led away captive. It was soon after retaken by Count Borel.

in the Catalonian capital. Alike under the Moors and against them, its citizens have been distinguished by this spirit. In 1462, it sustained a siege from John II., King of Aragon, whose sovereignty it refused to acknowledge. In 1472, that monarch again laid siege to it with a superior force, but did not take it till after a siege of six months. In 1640, it again raised the standard of revolt against Philip IV.; but, having held out against all his efforts to reduce it for twelve years, was at last taken in 1652, after a blockade and siege of ten months. It again resisted Charles II. in 1689, but was subdued by force of arms. In the Succession war, it became again the scene of repeated conflicts. In 1697, it was besieged by the French under the Duke de Vendome, and, though defended by a garrison of 12,000 men under the Prince of Darmstadt, capitulated fifty days after the trenches were opened, the army which attempted to relieve the place, having been defeated. In this instance, however, it is observable, that a Spaniard was not the commander. The French were masters of the city, when, in 1706, the Earl of Peterborough arrived upon the coast with comparatively a handful of troops. After remaining for some time before the city, he re-embarked his little army, to the great joy of the besieged, as if preparing to sail; but in the night, he again landed, and before morning got possession of Monjuich. In a few days more, he was master of the city. "Gerona, Tarragona, Tortosa, and Lerida followed the example of the capital, and declared for Charles. Wherever the Earl of Peterborough turned his arms, victory declared for him. It was sufficient for him to shew himself, and every city offered him its keys. While he was in Valencia, the enemy (Philip V. in person) laid siege to Barce-

lona; but he hastened to its relief, and compelled them to retire not only from before the city, but out of the province, although he had only a few troops, and they had 30,000 men. When he was superseded, a series of misfortunes too well known, hastened the fall of the archduke's dominions; and the citizens of Barcelona, after an obstinate resistance, opening their gates to Philip, submitted, though reluctantly, to bear the yoke."*

The particulars of this last siege, which they sustained, in 1713 and 1714, against the united forces of France and Spain, after they had been deserted alike by the Archduke Charles, and by the English at the inglorious peace of Utrecht, deserve to be recorded. All the other towns of Catalonia had submitted to Philip; yet, Barcelona persisted in its resistance. "Efforts of courage," says Laborde, "feats of heroism worthy of the finest ages of Rome, were here displayed. The inhabitants, left to themselves, without troops, without a garrison, dared to brave large and warlike armies, commanded by celebrated generals. Exploits of the most heroic nature were performed by common tradesmen. The students of the university formed themselves into battalions, which were long invincible. Priests and monks were seen, with a sword in one hand and a crucifix in the other, running from rank to rank, animating the soldiers, and confirming their courage; and capuchins, with their habit tucked up, and their beards tied with ribbons, were observed alternately blessing, loading, and firing the cannon. Women running on the breach, mixed with the combatants, striking as good blows as the soldiers amid whom they fought. The Duke of

* Townsend, vol. i. p. 160.

Berwick redoubling his efforts, carried the bastion of S. Clara, in the plain now occupied by the citadel. It was bathed with the blood of the French nobility. The besieged returning to the charge, again made themselves masters of it. Again repulsed, they beheld their ramparts demolished by cannon-balls; and yielding at length to numbers, they retreated in good order into the town, where they found a new theatre for their courage. The streets became the field of battle, where contest after contest took place. When beaten, they fell back only to renew the charge. Berwick offered them their lives, but still they would not surrender. Midnight did not put a stop to the conflict, and when daylight appeared, it revealed the horrors which the night had enveloped in darkness. Blood every where ran in streams; the streets were heaped with dead; and yet, the Barcelonans continued to fight, and the women, from the tops of the houses, threw down upon the assailants showers of stones, beams, and burning brands. Berwick then ordered the houses to be set on fire; and not till they saw the flames ascending, the citizens surrendered to the conqueror on the 13th of September, 1714, still retaining their hatred and their pride."

Thus fell this proud city, which had so often raised its head against powerful princes. The citizens saw their standards burnt by the executioner, and their privileges abolished as a punishment for what was termed their rebellion.

The different limits of Barcelona at the various periods of its history, are still perceptible. The town formerly extended only to *La Rambla*; but it covered the area now occupied by the citadel. The streets, at least those within the old limits, are for the most part narrow and crooked; but in the new town, beyond

La Rambla, there are some which are broad and handsome. All the streets are paved with square, flat stones, which, however, are often suffered to sink and form inequalities where carriages pass. A common sewer runs under most of the streets in the old limits, which is covered in with long, narrow stones, so badly put together, as to admit of an unwholesome exhalation from this sink in summer. The streets are tolerably well lighted at night ; but long before day-break every lamp is out. The houses are plain, but lofty : they run from four to five stories high, having large windows, ornamented with balconies. Two-thirds of the town have been built within the last thirty years. On the fronts of most of the houses, there are paintings in fresco. Every trade has its particular district. The public buildings consist of the cathedral, 82 churches, 26 monasteries, 18 nunneries, 6 hospitals, the governor's palace, the hotel of the deputies, the custom-house, and the exchange ; and there are several good inns.

The civil wars of the sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth centuries, the five sieges which Barcelona sustained in the space of sixty-two years, together with the consequent decline of its manufactures, and the stagnation of its immense commerce, had so much diminished its population, that in 1715, after the siege of the preceding year, the number of its inhabitants was reduced to 37,000.* In 1759, it contained, in nearly 14,000 families, 69,585 individuals. In 1778, in 16,608 families, 84,870 persons. In 1786, in 20,128 families, 94,880 persons ; exclusive of 5,628 troops, who formed the garrison, 1,212 monks, 654

* In A.D. 1464, the population is stated to have been 40,000 ; in 1657, 64,000. During the political convulsions, the emigration was great, and the assassinations, it is said, innumerable.

nuns, 1,216 secular priests and official persons, 4,380 in the hospitals, prisons, and asylums, and 3,440 foreigners; total 111,410.* In 1798, the city contained 130,000 inhabitants, not reckoning the population beyond the ramparts, which is considerable. According to Laborde, in 1808, Barcelona contained 20,508 families in 10,767 houses: the number of inhabitants, therefore, reckoning 10,000 for Barcelonetta, and 10,000 for the garrison and foreigners, could not be under 130,000. These calculations are but approximations to a correct estimate. The present population is probably not under 150,000.

Some of the public buildings are not undeserving of the attention of the lovers of the arts, either for their exterior beauty or for their internal decorations. The architecture of the cathedral is "a light Gothic." It was built in the thirteenth century, but has never been finished: the portal yet remains to be erected, and there is a good reason why it should not be begun. "For upwards of three hundred years, a duty has been imposed on marriage-licenses granted by the ecclesiastical court, the produce of which is professedly assigned to the building of this portal." The whole appearance of this church is majestic. Its length is 160 feet, its breadth 62. The nave and aisles are separated by twelve large clusters of columns of various sizes. The aisles turn and meet behind the sanctuary. In the middle of the space between the great door and the choir, there is a large octagon dome, of Gothic architecture. In the sanctuary are two sepulchral urns, of wood, containing the ashes of Raymond Berenger, Count of Barcelona, and of his countess, the founders of this church; and under the sanctuary

* Townsend, vol. i. p. 137.

is a subterraneous chapel, where the relics of Sta. Eulalia, patroness of the town, are preserved in a superb shrine. The stalls of the choir are neatly carved and hung with escutcheons of princes and noblemen, among which Mr. Swinburne noticed the arms of our Henry VIII. They are the armorials of the knights who composed the order of the Golden Fleece, when Charles I. held a chapter here of that order, in the year 1509. This last-mentioned Traveller speaks of the architectural ornaments of the cloisters as "inimitably airy;" and of the double arches under the belfry as "deservedly admired, on account of their bearing on their centres the whole weight of two enormous towers." The subterranean chapel is very handsome. The other chapels are remarkable only for some paintings by Emanuel Tramullas and Antonio Viladomat, a native of Barcelona. The treasury is fine, but not equal in magnificence to those of many other churches in Spain. In the cloisters are kept, Mr. Swinburne says, various kinds of foreign birds, (Laborde says, geese only,) upon funds bequeathed for that purpose by a wealthy canon. This singular endowment is said to be of considerable antiquity.

The church of the convent of *La Merced* has a façade of two stories, composed of two orders of architecture, the Corinthian and the Ionic, while its portal is of the Doric order. The cloister is superbly executed: it is sixty feet square, and has a piazza running round it, supported by Doric columns of dark grey marble; over this piazza is a gallery, ornamented with double Ionic columns, of white grey marble. In the centre of the area is an octagon fountain of white marble. Altogether, the appearance of this cloister is very striking.

The church of the convent of San Francisco, be-

longing to the Cordeliers, is large and handsome. Several princes and princesses of the house of Aragon are buried there. The cloister is ornamented with twenty-five paintings, representing the particulars of the life of St. Francis, all painted by Viladomat.

The convent of the Dominicans, dedicated to Sta. Catalina, has a large church, consisting of a nave without aisles, built of freestone. The chapel of San Raymundo has a dome ornamented with fresco paintings. That of Our Lady of the Rosary is remarkable for a profusion of sculpture, ornaments, and gilding. Among the decorations is a good picture of the descent of the Holy Ghost by Viladomat; and the altar is adorned by a fine statue of the Virgin in white marble, executed at Rome. In this convent there is a Gothic cloister, planted in the middle with orange-trees; two of its sides are ornamented with sepulchral urns, tombs, and marble statues; and on the walls are upwards of 500 records of sentences passed on heretics, specifying their age, occupation, place of abode, time of condemnation, and whether burned in person or in effigy. Most of them were women. Under each inscription is a portrait of the heretic, some half, others three-parts devoured by the devils, their bodies being seen in the midst of the flames. The first inscription is dated in the year 1488; the last in 1728. A long inscription placed over one of the doors of the cloister, states, that the monuments of the punishment of the condemned were formerly deposited in this place, but, that these having been almost destroyed by the injuries of time and the ravages of war, especially during the siege of Barcelona in 1713, the holy office had supplied their place by this representation, which was put up in 1745. This inscription moreover states, that 365 bombs had fallen into this convent.

The parish-church of St. Mary of the Sea, built in the middle of the fifteenth century, is the handsomest and most regular in Barcelona. It has a nave and two aisles, separated by lofty arcades delicately formed. The high altar is a prodigious assemblage of white, black, and mixed marbles; but this richness is injured by carvings on wood in bad taste. This church contains five pictures of the Passion by Viladomat.*

The Hotel of the Deputies, where the states of Catalonia formerly met, and which is still used for the sittings of the royal audience, is accounted one of the finest buildings in Barcelona. Here are deposited the valuable charters and archives of the crown of Aragon; as also the treaties of peace, and the concessions granted to the various towns, corporations, and communities. The archives are kept in excellent order. In the interior of the *Hotel de Ville*, there are some Gothic columns and a variety of sculptures. The palace of the Counts of Barcelona and Kings of Aragon, is an antique edifice, near the cathedral. Its principal front looks on a square still called *Plaza del Rey*. One part of it is now occupied by the nuns of Santa Clara; another by the academy of medicine; and a third served for the Inquisition and its prisons. The

* "In visiting the churches of Barcelona," says Mr. Townsend, "an observation is confirmed, which had occurred even in the most contemptible of the villages south of the Pyrenees. It is evident, that all their decorations were invented about the beginning of the sixteenth century, after the gold and silver of America had been brought to Spain; and every altar-piece, with every column, shews that their improvement in taste did not keep pace with the increase of wealth. Hence, even the Composite and Corinthian pillars are loaded with new ornaments; and whether fluted or con-torted, they are entwined with ivy or with vines, and are almost hidden by the multitude of angels fluttering round them, or by cherubs climbing up the branches; and the whole of this preposterous assemblage is covered with one glare of gold."

governor's palace, in the square of the same name, was built in 1444, at the expense of the town, as a market for cloths. The municipality turned it into an arsenal in 1514. Philip IV., in 1652, when he had reduced the Catalans, who had held out against him for twelve years, made it the residence of the viceroys of Catalonia. It is a large, regular, square building, with battlements at the top, and covered on the outside with bad paintings in fresco.

The Custom-house, which stands close to the sea-gate, is a modern building, finished in 1792. The front has two tiers of pilasters and columns; the lower of the Tuscan, the upper of the Doric order. It has three porticoes, faced with double columns of the Tuscan order; and a terrace runs round its four fronts. The pilasters, columns, and ornaments are only in stucco, to which the colours of different marbles are given. The windows have iron balconies, painted red. The whole betrays the extreme of bad taste. The Exchange (*Lonja*) is deemed the finest building in the town. The taste of its decorations corresponds to the nobleness and beauty of the structure; and the whole effect is majestic. It is 230 feet in length, by 77. The principal front, towards the square, has three entrances by large porticoes, ornamented with Doric columns, over which is a terrace with balustrades; beneath these is a handsome vaulted vestibule. The upper story rises from the terrace, and is adorned with four Ionic pilasters on the sides, and in the middle with six columns; between which there are three large windows. An attic, decorated with sculpture, completes the front, which is all of freestone. The inside is distributed into seven spacious halls, one of which is fitted up as a free nautical school, and

the others as an academy for the fine arts, free to all. *

The theatre is on the *Rambla*. The *façade* is small, crowded, and poor; but the interior is handsome, spacious, well laid out, and adorned with three rows of boxes of an elegant simplicity. Inside, it is the handsomest theatre in Spain.

In the school for surgery there is an amphitheatre for anatomy, large and tolerably well planned, but not lofty enough, and with too much bronze and gilding; a gallery runs round it. It contains a marble bust of Pedro Virgil, a Catalonian surgeon of the eighteenth century, who is regarded as the restorer of surgery in Spain, and was the principal promoter of its medical schools. This bust was put up in 1778, by the professors, as a testimony of gratitude.

The general hospital receives the sick of both sexes and foundlings.† The house for the convalescents is large, well distributed, and well aired. Indeed, the Spaniards excel, according to Laborde, in the arrangement, cleanliness, and management of their hospitals. The asylum is for all sorts of poor. The women there are employed in spinning, knitting, and making lace; the men, in carding hemp, wool, and cotton. The

* In this noble institution, Mr. Townsend counted, one night, upwards of 500 pupils.

† Mr. Townsend states the numbers received into this hospital in the year 1785, at 9,299; in 1786, 6,488. Of these, they buried nearly a ninth; but, "it must be considered," he adds, "that many are put into public hospitals, merely to save the expense of funerals." The foundlings amounted, on the average of the two years, to 528; of whom two-thirds died. "The boys on this foundation are bound apprentice when of a proper age. The girls, when marriageable, are conducted in procession through the streets, and any young man who sees one whom he would choose for a wife, is at liberty to mark her, which he does by throwing his handkerchief."

average number of paupers in the years 1784-5, was 1,400, of whom a thousand were able to work; the rest were children, or invalids, among whom, Mr. Townsend says, 300 were idiots: maniacs are perhaps intended.*

Barcelona had formerly a university, but it was suppressed at the beginning of the eighteenth century by Philip V., and the building, which is still called *Los Estudios*, is now converted into barracks. Since that period, there have been only private schools for

* Mr. Townsend mentions one institution at Barcelona of so singular a character, that we should hesitate to insert an account of it on authority less respectable. Attached to the Bridewell, or *real casa de galera*, but divided from it, is a royal house of correction (*real casa de correccion*), designed as a reformatory for "women who fail in their obligation to their husbands, and for those who either neglect or disgrace their families. The relation at whose suit they are taken into custody, pays three *suelos* ($\frac{1}{2}$ d.) per day for their maintenance; and with this scanty provision they must be contented. Here they are compelled to work; and the produce of their labour is deposited for them till the time of their confinement (fixed by the magistrates) is expired. The whole building will contain 500 women; but at present (1786), there are *only* 113. Among these are some *ladies of condition*, who are supposed to be visiting some distant friends. Here they receive bodily correction, when it is judged necessary for their reformation. This establishment is under the direction and government of the *regente de la audiencia*, assisted by the two senior criminal judges, with the *alcayde* and his attendants. One of these judges conducted me through the several apartments, and from him I received my information. Among other particulars, he told me, that they had then under discipline, a *lady of fashion*, accused of drunkenness and of being imprudent in her conduct. As she was a widow, the party accusing was her brother-in-law, the Marquis of —."—(TOWNSEND, vol. i. p. 128.) One is tempted at first to smile at the admirable idea of a penitentiary for ladies of fashion chargeable with indiscretion; but, in point of fact, the arbitrary and secret nature of this correctionary tribunal, which rests every thing on the character of the judges, and opens the door to such dreadful abuses, ranks it with the Star-chamber and the Inquisition. As Laborde does not mention it, it has probably ceased to exist.

theology and philosophy, kept by ecclesiastics, under the inspection of the bishop. Some private schools are also kept by the religious orders ; and there is one in which mathematics, engineering, and fortification are taught.

There is an indifferent cabinet of natural history, and a museum, formed at the beginning of the last century, by a public-spirited apothecary of Barcelona, Don Jayme Salvador. It contains some Roman antiquities, sepulchral urns, vases, medallions, &c. ; also, a good collection of Spanish marbles and minerals, a valuable collection of shells, and a fine herbal presented to Salvador by Tournefort, the famous botanist. There are two public libraries in the city, one belonging to the school for surgery, and the other to the Dominicans of Santa Catalina. The former consists wholly of works on surgery and medicine ; the latter comprises scholastic and ascetic theology, jurisprudence (chiefly works on the canon law), the peripatetic philosophy, and history ; there are few modern foreign books.* There are also four academies, maintained without either patronage or revenue, by the public spirit of the citizens ; viz. one of jurisprudence, formed by the lawyers of Barcelona ; one of practical medicine, which corresponds with the Royal Society of Medicine at Paris ; one of natural philosophy, which possesses an apparatus and library presented to it by the Marquis of Llupia ; and a fourth of history.

The Roman antiquities now remaining are few and

* Mr. Townsend mentions two other public libraries, those of the bishop's college and of the Carmelites ; but they contained little worthy of notice. That of the Dominicans, he says, is not contemptible. One apartment is filled with books prohibited by the Inquisition ; which, besides being under lock and key, are interspersed with representations of devils cracking the bones of the heretical authors.

inconsiderable. An amphitheatre occupied the space now covered with houses, between the street *Boquera* and the square of *La Trinidad*, which long retained the name of *Arenaria*; but no traces of it are now discernible. In the parish church of *San Miguel* are some remains of a mosaic pavement, composed of white and blue stones, representing two large figures of Tritons, with a sea-horse between them, and a serpent and dolphin on the sides. The church is supposed to have been originally a Roman temple, dedicated, according to the vulgar opinion, to Esculapius, —more probably to Neptune.

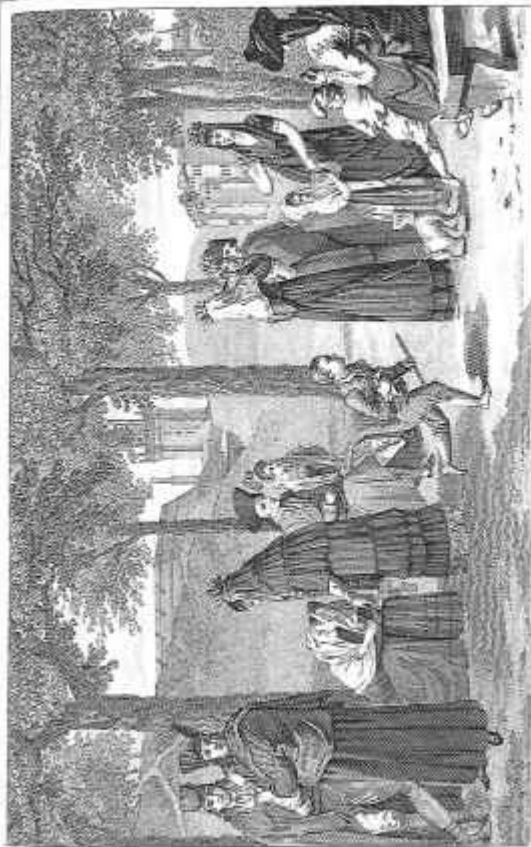
At the entrance of the street of the *Capellans*, there is a very lofty and massy arch, part of an aqueduct which seems to have run towards the cathedral. There is reason to believe that it brought the water from the mountain of *Colserola*, in the neighbourhood of Barcelona, where there are vestiges of an aqueduct.

The archdeaconry is supposed to have been the palace of the Roman prætor. "From the solidity of the walls, and the regularity of the work, I am inclined," says Swinburne, "to believe the tradition; but there is neither grandeur nor elegance to recommend it to notice; and some medallions and inscriptions fixed in the walls, apparently at the time of its erection, rather invalidate the idea of such remote antiquity." In the court-yard is a beautiful sarcophagus of white marble, which now serves as a cistern to a fountain. They call it, Swinburne says, "the coffin of Pompey's father." It is a parallelogram, rounded at the four corners; a large bas-relief runs round it, representing hunters, dogs, and wild beasts. The chief person is on horseback, bare-headed, and in a military dress. The figures and animals are in a masterly style. Some interesting remains of a superb

monument are found on an elevated spot behind the cathedral, which formed the centre of the ancient city. Six large fluted columns are still to be seen, with capitals of the Corinthian order, of white marble; twenty-nine feet ten inches high, including the bases and capitals, supported by pedestals from seven to eight inches. The plinths of the pedestals are of the greatest simplicity. The capitals have been injured; but the remains shew that they were wrought with taste and delicacy.

That there were baths in the ancient city, is indicated by the name still borne by the street, *Carrer del Bans* (Bath-street, in the Catalanian dialect; *Calle de los Banos*, in Spanish). A remarkable Moorish monument exists in this street, at the corner of the Boquera, consisting of several columns, rather misshapen, which support vaults in the shape of a horse-shoe. The court-walls of a house in the square of the *Cucurulla*, which are falling into ruins, are ornamented with many antique sculptures; such as medallions, some heads of emperors, and an unknown one with the inscription AUGUSTUS PATER, a little statue of Bacchus, without the head, but of exquisite workmanship, and a figure in bas-relief in a gallery over the court. This house, having been almost levelled to the ground by bombs during the siege, was deserted, and intruders broke in and carried off several of these antiques. It has recently been rebuilt.

The beauty of Barcelona is not a little increased by the spacious and airy promenade which runs round the city. The *Rambla* (or Gulley), a long, irregular street, forming a communication between the sea and land walls, was formerly the grand promenade; but the trees planted here about fifty years ago, did not thrive, and a new *alameda*, or esplanade, has been



THE NEW MALL AT BARNCLIFFE.

W. & A. CO. LONDON. PRINTED BY W. & A. CO. LONDON.



formed, 444 yards in length, which is laid out in walks, with marble alcoves and fountains. The sea wall, which extends in a straight line from the sea-gate to the foot of Monjuich, communicating with the esplanade by a short street, forms also a superb terrace, about 380 fathoms in length, and 46 feet in breadth, and commanding a fine sea view. The port, which is merely a basin formed by piers,* is tolerably secure and well sheltered. Large ships, however, cannot pass the bar, on which there is only twelve feet water; and frigates cannot approach within half a league. A thousand ships of all rates and flags are computed, on the average, to enter the harbour annually;† and about the same number of Spanish vessels have been ascertained to clear for foreign ports. The exports consist of the precious metals, silks, woollens, flowered cottons and calicoes,‡ lace, shoes,|| firearms, cork, fruit, wines, and brandies.§ The imports are silks from Lyons and Nismes, jewellery from Paris, millinery from other parts of France, cotton goods and stock-fish from England, wax from Africa; also, hardware, woollen goods, corn, and oil of vitriol. The whole

* The original port was to the south of Monjuich, but was choked up, and its mole destroyed by storms in the sixteenth century.

† In one year, the number was, 500 Spanish, 200 French, 150 English, 60 Danes, 45 Dutch, and upwards of 300 of other nations.

‡ Laborde states the value of the cotton goods and woollens manufactured at Barcelona at upwards of 440,000*l.*, of which two-thirds were sent to the Spanish colonies.

|| The number of shoes exported from Barcelona annually, is stated at 700,000 pair, at 2*s.* 1*d.* each, amounting to 70,290*l.*

§ Catalonia, in 1785, furnished 35,000 pipes of brandy, 2,000 of wine, and 30,600 bags of nuts; of which, about 4,000 pipes of brandy, together with some silk, went to Guernsey and Alderney, "and the rest to France, all to be smuggled into England." Specie is contraband.

amount of exports and imports is stated by Laborde at upwards of 1,750,000*l.* sterling; but in this, the smuggling trade is probably not included. The two principal trades in Barcelona are the tailors and the shoemakers. "It is curious to observe," says Mr. Townsend, "that as Scotland is remarkable for breeding gardeners, Ireland chairmen, Switzerland soldiers, so, Catalonia is distinguished all over Spain for shoemakers and tailors."* The other principal trades are the silk-weavers, cutlers, armourers and braziers, carpenters, turners, cabinet-makers, and embroiderers. There are extensive cotton and woollen manufactories, and a "magnificent foundry for brass cannon." The industry which every where appears in Catalonia, seems to act with concentrated force in Barcelona. One hundred and five villages, within the compass of five leagues, all subject to its jurisdiction, partake of its prosperity.† The manufactures of Barcelona date as far back as the thirteenth century. No place in Spain suffers more from a war with a maritime power.

The costume of Barcelona is the usual Spanish dress. The ladies of every condition wear the *basquina* (petticoat), *saya* (body or spencer), and

* Ireland is more remarkable now for supplying us with bricklayer's labourers; and Scotland sends us almost as many bakers as gardeners.

† This representation of the state of things must be considered as applying to the time when Mr. Townsend travelled; for, though Laborde's work is of so much more recent a date, his information tallies so remarkably with the statements of the English Traveller, as to lead to the suspicion that he has made use of similar documents. The rate of manufacturing wages in Barcelona, in 1786, had advanced to 1*s.* 6*d.* per day; agricultural labour, 1*s.* 2*d.* in winter; 1*s.* 8*d.* in harvest. The price of provisions was, mutton 10*d.* per lb. (of 36 oz.), beef 7*d.* per lb., bread 1½*d.* per 12 oz.; lodging 42*s.* per an. Fuel is scarce.

mantilla (veil), together with silk stockings, and shoes embroidered either with silk, or with gold and silver fringe, spangles, or pearls. Their feet are for the most part small and well shaped, and the *basquina* admits of the display of this important part of the dress and figure of a Spanish belle. The veil is the only covering worn on the head; and by the material of which this is made, the higher class are chiefly distinguished. A Spanish lady's full dress is generally black, with the veil either white or black, more commonly the latter; her undress is of any colour. They are fond of adorning their hair, neck, arms, and fingers with jewels. The fan is a most indispensable article; and to wield this sceptre of the fair with grace, and to make it perform all its telegraphic purposes, is a prime accomplishment. The gala dress of the noblemen is as superb as gold and silver embroidery can make it. Every thing at Barcelona, we are told, breathes a taste for pleasure and luxury. The inhabitants are passionately fond of plays, balls, masquerades, and every description of public spectacle; but have often been "checked in their festivities by the government, or rather, the Inquisition." They are not very social, however, in their general habits; and the citizens pass a great part of the year at their country seats.

The church festivals here are very brilliant, being always accompanied with illuminations. Those in Holy Week are the most remarkable. Throughout Spain, nothing is done during the last three days of that week, but visiting the several churches, where sermons are preached, and services performed, commemorative of the passion and death of the Redeemer. During these days, all are dressed in mourning; and every man, from the king to the beggar, must go on

foot. On Easter day, the scene is changed: all resume their gayest attire and most splendid equipages. The churches, which had been stripped of their ornaments, to adorn one particular spot, called *the sepulchre*, are decked forth anew with redoubled splendour, and blaze with illuminations. The bells, which had all ceased tolling, now fill the air with their merry but discordant clangour. The Gothic, ludicrous, and expensive processions and mock exhibitions of the Passion scenery, are now, for the most part, discontinued, and are universally discountenanced by the secular clergy; though, in many places, the idle monks join with the unthinking vulgar in endeavouring to protract the existence of these pompous but disgusting and disgraceful absurdities.* The consumption of

* Mr. Townsend witnessed one of these pageants. The procession was opened by Roman centurions in their proper armour. Then followed representations of the Last Supper, the treachery of Judas, the flagellation, the crucifixion, the taking down from the cross, the unction, the burial, and every subsequent transaction, — all described by groupes of pasteboard or wooden images as large as life, placed on lofty stages, borne each by six men, who were concealed by a black velvet drapery richly embroidered. All was as highly ornamented as carving and gilding, rich silks, brocades, velvets, and curious embroidery could render them. These stages or litters were attended by 800 burgesses clothed in black buckram, with flowing trains, each carrying a flambeau. Next came 180 penitents, in a dress somewhat resembling that of the Blue-coat boys of Christ's Hospital, but made of dark brown shalloon; and on their heads they wore a bonnet of a conical shape, which covered the head and face completely, having holes for the eyes: each bore a flambeau. These were followed by twenty others, whose crimes were supposed to be greater: they walked bare-foot, dragging heavy chains, and bearing large crosses on their shoulders. For their consolation, they had assigned to them the post of honour, for immediately after them followed the sacred corpse, placed in a glass coffin, and attended by twenty-five priests in their richest robes, and a well-chosen band playing the softest and most solemn music. The soldiers of the garrison brought up the rear. The different stages belonged to different bodies cor-

wax here, during the holy week, is enormous. Nearly 30,000 flambeaux of white wax, weighing from five to six pounds each, are burnt in the three processions.

But the most splendid procession in all the year, is that of *Corpus Christi*. "All the arts and trades join in it, each bearing a damask standard; together with the religious communities, part of the secular clergy of every parish, and the cathedral chapter. Every person carries a white wax taper in his hand. Young children are seen dressed fantastically like angels, bearing censers and incense, and strewing the way with flowers. Bands of music are stationed at certain distances. A detachment of grenadiers surrounds the canopy, under which the host is carried; the magistrates and civil dignitaries follow it; and the procession is closed by the garrison troops. From the windows and balconies of all the houses in the line of march, the richest tapestries are displayed. The whole pomp is heightened by the discharge of artillery from the ramparts, the ringing of the bells, beating of the drums, and flourishing of trumpets."*

porate, either of the nobles or the artificers, and were ranged in the procession according to their right of precedency. The day following, another procession of the same kind, but more elegant, was conducted through the streets, all the stages being different; and in the evening, a third, at which all the nobles of Barcelona assisted, each attended by two servants, and carrying in rotation, a crucifix as large as life, so heavy that no one for any length of time could sustain its weight. These processions were intermitted for several years, being prohibited by Government on account of the scandalous abuses which had crept into them; and in their place was substituted the carnival, with the same licentious riot and confusion as in Italy. In 1774, the carnival was prohibited, and the trade of the town, which had always been brisk at that season, suffered so materially, that the citizens loudly called for the revival of the processions.

* This procession was formerly preceded by giants and animals, moved on by men concealed in their bodies; but this part of the

Monjuich (or Monjuiz, pronounced Monjuique), which commands the city on the south-west, derives its name, according to some, from a corruption of *Mons Jovis*; according to others, from *Mons Judaicus*. In support of the latter conjecture, it may be mentioned, that about half-way up the hill, looking towards the city, there is a spot said to have been an ancient burial-place of the Jews, where lie scattered many large hewn-stones, bearing Hebrew inscriptions. Mr. Townsend says the word was anciently written *Monjouy*. On the other hand, the citadel at Gerona also bears the name of Monjuich; and it seems hardly probable that both citadels should have derived their name from a Jewish burial-ground. The base and body of this mountain is sandstone, or a fine-grained silicious grit, white, red, and grey, with some sprinkling of mica. On some parts of the summit is found a covering of pudding-stone, with schist, clay, and fuller's earth; and both the schist and the clay contain fossil shells. Mr. Townsend supposes, that the whole mountain must be a deposit of granite sand, formed by the currents at some remote period, when this part was covered by the sea. Every part of the ancient castle which stood here, is destroyed. The new fortress was erected early in the reign of Charles III. The walls are of stone; the main body of the place is bomb-proof, very neatly finished. One of the principal bastions is scooped into a cistern capable of containing 70,000 cubic feet of water, of which only a small quantity at a time is let off into a draw-well, to prevent any traitor from poisoning the stock of water. On the sea-side, it has been deemed im-

pageant was suppressed about fifty years ago. The giants, however, again made their appearance in 1793.

pregnable, so admirably has the natural strength of the situation been improved by art; and towards the land, the glacis has been sloped at an incredible expense, in such a manner that no approaches can be made under shelter. Every house in Barcelona lies exposed to it; and an extensive view is obtained of the coast, the harbour, and the marshy, fertile, but unhealthy plain watered by the Llobregat.

The surrounding country is fertile and well cultivated, abounding with grapes, figs, and other fruit, all sorts of grain, and various vegetables. The soil of the plain, from six to ten feet deep, is clay. Near the city flows a little stream, the *Bezós*, which in summer serves the purpose of irrigation. Opposite the city, at a league's distance, is the mountain of San Geronimo, famous for its capuchin convent and its fine gardens: on its sides are quarries of limestone and marble, on which are superposed schist and granite. The prospect is very extensive and pleasing, but not equal to that which is obtained from the summit of Mont S. Pedro Martir. Here, looking northward, Montserrat forms a magnificent object; and beyond it, the Pyrenees appear sinking in the horizon, looking only like a wall of snow. To the south and east, is seen the whole of the rich vale which supplies the city and the numerous adjacent villages; and, beyond this, the Mediterranean. To the westward flows the Llobregat, descending through the gorges of the mountains, from which it receives innumerable torrents, and, having spent its fury, moves on slowly to the sea, meandering through the extensive plain which itself has formed. The base and body of this mountain also is granite, on which lies a stratum of schist. These mountains are cultivated, and, where the plough

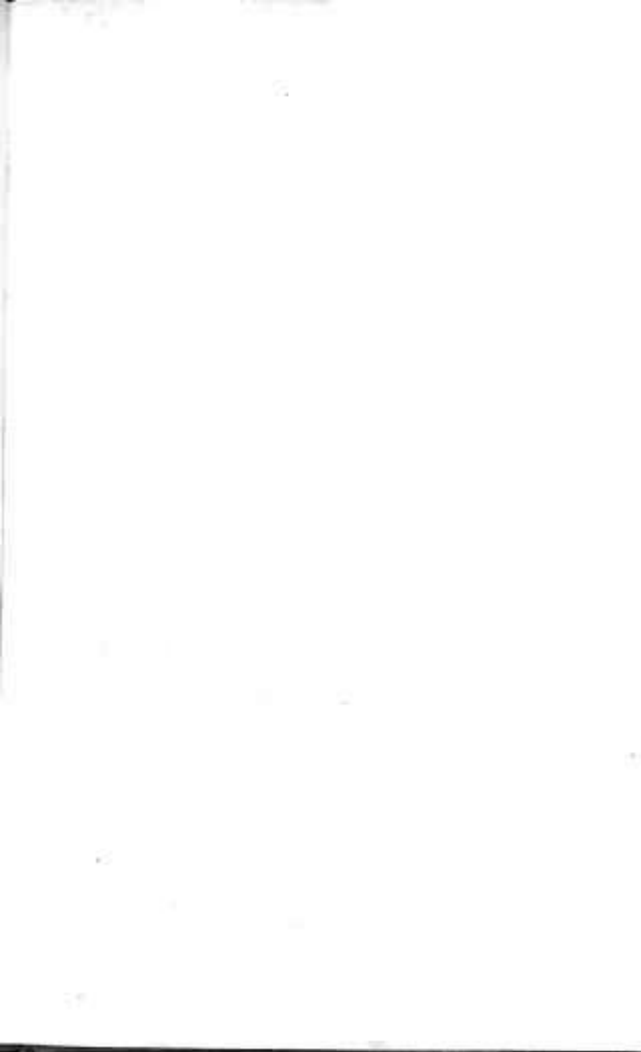
cannot go, are clothed even to their summits with vines.*

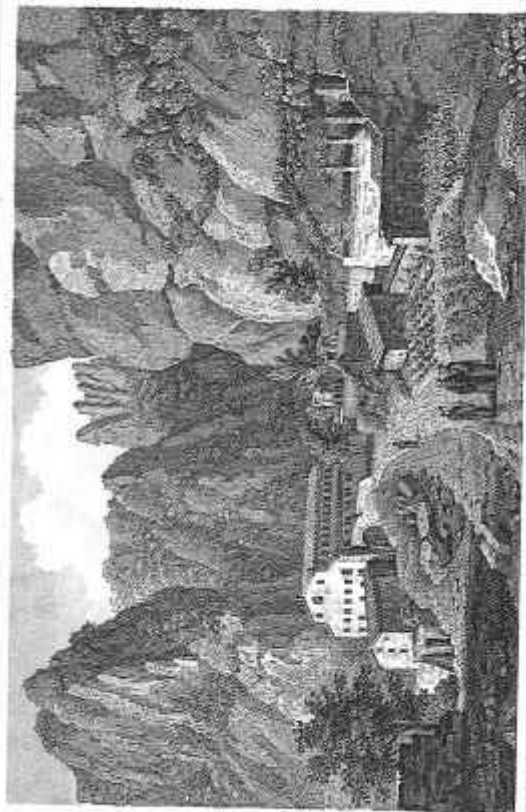
FROM BARCELONA TO MONTSERRAT AND LERIDA.

ON leaving Barcelona for Aragon, by the gate of *San Antonio*, a much-frequented road, broad and bordered with trees, leads over the plain to San Felice, a considerable village, with a number of handsomely decorated houses. About half a league further, the traveller crosses the Llobregat by the bridge of *Molins del Rey*; and leaving to the left the road to Tarragona and Valencia, proceeds through the village of San Andre de la Barca, to the town of Martorel. Before entering this town, to the right of the road, is seen a very high and narrow bridge over the Llobregat, with three Gothic arches, called the Devil's Bridge. It bears an inscription, stating that it was built in 1768, out of the ruins of an ancient bridge which had existed 1935 years from its erection by Hannibal, in the 535th year of Rome. At the northern end is a triumphal arch or gateway, said to have been raised by that general in honour of his father Hamilcar. "It is almost entire, well proportioned, and simple, without any ornament, except a rim or two of hewn stone. The large stone-casing has almost all fallen off."

Martorel is the *Telobis* of the Romans. It is a small, dirty, and ill-built town, situated at the con-

* On the neighbouring mountains, Mr. Townsend found the *quercus coccifera*, but discovered no traces of the insect. Near the sea is found the carob-tree (*ceratonia siliqua*), vulgarly called St. John's bread. (See MOD. TRAV., *Palestine*, p. 187.) The Spanish name is *al garrobo*, or *algarrobera*, of which the English appellation is probably a corruption. It is an evergreen; the foliage is beautiful and luxuriant; the pod is long, and contains many seeds abounding with saccharine matter. They are here given to the cattle.





THE GARDEN OF THE CONVENT OF MOUNT GERHART.

By H. A. A. A.

1844

flux of the Noya with the Llobregat. It contains a parish church, a monastery, barracks, and a tolerable inn. The women are employed in making black lace. Soon after crossing the Noya by a wooden bridge, the traveller has an interesting view of Montserrat,* famous for its rich Benedictine monastery. This mountain, "one of the most singular in the world, for situation, shape, and composition, stands insulated, towering over a hilly country, like a pile of grotto-work or Gothic spires." It is formed of an assemblage of immense cones piled one above the other, rising to the elevation of 3,300 feet above the level of the sea. The rocks are quite naked, and, at a distance, present no trace of vegetation; but, on a nearer approach, they are perceived to enclose evergreen forests and glens of romantic beauty. We shall avail ourselves of Mr. Swinburne's description of this singular spot. The road to the foot of the mountains turns off through *Espalungena*, a long village full of cloth and lace manufactories.

"We ascended by the steepest road, as that for carriages winds quite round, and requires half a day's travelling. After two hours' tedious ride from east to west, up a narrow path cut out of the side of gulleys and precipices, we reached the highest part of the road, and turned round the easternmost point of the mountain, near the deserted hermitage of St. Michael. Here we came in sight of the convent, placed in a nook of the mountain. It seems as if vast torrents of water, or some violent convulsion of nature, had split the eastern face of Montserrat, and formed in the cleft a sufficient platform to build the monas-

* *Monte Serrado* means the sawed mountain; and the arms of the abbey are, the Virgin sitting at the foot of a rock half cut through with a saw.

tery upon. The Llobregat roars at the bottom, and perpendicular walls of rock of prodigious height rise from the water-edge near half-way up the mountain. Upon these masses of white stone rests the small piece of level ground which the monks inhabit. Close behind the abbey, and in some parts impending over it, huge cliffs shoot up in a semicircle to a stupendous elevation. Their summits are split into sharp cones, pillars, pipes, and other odd shapes, blanched and bare; but the interstices are filled up with forests of evergreen and deciduous trees and plants. Fifteen hermitages are placed among the woods, some of them on the very pinnacles of the rocks, and in cavities hewn out of the loftiest of these pyramids. The prospect is not only astonishing, but absolutely unnatural. These rocks are composed of limestones of different colours, glued together by a sand and a yellow calcareous earth. In some parts, they consist of freestone and white quartz, mixed with some touchstone. There may, perhaps, be reason to suspect fire to have been a principal agent in the formation of this insulated mountain.

“ This is one of the forty-five religious houses of the Spanish congregation of the order of St. Benedict. Their general chapter is held every fourth year at Valladolid, where the deputies choose abbots and other dignitaries for the ensuing *quadrennium*. In this monastery, they elect for abbot, a Catalonian and a Castilian alternately. Their possessions are great, consisting of nine villages lying to the south of the mountain; but the king had lately curtailed their income about 6,000 livres a year. Their original foundation, in 866, gave them nothing but the mountain, and to donations and economy they owe the great increase of their landed property. They are bound to feed and harbour for three days all pil-

grims. The allowance is, a luncheon of bread in the morning; as much more, with broth, at noon; and bread again at night. The number of professed monks is 76, of lay brothers 28, and of singing boys 25, besides a physician, a surgeon, and servants.

“The church is gloomy, and the gilding much sullied with the smoke of eighty-five silver lamps of various forms and sizes, that hang round the cornice of the sanctuary. Funds have been bequeathed by different devotees for furnishing them with oil. The choir above stairs is decorated with the life of Christ in good wooden carving. A gallery runs on each side of the chancel, for the convenience of the monks. A large iron grate divides the church from the chapel of the Virgin, where the far-famed image stands in a niche over the altar, before which burn four tapers in large silver candlesticks, the present of the Duke of Medina Celi. In the sacristy and the passages leading to it, are presses and cupboards full of relics and ornaments (votive offerings) of gold, silver, and precious stones. They pointed out to us, as the most remarkable, two crowns for the Virgin and her Son, of inestimable value, some large diamond rings, an excellent cameo of Medusa’s head, the Roman emperors in alabaster, the sword of St. Ignatius, and the chest of a famous brother, John Guarin, of whom they relate the same story as that given in the Spectator, of Santon Barsissa.

“From the sacristy, we went up to the *camarines*, small rooms behind the high altar, hung with paintings, several of which are very good. A strong silver-plated door being thrown open, we were bid to lean forward and kiss the hand of *Nuestra Señora*. It is half worn away by the eager kisses of its votaries, but we could not ascertain whether it is marble

or silver, as it is painted black. The face of the Mother is regularly handsome, but of the colour of a negro woman.*

"After seeing the convent, we set out for the hermitages, and took the short way up a crevice between two huge masses of rock, where, in rainy weather, the waters dash down in furious torrents. We counted 600 holes, or steps, so steep and perpendicular, that from below we did not discern the least track. A hand-rail, and a few seats to take breath upon, enabled us to perform the escalade. Soon after, we arrived, through a wilderness of evergreens, at the narrow platform where the first hermit dwells. His cells, kitchen, chapel, and gardens are admirably neat and romantic, built upon various patches of level on the tops of precipices. The view from it is wild and, in fine, clear weather, most delightful. The hermits are all clad in brown habits, and wear long beards. They rise at two every morning, ring out their bell, and pray till it is time to go to mass at the hermitage called the *Parish*. Mass is always said at break of day. Some of them have two hours' walk down to it. The convent allows them bread, wine, salt, oil, one pair of shoes, and one of stockings a year, with twenty-five *reals* a month to each of them for other necessities. A couple of men are kept to assist them in their labour, each in his turn. A mule carries up their provisions twice a week, and is occasionally driven to Barcelona for salt-fish and other things, which they buy by clubbing together. They never eat meat, or converse with each other. Their novi-

* It has been ingeniously conjectured, that this whimsical idea of giving "Our Lady" an Ethiopic complexion, arose from taking literally, and applying to the Virgin, the expression in Cant. i. 5, "*Nigra sum sed formosa*."

tiate is very severe, for they must undergo six months' service in the infirmary of the abbey, one year among the novices, and six years' further trial, before they are suffered to go up to a hermitage, which they cannot obtain after all, but by the unanimous consent of the whole chapter. They take every vow of the monks, and, over and above, one of never quitting the mountain; but none of them are allowed to enter into holy orders. Their first habitation is always the most remote from the convent, and they descend according as vacancies happen in the lower cells.

“Having left a small present in the chapel-window, we continued our walk. Wherever the winding paths are level, nothing can be more agreeable than to saunter through the close woods and sweet wildernesses that fill up the space between the rocks. There are very few evergreens in Europe, that may not be found here, besides a great variety of deciduous plants. The apothecary of the house has a list of 437 species of plants, and 40 of trees. The greatest hardship here, is a scarcity of good water. Except one spring at the Parish, and another at the convent, they have no other than cistern water. The want of water is so great, that neither wolf, bear, nor other wild beast is ever seen on the mountain.

“The second hermitage we came to, stands on a point of the rock, over a precipice that descends almost to the very bed of the river. My head was near turning at looking down. The prospect is inimitably grand, extending over the northern and eastern parts of the province, which are very hilly and bare, bounded by the mountains of Roussillon. The true Pyrenees appear through some breaks in that chain. Manresa is the principal town in view. In a clear day, they assured us, they could see Majorca, which is 181 miles

distant. Upon the round rock that hangs over the hermit's cell, was formerly a castle, with its cistern and drawbridge, where some banditti harboured. From this strong hold, they made excursions to pillage the neighbouring valleys. By rolling down stones, they kept the monks in perpetual alarm, and obliged them to send up whatever provisions were wanted in the garrison. At last, a few soldiers climbed up the rock, surprised the fort, and destroyed this nest of robbers.

"At *La Trinidad*, the next cell we walked to, the monks by turns go up to pass a few days in summer by way of recreation. The hermit has many rooms, and is allowed a boy to wait upon him. Having scrambled up to one or two more hermitages, we found our curiosity satisfied; as, except in point of extensiveness of prospect, they varied little from those we had already seen. We therefore turned down another path, which led us to the dwelling of the vicar, a monk who during four years takes upon him the direction of the hermits. Lower down, we arrived at *Santa Cecilia*, the parish-church, where, every morning, the silent inhabitants of this *Thebais* meet to hear mass, and perform divine service, and twice a week to confess and communicate. About eleven, we got down to the abbey for dinner; and, having received the customary donation of blessed crosses and holy medals, we mounted our mules, and returned to Martorel." *

In pursuing the route to Lerida, we must now part company with Swinburne, and follow Townsend and Laborde, who conduct us in this direction to the confines of Aragon.

The traveller does not lose sight of Montserrat for several leagues. At Piera, a village five leagues

* Swinburne's Travels, vol. i. pp. 77—91.

from Martorel, the mountain "no longer appears like a sugar-loaf, but rather like a saw, rising almost perpendicular, and lifting up its rugged rocks like pyramids to meet the clouds." The country near this surprising mountain is every where torn by deep ravines, about 120 feet in depth, and appears to be composed of broken schist with clay and sand. Montserrat itself is formed of pudding-stone. A geological phenomenon still more remarkable, occurs about sixteen leagues from Barcelona, near the village of Cardona; a mountain three miles in circumference, and about 500 feet in elevation, without cleft or crevice, which consists of one mass of gem-salt, of such hardness as to admit of its being worked, like the fluor-spar of Derbyshire, into crosses, snuff-boxes, candlesticks, vases, and other trinkets, as transparent as rock-crystal. The river Cardenero at its foot is salt, and becomes more so after rain, "so as to kill the fish for nearly three leagues' distance." Mr. Townsend carried a little fragment with him all through Spain, without its exhibiting the least sign of deliquescence, but, in our humid climate, it soon melted. "After having travelled many leagues," he continues, "with Montserrat constantly on our right, and rising above us like a wave prepared to burst, we began to increase our distance from its base, and, winding to the left, descended among the mountains which border on the Noya, and which are composed of white granite. The ravines here are wider and deeper than those which we had seen the day before. Having crossed the Noya, we proceeded along its banks for about half a mile, through a narrow pass, with the river on our right, and, on our left, cliffs rising perpendicularly to the height of nearly 200 feet, composed of a soft calcareous rock, embedding snails and leaves, like that

between Montpellier and Montferrier." The road is very bad, in rainy weather almost impassable, and the Noya must be forded three times before reaching Igualada. The country is enlivened, however, by the number of paper-mills which are turned by this wild stream : * it falls into the Llobregat.

Igualada, a town containing about 12,000 inhabitants, is charmingly situated in a rich and well-watered plain, broken by ravines, and covered with corn-lands and olive-grounds. The fire-arms made here are in high estimation : there are also manufactories of printed calicoes and stained cottons. In this neighbourhood, the schistous rock is gradually lost in a limestone formation, covered with a white clay, which gives place to gypsum ; and " in the same progress," says Mr. Townsend, " we lost at first the vine, then the olive and the ilex, till nothing remained but the *quercus coccifera* and the oak."

The road now again passes over parched and uncultivated mountains ; but, as the traveller approaches Cervera, the gypsum gives way to a vast expanse of chalk. The road to that city winds up a long, steep hill, on the summit of which the traveller finds himself at the entrance of a delightful, elevated plain, extremely fertile, surrounded by hills, on one side of chalk, on the other, of limestone. Cervera is a walled town with seven gates, containing a church of Gothic construction, five convents, a hospital, and a university founded by Philip V., (at the time that he suppressed, in resentment, all the others in Catalonia,) in recompense for its loyalty, this being almost the only town

* Paper was at this time a considerable branch of commerce in Catalonia, being exported in large quantities to the colonies, as well as to other ports of Spain. In 1777, this province contained 112 paper-mills : in 1783, their number exceeded 300.

in the province that adhered to him in the Succession war. There are forty-three professors, and about 800 scholars. In the *Hospicio de la Misericordia*, girls are educated; and there is, besides, a seminary, which maintains about a hundred students. The architecture of the university is very handsome. The front extends 319 feet in length, and its depth is nearly equal to its length. In the interior are two large courts, surrounded with arcades resting on columns. The country round Cervera is extremely fertile, and has a very cheerful appearance; but the town itself is gloomy. The scholars and fellows of the university form by far the greater part of the population; and it appears quite deserted in the times of vacation. The number of inhabitants is estimated at 5,000.

The road now traverses the fine and extensive plain of Urgel. This part of the country, between the Noya and the Segre, is the highest land in Catalonia. At the end of two leagues is Tarrega, a small but thriving town, with about 2,000 inhabitants. There are two ranges of barracks here; and a market is held twice a week, which is much frequented. The chief articles of commerce are corn, wine, and oil; particularly corn, which is brought from Urgel. About a league from Tarrega, the road passes near two small towns, Vertu and Angle-Solas. The former has about 1,700 inhabitants, and is famous for an annual fair, much frequented, chiefly for the sale of mules: it is held in April, and lasts eight days. At Bell-puch, a small and ill-built town, with a population of about 1,200 persons, there is a handsome Franciscan convent, with two square cloisters, one above the other. The upper cloister is in the Gothic style, supported by small white marble columns, coupled, the capitals decorated with human figures,

animals, flowers, and foliage. The church, built in 1507, at the expense of Raymundo de Cardona, Viceroy of Sicily, is large and well constructed. The tomb of its founder is said to be one of the finest pieces of sculpture produced since the revival of the arts. A parched and bare tract of country now succeeds, till the traveller discovers the spires of Lerida; but on approaching that city, the country assumes a delightful appearance. For the last quarter of a league, the road leads through a fine avenue of poplars on a raised causeway, to a handsome stone bridge over the Segre, re-constructed from the ruins of a Roman one. Here, the traveller has to undergo the search of custom-house officers, and his passport must be shewn to the governor.

Lerida (the ancient Ilerda) was the capital of the *Ilergetes*, prior to the first invasion of Spain by the Romans. In the plains of Lerida, Scipio gained a signal victory over Hanno, the Carthaginian general, in the year of Rome 537. Ilerda was also rendered famous by the distress to which Julius Cæsar was reduced when encamped in its neighbourhood. "He had taken possession of a plain shut in between the rivers Cinga and Sisoris, and defended by a deep intrenchment, whilst Petreius and Afranius, Pompey's generals, were encamped on a hill between him and Ilerda. In the intermediate space, between the hill and the city, is a plain of no great extent, with an eminence which, if seized, might be quickly fortified, and being fortified, would cut off all communication with the city. For this, during five hours, they maintained a doubtful conflict; but, in the end, fortune declared in favour of Afranius, and Cæsar retreated to his camp. While revolving in his mind how he should cover this disgrace, word was brought that, by

the melting of the snow upon the mountains, his two bridges were broken down, that the country was laid under water by the overflowing of the rivers, and that all communication was cut off with the provinces by which his army had been fed. The immediate consequence was famine. While he remained in this situation, messengers were sent to Rome, and all gave him up for lost. It was upon the news of this distress, that Cicero left the city, and joined Pompey at Dyrrhachium. Cæsar, without loss of time, set his men to work, and having made a sufficient number of little boats, light and portable like those which he had seen in Britain, after a few days, sent a party up the river in the night, who, with these boats, made good their landing, and having fortified a camp, secured his retreat."

The beauty of the situation and the fertility of the soil, induced the Romans to make it a colony under the title of *Municipium Illerdense*. It fell successively under the dominion of the Goths and the Moors, and was taken from the latter, in 1149, by Raymond Berenger, soon after his marriage with the heiress of Aragon; since which time it has formed a part of Catalonia.

The modern city stands on the declivity of a hill, on the right bank of the river Segre, which bathes its walls. The rock is a silicious grit with a calcareous cement. On the summit is the castle, now in decay. The position of the ancient city, as described by Lucan, is still discernible. "The situation of Lerida," Mr. Townsend says, "is delightful, the surrounding country being one continued garden covered with corn, vines, and olive-trees. For beauty, few places can equal it, but, from the abundance of water, it is far from being healthy." There is one tolerable street,

a quarter of a league long, but the rest of the streets are narrow, crooked, and ill paved, and the houses are ill built. Towards the river, a fine quay had been recently built, extending the whole length of the town, and serving as a dike against the Segre, and a promenade for the inhabitants. The population is estimated at 18,000. Lerida is an episcopal city. Besides the cathedral, there are four parish churches, eight (Mr. Townsend says thirteen) monasteries, three nunneries, a hospital, and a college. Its university, established A.D. 1300, by Jayme II., King of Aragon, was suppressed, together with the other Catalonian universities, by Philip V. There is now only one college for the education of youth, which is supported by the bishop; and the Franciscan nuns give public and gratuitous instruction to girls. The cathedral, which is a modern structure, is the only edifice worth attention. A double flight of about twenty steps, leads to the terrace on which the gates of the church open. The front has six fluted pilasters of the Corinthian order, between which there are three large doors, with iron grates of handsome workmanship, and there are two fine square towers. The whole is of freestone. The surrounding country is intersected with canals, supplied from the neighbouring rivers, and is carefully and skilfully irrigated. Silk-worms are bred here, but to no great extent.

From Barcelona to Lerida is from 25 to 27 leagues, or nearly 100 miles. Beyond Lerida, the road to Aragon lies over barren and gloomy mountains. Nothing is to be seen but naked rocks and a succession of parched hills. At the end of two leagues, is a wretched village, called *Alcaraz*, supposed to be the *Orcia* of Ptolemy. It was once a fortified town, and was taken from the Moors in 1149, by the Count of

Urgel. At the end of this village, on the right, is seen a very old square tower, with battlements and loop-holes. Half a mile further on, two blocks of freestone mark the boundary of Catalonia and Aragon. In advancing in this direction westward towards Saragossa, the traveller is reminded at every step, that he has entered a new kingdom. "The red cap and the black velvet breeches are no longer seen; but, in their stead, a black velvet bonnet peaked like a mitre, and short white trowsers, called *bragas*, reaching more than half-way down the thighs. The face of country is likewise changed, being more hilly and broken by torrents, not altogether barren, but uncultivated and left desolate. For many miles together, there is neither house, nor tree, nor man, nor beast, except a few straggling carriers with their mules; and by the road side are seen wooden crosses, to mark the spot where some unhappy traveller lost his life. The passengers think it a work of piety, to cast a stone upon the monumental heap. Whatever may have been the origin of this practice, it is general over Spain; and round most monumental crosses is seen a heap of stones."*

We must not, however, at present pursue this route, having to explore the southern part of Catalonia. Mr. Swinburne will be our guide in tracing the route

FROM BARCELONA TO VALENCIA.

A little beyond the bridge over the Llobregat, near Molins del Rey, two roads branch off; that to the right leading to Martorel, which we have been pursuing; that to the left conducts us to Tarragona.

* Townsend, vol. i. p. 199.

At the end of a short day's stage, is the *venta* of Cipreret, in the midst of a wild, mountainous country, with a few pines scattered about the hills, seldom enough to form a grove. "Here," says Mr. Swinburne, "we saw for the first time a true Spanish kitchen, viz. a hearth raised above the level of the floor under a wide funnel, where a circle of muleteers were huddled together over a few cinders. Next morning, we passed a broad glen or hollow, over which they intended to convey the high road in a straight line, by means of a bridge of three rows of arches one above the other. Had they turned a little to the left by a gradual slope, the descent had been trifling, and a single arch sufficient for the passage of the water. I should suspect, they build here for the diversion of future antiquaries, not for the use of the present generation, which feels all the weight of the expense, without reaping any benefit from such ill-calculated undertakings. In the present state of things, the pass is very dangerous; and further on, the road grows worse, in a large forest of pines, where the rocks and gulleys render it next to impossible for a carriage to get through without damage. On account of the great number of bridges necessary among these broken hills, and of the obstinacy with which the engineers (whose profits increase by delays and difficulties) persist in carrying the road straight through rocks and torrents, the work advances so slowly, that, before a second mile is finished, the first is ruined for want of repairs." For many years, this bridge remained in the half-finished and abandoned state in which our Traveller found it in 1775; but at length, his Catholic Majesty, having taken a journey through Catalonia, gave orders to complete the structure, which calls to mind, M. Laborde says, the Roman works. The

lower bridge has seven arches; the upper one, which is on a level with the road, has thirteen: the whole is of freestone, and upwards of 700 feet in length. At the foot of this steep mountain, the country is fertile and populous, and the soil in the neighbourhood of Villa Franca de Panades, is remarkably light. This town, which is supposed to be the modern representative of *Carthago vetus*, one of the first cities founded by the Carthaginians under Hamilcar Barcas,* derives its name from the privileges conferred upon it by Count Raymond Borel, who recovered it from the Moors about A.D. 1000. It is the head town of a district comprising 112 villages, and is finely situated in the midst of a fertile plain; but the town itself is ill built and gloomy, the streets being narrow, as in all the ancient towns. It contains a parish church, three monasteries, one nunnery, a hermitage, a chapel of Our Lady of Sorrows, a hospital, a linen manufactory, some distilleries, and a good inn. The population is estimated at between 6 and 7,000 persons. The road now enters a forest of pines more than a league in length, at the end of which it crosses a fine valley to the small town of Arbos, situated on a commanding elevation, and presenting the ruins of gates, walls, and moats.† Gornal, the next town, has also been fortified; and at Vendrele, another small town, likewise built on an eminence, the ancient walls are still to be seen. The churches of these towns have octagon towers. All this tract would seem to exhibit signs of depopulation and decay. An hour and a half

* Laborde supposes the site of the ancient town to be on the eminence on which the hermitage of San Miguel of Olerdola now stands.

† This neat and at that time flourishing town, was taken and burned by the French in 1808.—See SOUTHEY'S *Hist.* vol. i. p. 360.

beyond Vendrele, and a mile short of the *venta de la Figureta*, the road passes under a fine Roman arch, called by the country people, *Portal de Bara*. The arch is almost entire, elegant in its proportions, and simple in its ornaments. The gateway is lofty. The entablature is supported on each side by four fluted Corinthian pilasters. The inscription is now illegible,* but is stated by the Spanish historians to have ascribed the erection of this monument to the testamentary directions of Licinius, who was thrice consul under Trajan, and famous for his extraordinary wealth. What purpose it was designed to answer, does not appear. "Some think," says Swinburne, "that it was the entrance of the Campus Tarraconensis, and that a wall ran from the sea, which is about half a mile distant to the S.E., through the olive-grounds, quite up to the hills. There appear some remnants of a wall in that direction, but I will not pretend to say they are of so ancient a date.

"The next day," continues this Traveller, "was the most delightful of our whole journey. The sun shone out in all his splendour, the sea was smooth and calm, the prospect was incessantly varying as we moved on, sometimes along the rich level on the shore, where the bushy heads and glossy leaves of the locust-trees, contrasted with the pale green of the olive-woods, made it appear quite a summer scene; sometimes over gentle eminences, from which we commanded views of numberless bays and promontories, crowned with towers and antique fortifications. The little river Gaya distributes its waters in stone channels to all parts of the valley, and gives vigour to its productions, which otherwise would be parched up

* Mr. Swinburne could only make out the letters, "EX TEST."

by the drought. Here, the tender olive-sets are nursed up in long baskets, till they grow out of the reach of goats and other enemies. As we descended the hill of Bara to the beach, Tarragona presented itself to our view, like a ruined fortress, on a round point projecting into the sea. A little further on, we turned off the road to the right, into a wood of pines and shrubs, to visit a monument which tradition has named the tomb of the Scipios,—the father and uncle of Scipio Africanus, both killed in Spain. This building is small, about nineteen feet square, and twenty-eight high. In the front, facing the sea, are two statues of warriors in mournful postures, roughly cut out of the stones of the sepulchre, and much worn away by the sea air. The inscription is so much defaced, that it is hard to make any thing of it.* I think it has been erected by some priest for himself and family, as the fragments of the last line may be interpreted in that manner. Some take the first word of the first line to have been Cornelius, a name belonging to the Scipios. The top of the monument, which probably ended in a pyramidal form, has fallen off.†

“From the heavy sands of the sea-shore, where a great many fishermen were hauling in their nets, we ascended the naked rock of Tarragona. It produces nothing but the dwarf-palm or palmetto. This plant grows among the stones to the height of one or two feet. The leaves are stiff and sharp, spread out like fingers, or the sticks of a fan, and very much resem-

* “What remains is as follows: ORN·TE·EAQUE·L·O·
VNVS·VER·BVSTVS·I·S·NEGL·VI·VA·FL·BVS·SIBI·
PERPETVO REMANERE.”

† “The tomb of Theron at Girgenti in Sicily, resembles this in form.”

bling the leaves of the date-palm. This also produces fruit, and the insipid pith of its root is a favourite eating of the peasants. The leaves make good brooms and ropes, and are of great service in fattening cattle.

“ The ancient Tarraco is now contracted to a very trifling city, which covers only a small portion of the Roman enclosure,* and is an ill-built, dirty, depopulated place. Many antiquities have been found, and are still to be seen in the town and almost all round the walls. A few vestiges remain of the palace of Augustus, and of the great circus: an arch or two of the amphitheatre, and some steps cut in the solid rock, still exist, impending over the sea. About three miles from the city is the *Puente de Ferriera*, an ancient aqueduct, which we did not go to see, not having heard of it till we had passed too far on to turn back. The cathedral, dedicated to Santa Thecla, is ugly; but the new chapel of that tutelar saint is beautiful. The inside is cased with yellow and brown marbles, dug up in the very centre of the town, and ornamented with white foliages and bas-reliefs. The architecture is accounted heavy, but I confess I did not think that fault very glaring. The whole together has a very pleasing effect.

“ In Queen Anne’s war, the English were in possession of this post, and intended to keep and fortify it, by bringing the river Francolis quite round it. For this purpose, they threw up vast outworks and redoubts, of which the ruins are yet visible. Having secured Minorca and Gibraltar, they re-

* In the time of the Emperor Adrian, its circumference is said to have been 34,190 fathoms: its present circumference is not above 1,400 fathoms. Tarraco was the capital of Hispania Citerior, thence called *Tarraconensis*.

nounced the project of fixing a garrison in Tarragona."

Of all the cities in Spain, Tarragona, Mr. Townsend says, would furnish the most agreeable employment to the antiquary. M. Laborde says, there is nothing pleasant in the town except its situation, and that has its disadvantages, as there is neither fountain nor well near it; but there is "a superb aqueduct, constructed partly on the ruins of the Roman work," at the sole expense of the archbishop of the day, by which excellent water is now conveyed to the city, from the distance of seven leagues. A large, broad street had also been recently built, containing some handsome edifices; and "the new port," the building of which had been begun seven or eight years before, promised to be one of the finest in the Mediterranean.* The population in 1808, was estimated at 9,000 souls. Tarragona is one of the most ancient archbishoprics in Spain: it is said to have existed under King Wamba. The city was sacked by the Moors in 714, when all the inhabitants were put to the sword. Count Raymond Berenger recovered it from them in 1150; but it fell again under their yoke, and was finally rescued from them by Alfonso, King of Aragon, in 1220. Having, with the other cities of Catalonia, revolted against Philip IV., it was besieged and taken by that

* The trade of Tarragona had so far revived in 1805, that the port was visited that year by 1,515 Spanish, and 199 foreign vessels. The exports consisted chiefly of wines and brandies; the imports, of grain and other provisions. The wines for which there was the greatest demand, were those of the Campo de Tarragona, and the vineyards of Reuss, in which districts a great quantity of brandy was made. The inhabitants of Tarragona had recently obtained permission to open a road to Lerida, which would shorten by a two days' journey their communication with the interior of Aragon.—*BOURGOING'S Spain*, vol. iii. p. 293. It has in Reuss, however, a formidable commercial rival.

monarch in 1640. Four years after, the French laid siege to it, but were forced to raise the blockade. In the Succession war, it adhered to the Austrian party, and opened its gates, in 1705, to the English troops, who are accused of setting fire to the city on abandoning it after the peace of Utrecht. "This conflagration," Laborde says, "destroyed a part of the buildings and fortifications; and from this period dates the total decline of Tarragona." Its university, founded in 1572 by the archbishop, was included among the universities vindictively suppressed by Philip V. There are, of course, several monasteries and nunneries here, and an orphan asylum.

From this city, the traveller descends into the Campo Tarragones, "a plain of about nine miles in diameter, one of the most fruitful spots in Europe: there is not an uncultivated spot in the whole extent. The abundance and excellence of its productions have induced all the foreign houses settled in Barcelona, to establish agents and factors at Reuss, the principal town, pretty near the centre of the plain." A mile from Tarragona, the Francolis is crossed by a bridge of six arches. At the distance of a league and a half, a few miles to the left of the road, is the harbour of Salona, to which, anciently, the jurisdiction of Tarraco extended. It is connected by a canal with Reuss. This thriving town, which, in the middle of the eighteenth century, was little more than a village, had within a few years risen to a high degree of prosperity. When Mr. Swinburne was there (in 1775), the number of inhabitants already amounted to 20,000, having increased above two-thirds within fifteen years, and the suburbs were twice as large as the old town. This increase, however, had been at the expense of the inland villages, many of which were left

almost destitute of inhabitants. "Reuss," says M. Bourgoing, "is one of those wonderful creations which a traveller cannot help making a circuit of a few leagues to see and to admire. He will there find, under the direction of an English firm, one of the finest distilleries in Europe, a very handsome theatre, some beautiful barracks, and a general appearance of activity and abundance. Great quantities of leather are also made here, as well as at the town of Balls or Valls, which is only three leagues to the N.E." Reuss is about eight miles W. of Tarragona, and six miles from the sea.*

The route from Reuss lies for some time over the plain. The soil being clayey, the road is execrable, and the view is confined on every side by groves of olive and carob-trees, till, at the ruined castle called the *Casa Yerma*, it enters the desert which forms the sea-shore. It continues to run along the shore to the *Hospitalet*, — a spacious castellated building, erected by a prince of the royal house of Aragon, for the reception and aid of travellers. "The revenues assigned for this foundation," Laborde says, "are still received, and the building exists, yet, the object is lost sight of. One part of the edifice serves as an inn; another part for a glass-house, and the rest is occupied by a chaplain, who enjoys the revenues. Every one is at present accommodated here for his money, but the traveller will stop only from necessity, for the inn is detestable." After continuing for about a league

* Reuss is not mentioned by Laborde, though he notices every village and *venta*, in his account of this route; a proof that his itinerary is compiled in great measure from obsolete materials. The town is not, indeed, in the direct route; but Salona is referred to, which is its port. Mr. Townsend's work often contains more recent as well as more correct information, though he travelled twenty years before the French writer.

along the foot of the mountains, the traveller has now to climb a steep pass called *Le Col de Bolaguer*, passing under a small fort built to command the defile and the coast. On the summit stands a *venta* or inn,—if such it can be called. From this place to another wretched hovel, called the *Venta del Platero*, a distance of between three and four leagues, the road, which is most rugged and fatiguing, lies over bleak, uncomfortable hills, covered only with low shrubs, where nothing but the prospect of the sea and the watch-towers placed as beacons along the shore, occurs to enliven the dreary scene. From that *venta* to the village of Perillos, a distance of four leagues, the road is still worse, and the waste more and more barren. Sometimes, the traveller ascends to a dizzy elevation, and looks down with terror on the abysses beneath: sometimes, he is buried in deep, narrow gulleys, where only a small strip of the sky is visible. The torrents which rush from the adjoining ridge of mountains after every heavy shower, have swept away all bridges and causeways, and washed the road to the very rock.* “In a few hours,” continues Mr. Swinburne, “we emerged from this desert, which is at least ten leagues long. In some places, it produces olive and locust-trees, which, when the underwood is cleared

* “Nothing,” says Bourgoing, “can be more dreary and desert than the fifteen leagues which separate Tortosa from the town of Cambrils (in the *Campo*): the road from Tortosa to Tarragona remained till 1782, one of the worst in the world.—One of the most striking phenomena that a traveller meets with in Europe, is to find, in a country so well known in Spain, between cities so considerable as Valencia and Barcelona, so near to the sea-coast and to the mouth of a large river, on a road so much frequented by people of every description, and even of every nation,—to find, I say, extensive districts so totally destitute of resources, and of all the conveniences and comforts which, in every other country, are the inseparable companions of civilisation and luxury. I question

away, and the earth moved about the roots, become productive of good fruit. A little turn of the road to the west, brought us in sight of the mouth of the Ebro, which appears to waste itself, before it reaches the sea, by running through various channels in a tract of flat lands containing nearly 100,000 acres. There are two good harbours at the mouth of the river, which is navigable for vessels of fifty tons as high up as Tortosa, and for small craft much higher into the kingdom of Aragon."

A bare, stony, and uncultivated tract extends for five leagues, from Perillos to the ferry over the Ebro. On the right bank, a little above its mouth, is the poor little town of Emposta, from which the road leads along the coast to San Carlos, a small sea-port town, built in 1792, at the expense of the crown, in an unhealthy situation, and which does not appear likely to become a place of any consideration. A small canal has been dug from Emposta to San Carlos, which, Laborde says, would, if deepened, open a safe and easy communication between the sea and the Ebro. At present, the entrance of that river is very difficult, owing to the bar formed by shifting banks of sand, which change their situation after every storm or swelling of the waters. About two leagues beyond San Carlos, the little river Cenia, which is crossed by a bridge of one arch, and is dry in summer, separates Catalonia from the kingdom of Valencia.

The episcopal city of Tortosa, which the traveller leaves some leagues to his right in keeping the main

whether a person in the centre of Siberia, or in the neighbourhood of the Gulf of Bothnia, would think himself more completely cut off from the rest of the world." Since 1802, however, the road has, by royal orders, been much improved, and in dry weather is excellent.

road, is an ancient, and consequently an ugly town, situated on a declivity on the left bank of the Ebro, which is there crossed by a bridge of boats, four leagues from its mouth. It is divided into the old and new towns, both of which are walled, and contains five parish churches, and ten convents. "The cathedral is near the river, built under the protection of a castle. The front is Ionic, with massive pillars, some of which are of single stones, as are all those in the chapel of *N. Señora de la Cintra*. The whole edifice is devoid of taste, and the interior is loaded with preposterous ornaments. In the cloister is a chapel which carries marks of the most remote antiquity, with two little columns of porphyry, the one red, the other green, which look as if they had been made before the Flood. The *custodia* of solid silver, weighing fourteen arrobas, although not so ancient, is more to be admired for age than for the beauty of its workmanship." Tortosa carries on a considerable trade in corn and silk, and has a population, according to Bourgoing, of 16,000 souls. It was taken by the French in 1810. Within a league of the city are the quarries of marble, known by the name of Tortosa jasper.*

* "This city," says M. Peyron, "is said to have been builded 2000 years before the Christian era; but the proofs of this illustrious origin are unfortunately lost. Scipio gave it the name of Dordosa, and made it a municipal city. Among the numerous and trifling combats between the Spaniards and the Moors, there was one in which the women of Tortosa signalised themselves. They courageously mounted the ramparts of their city, and performed such prodigies of valour, that Raymond Berenger, the last Count of Barcelona, instituted for them, in 1170, the military order of the *Hacha*, or flambeau. They merited and obtained the same day, several honourable privileges, which exist not at present; they have, however, preserved the right of precedence in matrimonial ceremonies, let the rank of the men be ever so distinguished. The

In coming from Valencia, the flat roofs and the dialect of Catalonia first strike the attention of the traveller at the little port of Benicarlo, two leagues beyond the bridge over the Cenia. Mr. Swinburne noticed, almost as soon as he left Tortosa, the appearance of the Valencian costume,—a monstrous slouched hat, cropped hair without a net, a short brown jacket, white waistcoat and trowsers, stockings gartered below the knee, and packthread sandals; a dress differing not less remarkably than that of the Aragonese from the Catalanian. “The common dress of a Catalanian sailor or muleteer,” Mr. Swinburne says, “is brown; and the distinctive mark by which they are known in Spain, is a red woollen cap, falling forwards, like that of the ancient Phrygians. The middling sort of people and artificers wear hats and dark clothes, with a half-wide coat carelessly tossed over the shoulders. The dress of the women is a black silk petticoat over a little hoop, shoes without heels, bare shoulders, and a black veil stiffened out with wire, so as to arch out on each side of the head, somewhat resembling the hooded serpent.” The use of slouched hats, white shoes, and large brown cloaks, by the Catalanians, had been forbidden by Government! Till a few years before Swinburne visited the Peninsula, they had also been ignominiously prohibited from carrying any kind of weapon, even a knife: “in every public house, there was one chained to the table for the use of all comers.” Such were the enlightened measures adopted by the court, with the view to break the haughty and independent spirit of

curious in ruins,” it is added, “will find a considerable number in the esplanade of the castle. There are also several subterranean caverns resembling the *masmoras* of Grenada: they appear to have been public granaries, like those of Burjasol near Valencia.”

these mountaineers. Many of their ancient privileges had then, however, been gradually restored.

Swinburne describes the Catalonians generally, as a hardy, active, industrious race, of a middle stature, strong features, brown complexion, and well-knit limbs; inured, both by education and practice, to the greatest fatigue. Their *mocos*, or mule-boys, have been known to go from Barcelona to Madrid, and back again, a distance of 600 miles, in nine days. In the old wars between Aragon and France, their irregular militia, known under the name of *Almogavares* and *Miqueletes*, were, from their savage habits and appearance, and their dexterity in the use of the weapons, the terror of the enemy. "These men were originally the scouts and outposts of the Christians against the Moors, and lived in a perpetual state of warfare. When that contest was terminated, they became banditti in their own country, or soldiers of fortune abroad; and, losing their Moorish appellation, acquired their present name from *Michelot de Prats*, one of their leaders, who served with distinction in Italy, and became the companion of Cæsar Borgia, and the main agent in many of his atrocities. In Spain, the severity of the revenue-laws opened for bold and mutinous spirits the least injurious channel in which they could be employed; and they who in other times would have been robbers, became smugglers. Of such men, the *Miqueletes* consisted in the commencement of the late contest. Their hardy habits, their daring and adventurous disposition, and that intimate knowledge which, in the course of their former occupation, they had acquired of all the mountain paths, made them the best soldiers for such warfare as the state of Spain required; and the peasantry, or the citizens who, having been utterly ruined, had no other course left

them than to stand or fall with their country in the field, acquired the same title when they formed themselves into irregular companies. Their ingenuity supplied the deficiency of arms. They manufactured wooden cannons, close hooped with iron, and by means of this artillery, sometimes obtained advantages, particularly at Monresa, over their enemies."*

The dress of the Miquelets is thus described by

* Dr. Southey mentions a curious and characteristic incident, which occurred during the first year of the Peninsular war. The Somatenes, or armed population, had been called out to oppose the advance of the French army under General Schwartz, who were marching upon Manresa, with a view to gain possession of Lerida. "An odd accident deceived the French. There was among the Somatenes, a drummer, who had escaped from Barcelona. Little as the knowledge was, which this lad possessed of military manœuvres, it enabled him to assume authority among these armed peasants, and he performed the double duties of drummer and commander with singular good fortune. For the enemy inferred, from the sound of the drum which was regularly beaten, that the peasantry were supported by regular troops. There were Swiss in Lerida, and the regiment of Estremadura was in Tarrega: the apprehension, therefore, was not unreasonable; and after a short stand against a brisk fire, Schwartz determined upon retreating. The Somatenes, encouraged by success, and now increasing in number, pressed upon him; and the news of his defeat raised the country behind him, to his greater danger. He had to pass through the little town of Esparraguera, consisting of one narrow street nearly a mile in length. The inhabitants cut down trees, and brought out tables and benches to obstruct the way, and they stored the flat roofs of their houses with beams and stones. The head of the French column, ignorant of these preparations, entered the street at twilight; but having experienced the danger, Schwartz divided them into two bodies, one of which made its way on the outside of the town by the right, the other by the left. From this time, the retreat became disorderly; the enemy lost part of their artillery in crossing the Abrera; and had the people of Martorell acted upon the alert, like those of Esparraguera, and broken down the bridge over the Noya, the fugitives, for such they were now become, might probably all have been cut off. They entered Barcelona in great confusion and dismay."—SOUTHEY'S *Peninsular War*, vol. i. pp. 358, 9.

Swinburne: "They wear their hair in a silk net, called *garbin*, with a broad, silver-laced hat, squeezed flat, like those of the English sailors, hung on one side of their head; a handkerchief loosely tied round the neck; a short, striped waistcoat, and over it a red jacket, with large silver buttons, like bells, dangling from it; a blue shirt, bound with yellow tape, rolled several times round their waist, in which they carry their knife, handkerchief, &c. Over their jacket they wear two cross-belts, one to carry their ammunition, the other for their broad sword and pistols. On the left shoulder hangs a blue great coat, embroidered with white thread. Their breeches are blue-and-white-striped. Their stockings, rolled beneath the knee, and gartered with an enormous buckle and a bunch of black ribbons, reach only down to the ankle, where they tie several rounds of blue fillet very tight, to keep on their pack-thread sandals, called *alpargatas*, with hempen soles that seem scarcely to cover their toes."

The Catalonians, continues Mr. Swinburne, "cannot brook the thoughts of being menial servants in their own country; but will rather trudge it all over with a pedlar's pack on their shoulders, or run about upon errands, than be the head domestic in a Catalonian family. Far from home, however, they make excellent servants; and most of the principal houses of Madrid have Catalonians at the head of their affairs. They are the general muleteers and *caleseros* (calash-drivers) of Spain. You meet with them in every part of the kingdom. Their honesty, steadiness, and sobriety entitle them to the confidence of travellers; and their thirst after gain makes them bear with any hardships. With good words, you will always find them docile; but they cannot bear ill

usage or opprobrious language. Those who remain at home for the labours of the field, are exceedingly industrious. Their corn harvest is in May, or early in June. But their attention is chiefly turned to the cultivation of the vine, which they plant on the summits of their most rugged mountains. In many places, they carry up earth to fix the young set in; and in others, they have been known to let one another down from the brow of the rock by ropes, rather than suffer a good patch of soil to remain useless. Their vintages are commonly very plentiful. One autumn, there was such a superabundance of grapes, that, in many places, whole vineyards were left untouched, for want of vessels to hold the wine in; and notice was posted up upon the church-doors, that any one was at liberty to take away what quantity he pleased, on paying a small acknowledgment to the proprietor. The scarcity of corn, however, is sometimes felt, the whole principality not producing above half a year's provision. Without the importation from America, Sicily, and the North of Europe, it would run the risk of being famished. The exports consist of wine, brandies, salt, oil, (and fruits,) which are mostly taken in by foreign ships, at the little ports and roads along the coast, and are not brought to be shipped off at the capital. There are mines of lead, iron, copper, antimony, silver, and coal in the mountains; but they are ill-wrought, and turn to poor account.* The manufactures are of more importance."

* Coal is chiefly found in the district of Villa Franca; silver and copper abound in the *Valle de Aran*; and coal, silver, and gold have all been discovered in the vicinity of Lerida. "Some of these mines are too remote from water carriage; others cannot be worked to profit for want of timber."—TOWNSEND, vol. iii. p. 344. If fuel be meant, the existence of coal would obviate the difficulty.

Catalonia enjoys the privilege of exemption from the “stagnating influence” of the *alcavala*, *cientos*, and *millones*; in lieu of which, an income-tax of ten *per cent.* is levied on all rents, whether belonging to individuals or to communities, as well as on the supposed gains of all merchants and mechanics.* The produce of these taxes amounted, in 1721, to 128,000*l.* sterling; but Mr. Townsend supposes the total revenue drawn from this province to have amounted, in 1787, to little less than a million sterling. This, according to the computed population, would be 20*s.* annually for each person;† whereas, taking the whole Peninsula together, the Spaniards paid no more than 10*s.* each per annum. The more rapid circulation of money in this province, and its freedom from the dead weight of the *alcavala*, more than compensated for the comparative heaviness of the contribution. Artists and manufacturers are as much honoured and respected in Catalonia, as in other provinces they are despised and treated with contempt; and foreigners more easily obtain a footing. But that which contributes most to the wealth and prosperity of Catalonia, is the power which gentlemen of landed property have over their estates, to grant a species of lease called establishment by *emfiteutic* contracts. By this means, the great proprietor can grant any given quantity of land for a

* Labourers paid $8\frac{1}{2}$ *per cent.*, supposing them to work a hundred days in the year, at three reals per day. Artists and manufacturers contributed in the same proportion annually for a hundred and eighty days. Oxen, kine, horses, mules, sheep, lambs, pigs, &c., paid, per annum, according to the size of the species, from one-third of a real to three reals each.

† In the year 1768, when the bishops gave an account of the population in their respective dioceses, the returns were: men, 189,252; women, 192,763; boys, 313,079; girls, 320,916; clergy, regular and secular, 14,235 (every fourteenth man); total, 1,030,245.

term of years, either absolute or conditional, either for lives or in perpetuity, always reserving a quit-rent, like our English copyholds, with a relief on every succession, a fine on the alienation of the land, and other seignorial rights dependent on the custom of the district. When his term expires, the tenant must, on quitting, be paid for his improvements before he can be legally ejected.* To this power of making emfiteutic contracts, has with reason been attributed the cultivation of such waste lands as are most susceptible of tillage, and the consequent increase of population. In contrast to this, it may be mentioned, that Andalusia, although more fertile than either Catalonia or Galicia, is destitute of industry, because, the land being occupied by a few proprietors, the bulk of the people are day-labourers, who only find occasional employment. "Hence, clothed in rags and wretchedness, they crowd into cities, where they obtain a precarious livelihood through the bounty of rich ecclesiastics. Not merely in Andalusia, but in other provinces, the great estates being strictly entailed and administered on the proprietor's account, little land is to be rented by the farmer, less can be purchased by the monied man, and, for want of floating property, industry is left to languish. In Catalonia, it is totally the reverse of this."

Valencia, on which we now enter, is one of the smallest provinces of Spain, being only sixty-seven leagues in length, and varying in breadth from six to twenty leagues.† Murcia joins it on the south, and,

* See for further details respecting these tenures, Townsend's *Journey*, vol. iii. pp. 328—33.

† Cavanillas, appointed by the Spanish Government, in 1791, to take a survey of the country, computes the whole surface of Valencia at 838 Spanish square leagues, of which 240 are plains or

on the west, it borders on New Castile and Aragon. No sooner does the traveller enter it, than he begins to perceive a change in the climate. "The days" (in November), says Swinburne, "are troublesomely hot, the nights soft and mild, like our fine summer evenings. The numberless creeks and bays, the bold promontories, each with its slender tower, of various shapes and dimensions, the green woody vales, with rocks impending over them, are scenes not outdone by any country." The scarcity of water, however, on part of this coast, is a serious inconvenience. Of the innumerable beds of rivers and torrents between Barcelona and Nules, six only had any water in them when Mr. Swinburne took this road; viz. the Llobregat, the Gaya, the Francolis, the Ebro, the Cenia, and the Mijares; and two of these are dry during the hot weather. The tract between the latter two rivers is, for the most part, a rich, red soil, covered with vineyards; but the vintage is frequently injured by the excessive heats. Provisions are very scarce here, no kind of meat being killed, except kid. In the spring, goats' milk is plentiful; but the peasants in the adjacent mountains subsist, for the greater part of the year, upon the acorns of the evergreen oak roasted; "a food," says Swinburne, "which we found surprisingly savoury and palatable, but not very nourishing." Lucerne, mixed with the bean of the locust-

valleys; the rest mountains, the half of which are uncultivated, but fit for pasture. In 1600, he says, this province contained 100,000 houses. In 1609, 200,000 Moors, the half of the population, were expelled; and after the wars, only 255,080 inhabitants remained. In 1761, the population amounted to 604,612; in 1768, to 716,886; and according to a census taken in 1787, the number was 783,084. Prior to the late French invasions, the population of Valencia was greatly on the increase; but it has not yet been publicly ascertained, how much it has suffered in these calamitous times.

tree, supplies provender for the mules. The proprietors of the vineyards reside up in the mountain villages, and are always distressed for money, notwithstanding the sure and ready sale of their wines. Few vales surpass in beauty the noble and populous plain of Margal, over which lies the road from Benicarlo to Castellon de la Llana. The sea, which hereabouts abounds with sharks, forms a picturesque bay on the one hand, and on the other is an amphitheatre of mountains. The locust-trees and olives are old and branchy, the soil deep, and little canals from the hills irrigate the ground, and render it very fertile. The road alternately skirts the shore, and climbs up wild, rocky hills, covered with rosemary, thyme, lavender, and juniper-trees. Sometimes it runs along the edge of frightful precipices, where a crumbling parapet is all that guards the traveller against being hurled by a false step to the bottom, where the sea dashes against the shore. All this range is composed of limestone.

Castellon de la Llana contains one parish church and six convents, with a population (in 1787) of 10,700 souls. "The chapel of *La Sangre*," says Mr. Townsend, "is light, elegant, and well proportioned, fitted up entirely by a young artist, who is indebted to himself alone for the refinement of his taste, because he had no instructor, nor one good model in the place by which he might improve. Few villages can boast a richer collection of pictures. The major part are by Francisco Ribalta, a native of Castellon. In the chapel of *La Sangre* are frescoed some good pictures of Bergara; and the Capuchins are much indebted to Zurbaran for some of his best works. At the altar of the great church is the Assumption of the Virgin by Carlo Maratti." The only observation which Mr. Swinburne makes at this place, is on the

remarkable ugliness of the women. Mr. Townsend made inquiries here respecting the aqueduct of Almasora, by which this extensive plain receives water from the Mijares. He was informed, that he had crossed it, without being aware of the circumstance, soon after passing the new bridge over that river; but, for almost the whole distance from S. Quiteria to Almasora, it is a tunnel cut through the limestone rock. This "stupendous" work has been ascribed both to the Romans and the Moors; but, says our Traveller, "I am well informed, that *Jayme el Conquistador* is alone entitled to the praise. It was executed in the year 1240. In comparison with this, how contemptible is the *montagne percée* in Languedoc, for which Louis XIV. received the most fulsome adulation!"

Villa Real, the next town, situated in the midst of an extensive plain watered by the Mijares, was originally only a country-house of Jayme I. King of Aragon; it now gives the title of marquess to a noble family. It was destroyed, with all its inhabitants, in the Succession war, but has since been rebuilt, and has now a population of 5,500 souls. The next place in the route is Nules, a walled town, with towers *alla morisca*, and four gates; containing, together with its two handsome suburbs, between 3 and 4,000 inhabitants. It is a day's journey from Tortosa. Mr. Townsend observed here a number of caves, said to be five hundred in number, from eight to twelve feet in diameter, and from twelve to twenty feet deep, sunk in the limestone rock. They were designed for granaries, which purpose they still serve. The marquesate of Nules was at this time in abeyance, the title being disputed by seventeen claimants. The road from this place crosses the extensive and fertile plain of Alme-

nara, described by Swinburne "as a kind of land bay, surrounded by lofty mountains, and adorned with six pretty towns, rising out of the bosom of a forest of dark and light greens, of every variety of tint. The long range of turrets upon the hill of Murviedro (once the too faithful Saguntum*), juts out, towards the sea, from the chain of mountains that runs parallel with the coast, and divides the vale of Almenara from that of Valencia." Almenara is a walled town, with suburbs and a ruined castle. The other towns are mere villages. At Villa Vieja, the first of these after leaving Nules, there are mineral springs. On this plain, Philip V. was defeated in person in a sanguinary action, by the Austrian general, Stahremberg, on the 27th of July, 1709.

MURVIEDRO.

MURVIEDRO (a name derived from *muri veteres*, or *muros viejos*) is on every account one of the most interesting spots in the Peninsula. The town itself is gloomy, surrounded with lofty walls, the streets crooked and steep, and the houses have a wretched appearance; but the suburbs are airy and pleasant. The population is about 5,000. Mr. Swinburne gives the following description of this celebrated site:—

* Saguntum, according to Livy, had acquired immense riches, as well by commerce as by agriculture, by just laws, and a good police; but the treasures fell not into the hands of the ruthless conqueror. The inhabitants made a resistance of eight months, and not receiving the succours they expected from their allies, fed upon the flesh of their children, and afterwards turned their rage upon themselves. They erected an immense pile of wood, and, after setting fire to it, precipitated their women, their slaves, their treasures, and finally themselves into the flames; so that Hannibal, instead of a lucrative conquest, found only a heap of ashes. This wanton and unprovoked aggression is well known to have occasioned the second Punic war. Saguntum was rebuilt by the Romans.

“ The present town is very considerable, and seems to stand upon the same ground as the ancient Roman city ; but, in all probability, the Saguntum which was destroyed by Hannibal, was built upon the summit of the hill. That the Romans also had a fortress on the top, is clear, from the large stones and regular masonry, upon which the Saracens afterwards erected their castle.* Half-way up the rock are the ruins of the theatre, in sufficient preservation to give a tolerable idea of its size and distribution. It is an exact semicircle, about eighty-two yards in diameter from outside to outside : the length of the orchestra, or inner diameter, is twenty-four. The seats for the audience, the staircases and passages of communication, the *vomitoria*, and the arched porticoes, are still easily traced. The back part rests against the hill, and some of the galleries are cut out of the rock. Two walls going off at an angle, serve to turn off the rainwater that washes down from the cliff behind. As the spectators faced the north and east, and were sheltered from the west and south, nothing could be more agreeable in this climate, than such a

* Mr. Bourgoing, describing the spot, says: “ The castles which command the town, may be seen at the distance of two leagues. You would take them at first for the remains of the ramparts which the intrepid Saguntines defended with such obstinacy against the Carthaginian hero ; but you afterwards learn that they were erected by the Moors. On the heights upon which those castles are situated, they built seven fortresses, communicating with each other by subterraneous passages, some of which are still almost entire. It appears, that Saguntum reached no higher than half-way up these hills, and stood chiefly in the plain towards the sea, extending considerably beyond the present site of Murrivedro ; since Livy informs us, that it was only a thousand paces from it, and Murrivedro is a long league from the Mediterranean. In confirmation of this opinion, it is remarked, that no relics of the Carthaginians and Romans have been found nearer to the Moorish fortresses, than the foot of the hill upon which they stand.”

place of entertainment, open to every pleasant and salubrious breeze, and defended from all winds that might bring them heat or noxious vapours. It is computed, that 9,000 persons might be present without inconvenience at the exhibitions in this theatre.* The silence that reigns in this august ruin, which anciently resounded with the applauses of proconsuls and Roman citizens, is now broken only by the *seguidillas* of a few rope-makers, who have patched up a straw shed against the stage, and spin out their work across the *proscenium*, regardless of the surrounding scenery.

“From the theatre, we climbed up to the summit of the mountain, which is about a mile in length, and not a tenth as wide; quite a narrow ridge, covered with ruins and Moorish bulwarks. A few uninteresting inscriptions, two mutilated statues, the vestiges of the floor of a temple, and some Roman arches over a large cistern, are all the antiquities we found. The fortifications divide the hill into several courts, with double and triple walls, erected upon huge masses of rock, laid in regular courses by the Romans.† What

* “Many persons,” says Bourgoing, “may find it difficult to conceive how the actors were able to make themselves heard in the open air by so numerous an audience. I ascertained, in 1783, that this was possible, by going to the top of the amphitheatre, while certain sentences were repeated by a lad stationed on the spot formerly occupied by the stage.”

† The characteristics of the Moorish military architecture are:—a wall built by means of square forms of wood, into which a mortar composed of pebbles, mixed with strong cement, is run, and left a certain time to harden,—then the boards are taken away, but the marks remain, and give the wall an appearance of masonry;—battlements, perpendicularly placed on the wall, not projecting over, nor with borders round, as in the Norman and Gothic castles, where the hollows behind the battlements served to throw stones and combustibles through, as the enemy approached to scale them;

was wanting in interesting antiquities in the castle, was amply made up by the prospect, of the beauties of which no pen can convey an adequate idea. The vale of Almenara on the north, is so delightful, that from any other station it would have engrossed all our attention; but we soon neglected its beauties, and gliding rapidly over the immense volume of sea stretched out before us to the eastward, where the sunbeams played in full force, we fixed our eyes on the almost boundless plain of Valencia that lay to the south. It is four leagues in breadth from the sea to the hills in the widest part, and in length, five times that extent, losing itself in a ridge of distant mountains. The yellow-green of the mulberry plantations, and the paler hue of the olive-trees, regularly planted in fields of bright green corn; that regularity now and then broken by large plots of dark-coloured locust-trees, villages, and convents, thickly scattered over this great expanse, with numberless gay, slender steeples; the city of Valencia about twelve miles off, with all its spires; these objects united, form the most inimitable landscape it is possible to conceive. From hence to Valencia is one perfect garden, so thickly planted with trees, that there is no seeing at any distance on either side. Villages and monasteries occur every hundred yards; and such crowds of people on the road, as I scarcely ever saw, but in the neighbourhood of London. All the grounds are divided

a gateway, turned in an arch, neither pointed, like what we call Gothic, nor semicircular like the Grecian, but one, the posts of which resting upon the impost, come much further in towards each other, and form the figure of a horse-shoe. Sometimes, but very seldom, the Moors employed stones of a large size and more regular cut; and some few of their arches may be found, that are sharp like the Gothic; but they are probably of the latter times of the Moorish empire in Spain."

into small compartments by water-channels, the work of the Moors, who understood the art of watering land in the utmost perfection. The ruinous state these drains are now in, proves the indolence and inferiority of the present proprietors."

Stones, with Phœnician or Latin inscriptions, we are told by M. Bourgoing, are still found scattered through Murviedro. If any of the former are to be found, and are still legible, they will peculiarly deserve the attention of the antiquary. But the latter, it is added, are the most numerous. "Some of them are introduced into walls; and five, in excellent preservation, may be seen in those of a church. A few are to be met with on the side of the hill, and even still higher; but they were probably carried thither by the Moors, together with other stones for the purpose of building. Thus, in one of the walls of their ancient fortresses, we find an antique statue of white marble without a head, and some stones with inscriptions, but in an inverted position. The monuments whose ruins are still to be seen at Murviedro, were founded at the period when the Romans, after the valiant defence of the Saguntines and the destruction of their city, rebuilt the place, and made it one of their *municipia*. It became one of the most flourishing towns they possessed out of Italy. Among other edifices, it contained a temple of Bacchus, some relics of which are to be seen to the left, near the entrance of Murviedro. Its mosaic pavement, which negligence had nearly suffered to be lost, has been taken up, and deposited in the archiepiscopal library.

"You may still discover the foundation of the ancient circus of Saguntum, upon which now stand the walls that serve to enclose a long succession of orchards. This circus, as it is easy to perceive, extended to a

small river, the bed of which only remains, and which was the chord of the segment formed by the circus. When the Saguntines exhibited the mock sea-fights, called *naumachia*, this bed was undoubtedly filled by the tributes of the neighbouring canals, which still exist. But, of all that remains at Saguntum, nothing is in such good preservation as the theatre. You perceive very distinctly the different rows of seats occupied by the citizens according to their rank. At the bottom, in the place allotted in our theatres to the orchestra, were the seats of the magistrates; next, those for the equestrian order; and then, those for the body of the people. You may still see the two doorways by which the magistrates entered; two others, exclusively reserved for the knights; and almost at the top of the amphitheatre, which continues without interruption from the bottom upwards, you observe the two passages by which the multitude withdrew, and which the ancients, on that account, denominated *vomitoria*. Lastly, you find still entire, the higher seats, which were appropriated to the lictors and the courtezans. The semicircular crest of the whole edifice is also in perfect preservation. You may even perceive on the outside, the projecting stones, in which were inserted the bars that served to spread the horizontal covering of cloth, which sheltered the spectators from the sun and rain; for the ancients, in their public exhibitions, foresaw and provided for every contingency. Every person had a seat, and was screened from the weather. All possible precautions were taken to prevent disorder. A place which may still be seen, was set apart for the judges. If any spectator drew upon himself their animadversion, they directed the lictors to seize and convey him to a particular chamber, to which they had access by a private

staircase. Here they interrogated him ; and if they found him culpable, he was confined till the conclusion of the exhibition in a prison under the chamber in which he was examined."

It was in digging to make a road from Valencia to Murviedro, in 1755, that the mosaic pavement was discovered at the entrance of this town, measuring 24 feet by 14, entire, and of great beauty. " Ferdinand VI. ordered it to be enclosed with walls, but the king's intentions were not properly fulfilled ; the gates were suffered to remain open, and every one carried away some part of the pavement, which consequently soon became despoiled. Some fragments of it still exist in several houses of Murviedro. A priest of that town took a drawing of it, which he had afterwards painted on tiles, and paved an apartment of his house with them. It was likewise copied with the greatest exactness, with small stones perfectly similar, in an apartment of the library of the archiepiscopal palace at Valencia. In 1787, an effort was made by the corregidor of Murviedro, to " restore animation to this skeleton of a Roman theatre," which had been partially repaired and cleared of the rope-makers, by the representation of a Spanish comedy within its walls. In 1796, the then Captain-general of Valencia carried these repairs still further ; and Don Francisco Bamahonda, a Valencian poet, composed a tragedy, the subject of which was the siege of Saguntum, for the express purpose of being performed on this proud spot. The plan, however, does not appear to have been carried into execution."*

* M. Bourgoing remarks, that it was " Townsend, an English traveller, who chiefly contributed to excite the transient attention bestowed on this monument of antiquity." This is a mistake. Mr. Townsend despatches them in a few sentences, with the brief

At a league and a half from Murviedro, is "a long range of inns," called *Mesones de Puzol*. The town of that name is on the left of the road; it contains about 1,500 inhabitants. The plain of Valencia, on which the road has now entered, is celebrated for the victory gained here in 1237, over the Moorish king Zaen, by Jayme el Conquistador, which led to the conquest of Valencia. It is so thickly covered now with olive-trees and vines, that the traveller, after passing through several villages, reaches the suburbs of the city before he is aware of being near it. The approach from Mesanasa on the road to Murcia, is by a magnificent avenue of alders and poplars, a league in length, extending to the very gates. The scenery is described to be that of a terrestrial paradise. All is life and

remark, that they had been "often and well described by others." Mr. Swinburne, who travelled ten years before Mr. Townsend, has furnished the description above cited. M. Peyron has given several inscriptions, copied from stones inserted in the walls of the modern buildings, in which occur the names of Emilius, Fabius, Acilius, the Calphurnian family, and several other illustrious persons of ancient Rome. Two are in an unknown character, supposed to be Celtiberian or Carthaginian. They appear to belong either to an early Greek alphabet, or to the parent of the Greek. The letters Δ.Η.Ι.Α.Ν.Υ.Χ.Ψ. though rude, are, in Bourgoing's work, clearly defined. Three pieces of a battering ram are preserved in Murviedro. "I saw one in the castle," says this Traveller, "which I should have suspected to be the axle-tree of some enormous carriage, made to carry the materials employed in that vast edifice. . . . The city of Murviedro is full of the remains of its antiquity: the walls of the houses, the city gates, and the doors of the churches and inns are covered with Roman inscriptions. The poet Argensola truly says:

Con marmoles de nobles inscripciones,
Theatro un tiempo y aras en Saguntho,
Fabrican hoy tabernas y mesones.

The place upon which the convent of the Trinitarians now stands, was formerly the site of a temple dedicated to Diana. A part of the materials served to build the church, and the rest were sold to build *San Miguel de los Reyes*, near Valencia."

animation. The country is studded with villages; the roads swarm with passengers; the fields are covered with labourers; and the trees look as green and vernal in December as they do elsewhere in May.

VALENCIA.

MORE has been written upon Valencia, than upon any other city in Spain. Its ancient name is unknown, but it bore its present appellation under the Romans. Though eclipsed by its more illustrious neighbour, Saguntum, it was even then a considerable town. It is said to have been taken and fortified by Scipio, destroyed by Pompey, and rebuilt by Sertorius. It was taken from the Romans by the Goths, and from the latter, in 715, by the Moors. In 1094, it was recovered from them by the famous Cid Ruy Diaz de Bivar, the Prince Arthur of Spanish romance; and for four years, the city bore the name of Valencia of the Cid. The Moors, however, retook it; but it was finally conquered from them in 1238, by King Jayme, and subsequently enlarged and embellished by Pedro IV., King of Aragon. It is said to have been peopled by King Jayme with Catalonians from Tortosa, Tarragona, Gerona, and Lerida, together with a number of settlers from the southern provinces of France, to which circumstance has been ascribed the lively and volatile cast of character by which the Valencians are distinguished.

The city stands in the midst of an extensive plain, upon the right bank of the Guadalaviar or Turia, which washes its walls, separating it from part of the suburbs, and half a league from the sea. It is, according to M. Peyron, about half a league in circumference. The walls, he adds, are built for ornament,

rather than for defence. No city, perhaps, has been the subject of so very various representations. Mariana, the historian, has given a description of it, much more poetical than accurate, and others have even exaggerated his panegyric. The following is Swinburne's laconic but accurate description.

" This city is large, and almost circular. Its lofty walls have towers remaining in one quarter: the rest have been demolished. A fine broad road goes quite round it. The two suburbs are considerable.* Several large, clumsy bridges cross the bed where the river should run; but either from drought, or from the many bleedings it undergoes above, for the purpose of watering the fields, there is scarcely water enough in the Guadalaviar to wash a handkerchief. But, in rainy seasons, the floods are tremendous. The captain-general resides in the suburbs, in an uncouth Gothic palace at the entrance of the *Alameda*, a long double avenue of poplars, cypresses, and palms, where, on festivals, the nobility take the air in their carriages. About a mile below is the *Grao*, or port of Valencia, which, properly speaking, is only an open road, the mole having been swept away by some violent storm. The dusty highway from the city hither, is the fashionable drive; and for the accommodation of such as have no carriages of their own, several single-horse chairs wait at all hours at the gates. This vehicle is very uneasy, and open to all weathers, but the horses are excellent, and run along like lightning. The driver sits sideways at your feet, and all the way keeps chattering to the horse, and patting him.

* There are now five suburbs, which altogether contain a larger population than the town itself; viz. *Quarte*, *San Vicente*, *La Trinidad*, *Murriedro*, and that of the sea gate, or *Del Remedio*.—*LA BORDX.*

“ The streets of Valencia are crooked and narrow ; not being paved, they are full of dust in dry weather, and in wet, knee-deep in mud. The reason alleged for this scandalous neglect is, that by these means a greater quantity of manure is produced, which, in a plain so full of gardens, is of inestimable value. Various and overpowering are the stinks that rise up in every corner, in which respect, as well as in many others, this country resembles Lombardy. The houses are filthy, ill-built, and ruinous ; and most of the churches are tawdry, and loaded with barbarous ornaments both without and within. The most agreeable architecture I met with, is in the church of the *Escuelas Pias*, and of *Nuestra Señora de los Desamparados*, both rotundas. In the multitude of sacred edifices, some may be found that excel in particular parts ; one may please the eye by the just proportions of its dimensions ; another strike by the richness of its marbles and paintings ; but, in all, the judicious observer will be disgusted with loads of garlands, pyramids, broken pediments, and monstrous cornices, — a taste too Gothic and trifling for any thing but the front of a mountebank’s booth, or a puppet-show in a fair. Some churches have domes, but the greater part have tall, slender turrets, painted and bedecked with all sorts of pilasters and whimsical devices. Every thing is gilt and bedaubed with incredible profusion. The Spaniards understand the gilder’s business perfectly ; and the purity of their gold, with the dryness of their climate, preserves their work for years in its primitive lustre. The convent of the Franciscan friars has something very grand and pleasing in its double court, which is divided by a light wing upon an open portico, with fountains playing in each division.

“ The cathedral is a large Gothic pile. Its archbishopric is one of the best in Spain, said to bring in about 40,000*l.* sterling a year, paid in cash into the hands of two receivers. The revenues of Toledo are much greater, but also more troublesome to collect, and more precarious, as being paid in kind, and requiring a great number of bailiffs and servants.

“ Priests, nuns, and friars of every dress and denomination, swarm in this city, where some convents have more than a hundred monks, all richly provided for.

“ Among the other public buildings, many of which are prettily set off with painted architecture, after the Italian manner, the palaces of *Dosaguas* and *Jura Real* deserve the most notice ; the former for its statues and fresco paintings, the latter for the elegant simplicity of its front. The *lonja*, or exchange, is a very noble hall, built about the latter end of the fifteenth century, with all the beauty and richness of which that style is susceptible. The custom-house, where the intendant and other officers of the revenue are lodged, is a new large edifice in a great square, a very clumsy mass of brick and stone.

“ The number of inhabitants is computed at 100,000 ; but, to speak more exactly, according to the last authentic enumeration, made in 1768, which allows four persons to each *vecino* (housekeeper), at 20,000 *vecinos*, or fathers of families, which makes the number to be 80,000 inhabitants.” *

Next follows Mr. Townsend, whose account is somewhat more favourable. “ The streets,” he says, “ are narrow, crooked, and not paved, yet, they are clean, and therefore healthy. In a city like Valencia, we

* Laborde adopts the same official data ; but supposes that the suburbs, though included in the account, should furnish the difference. In the above estimate, however, the clergy are not included.

naturally expect to see many convents : there are no fewer than forty-four, nearly divided between the monks and the nuns. Besides these, we find ten churches belonging to congregations, colleges, and hospitals.....Of the public buildings, the cathedral is without comparison the most worthy of attention : it is of Grecian architecture, light, elegant, and highly finished, more especially in the dome and in six of the larger chapels. Altogether, I never saw a more pleasing structure.....There are in all fifty-four altars, at most of which incense is daily offered. The great altar, 30 feet high by 18 wide, is of silver ; and the image of the Virgin, six feet high, is of the same material : the workmanship of both is admirable. On the altar, in eight several compartments, are represented, in bold relief, as many sacred subjects, executed by the best masters who lived at the close of the fifteenth century. These are protected by folding-doors, of greater value for their paintings, than the altar itself for the silver which it contains. The subjects are twelve, six on the outside, and as many on the inside, the production of Francis Neapoli and Paul Aregio. In the sacristy, I saw a massive sepulchre of silver gilt, designed for the reception of the host on Good Friday ; a magnificent throne and canopy of silver, for Easter Sunday ; and, of the same metal, two *custodias*, one with Corinthian columns and images of the two patron saints, the other twelve feet high, with a gold border, innumerable gems, and a little image of St. Michael the archangel, composed entirely of brilliants. This was added to the treasures of the church in the year 1452. All the best pictures are disposed in the sacristy and chapter-house. Those by the Canon Victoria and by Vergara, are excellent ; but the most beautiful,—indeed, little inferior to

Raphael's,—are many by Juanes, more especially his Holy Family, in the chapter-house, and his *Ecce Homo*, in a chapel of that name. Among the relics, those held in the highest estimation are, many thorns of the Redeemer's crown ; the curious cup from which he drank at his last supper ; and a wretched picture of the Virgin, painted by St. Luke !

“ In the convents I found some good pictures, more especially in those belonging to the two Carmelites, the Capuchins, the Dominicans, the Franciscans, the Augustines, the convent allotted to the Nuns of Jerusalem, and the congregation of San Felipe Neri. In these, the artists whose works claim the highest admiration are, Jacinto de Espinosa, Juan Bautista Juanes, Francisco Ribalta, Don Joseph Ramirez, Vicente Victoria, who was a disciple of Carlo Maratti, with many others, all natives of Valencia. In the church of San Juan de Mercado, the roof is painted in fresco by Palomino, who was likewise of Valencia. The famous Supper of Ribalta is in the college of Corpus Christi. This seminary is worthy of attention, not merely for the pictures, which are beautiful, but for the library, which is well chosen, considering the age in which the Patriarch of Antioch lived. He finished his college in the year 1604, and all the books were collected by himself. Among the relics in the sacristy, I noticed a piece of sculpture so minute, that, in the size of an octavo volume, it contained more than a hundred figures, carved with the greatest elegance and truth. In this college, twenty-three masses are repeated daily for the dead ; and for each, the officiating priest receives four reals. In Spain, few people of distinction die without making a provision for this purpose ; but, as the religious houses sometimes receive the legacy, and neglect the obligation connected

with it, this proves a source of frequent litigation between the community and the friends of the deceased.

“Of all the parish churches, not one besides San Nicolas appeared worthy of attention. In this, I admired the roof, executed in fresco by Vidal, a disciple of Palomino, and the dome, painted by Victoria. San Tomas of Villanueva, does credit to the pencil of Vergara. Three pictures by Espinosa, and two by Juanes, of which one is the Last Supper, painted by that great master for the altar, must be reckoned among the finest pictures of Valencia.

“The revenue of the religious houses is said to be considerable. The most wealthy society in Valencia is the one last established; for, when the convent of Montesa was destroyed by the earthquake of 1748, the monks removed their habitation and settled here. They had recently fitted up their church with much taste, and at a considerable expense. This they can well afford, since, for the maintenance of four-and-twenty friars, they have a net income, amounting nearly to 14,000*l.* a year.

“The university of Valencia is a respectable community. It was founded at the solicitation of San Vicente Ferrier, A.D. 1411; and soon after its institution, Don Alonso III. of Aragon granted the privilege of nobility to all the students who should graduate in law. It was lately much on the decline; but the present rector has raised the reputation of his seminary, and they now reckon 2,400 students. When I was at Valencia, he was just returned from Madrid, with his new plan of study, approved of by his majesty (22d Dec., 1786). The professors are nearly seventy in number: viz. seven for the languages (including Latin, Greek, Hebrew, and Arabic), four for the

mathematics, six for logic, metaphysics, &c., eleven for medicine and chemistry, nineteen for civil and canon law, and eighteen for theology and ecclesiastical history.* During the month of June, all the students are publicly examined. Their library contains many thousand volumes, mostly modern and well chosen, all collected by D. Francisco Perez Bayer, and presented by him to this university. Besides this library, four galleries in the archbishop's palace are devoted to the same purpose, and contain thirty-two thousand volumes, among which are many modern publications in every branch of literature. The rudiments of this collection, at the expulsion of the Jesuits, about the year 1759, consisted only of their spoils ; but the worthy prelates who have been honoured with the crosier in this city, have swelled the catalogue by the addition of not a few among the many valuable productions which have appeared in Europe since the commencement of the present (eighteenth) century. *Should literature revive in Spain, I am inclined to think it will be at Valencia.* Men of genius are not wanting there ; and whenever they shall take the pen, no press can do more justice to their works than the one established in that city. Whoever has had an opportunity of seeing a valuable work of Francisco Perez Bayer, on the Hebræo-Samaritan coins, printed by Montfort, will agree with me in opinion, that no nation can boast of a superior work.†

* This enumeration makes them only sixty-five. Of these, twenty-four were temporary professors, or assistants, chosen for a time, and changed in rotation ; the others were permanent.

† " Valencia," says M. Peyron, " was, for a long time, the city in which a greater number of books were printed, than in any other in Spain. It had paper-manufactories under the Moors, in the twelfth century, and was the first town in Spain into which the art of printing was introduced. There is a Sallust, and a Latin Voca-

“In traversing the city to view whatever was most worthy of attention, and considering its flourishing condition and the opulence of the citizens, whether merchants, manufacturers, ecclesiastics, the military, or gentlemen of landed property, I was struck with the sight of poverty, of wretchedness, and of rags in every street. The *hospicio*, or general work-house, provides for 220 men, 150 boys, 280 women, and 90 girls, who are all well fed, well clothed, and well lodged; yet, the city swarms with sturdy beggars. I suspected, however, what I found to be the case, that the ecclesiastics distribute money, and that the convents administer bread and broth every day at noon, to all who make application at their gates. This circumstance will sufficiently account for the multitude of miserable objects who, in Valencia, as in all places, bear exact proportion to the undistinguishing benevolence of wealth. When in health, the most lazy can never be in want of bread; and when ill, they have an hospital always open to receive them. Should the indolent and vicious be induced to abandon their offspring, the same hospital will provide for the helpless infant, a cradle and a grave.”*

bulary, under the title of *Comprehensorium*, printed at Valencia in 1475.” There are still some excellent presses here.—LABORDE, vol. i. p. 221. BOURGOING, vol. iv. p. 37.

* Townsend, vol. iii. pp. 237, 252. In the year 1786, of the peasants and common people, 4,840 were received into the general hospital, of whom 639 (nearly a seventh) died; and of the military, 890 were received, of whom only 27 died: a proof of what has been already stated at p. 88, that the lower classes are hurried away to the hospital when near death, to save the expense of burial. The foundlings were 332, of whom 159 died. In a population estimated at 100,000 souls, the marriages, on the average of two years (1782 and 1786), were 681, the births, 2,600, the burials, 2,525. According to this estimate, the foundlings were nearly *one-eighth* of the births; and of the burials, about a fourth were from the hospitals.

With this representation of the state of things given by the English Traveller, M. Bourgoing's account generally agrees, although some further particulars are added upon more recent information. "The capital of Valencia," he says, "though not, strictly speaking, a handsome city, is at least a very agreeable place to reside in, especially of late years, since the establishment of a vigilant police, which is not less attentive to its embellishment than to its security. Though its streets are unpaved, they are kept extremely clean. The soil, which is frequently removed, serves to manure the vast orchards which surround Valencia on every side.* Idleness and indigence are banished from this city, where artisans of every description find work.† In 1783, nearly four thousand silk-looms and frames of different dimensions gave employment to upwards of twenty thousand of the inhabitants, exclusive of those who prepare the wood and iron work of so great a number of machines, and

* Laborde says: "The streets are covered with sand, which is at first very inconvenient, but it makes a smooth road when it has been pressed by the horses and carriages; yet, when it rains, the wet sand stops the water, and the streets are then impassable. From time to time, this sand is taken to manure the land, and is replaced by fresh. This custom, which is very inconvenient, could not be easily suppressed. The Valencians are generally persuaded that this sand is full of salt particles, and that the neighbouring fields owe to it in part their fertility; and this prejudice is so inveterate, that it would probably raise a riot, were it attempted to pave the streets. Most of the streets have cavities under them, which pass under the houses, and serve as sewers: they are large and well built. Tradition, true or false, declares them to be the work of the Romans."

† This representation requires to be qualified by the fact, already adverted to, that mendicity prevails here to a great extent. Laborde says, "it is impossible to go into the streets, particularly in the night, without being assailed by a crowd of these wretches"—the sturdy beggars.

such as are engaged in spinning, winding, and dyeing the silk. This prosperity has progressively increased since 1783; and I am assured, that of late years, Valencia has contained eight thousand looms and frames of every description.*

“ The silk-manufactures are not the only source of employment possessed by the Valencians. They supply the royal arsenals with a considerable quantity of hemp. They have manufactures of woollen cloths and camlets in their capital, and fifty paper-mills scattered throughout their country. Their wines and brandies are exported in great quantities, not only to England, Jersey, Holland, and the North, by way of Dunkirk, where most of the brandy denominated

* During the Peninsular war, the Government had recourse, on two occasions, to that extraordinary levy of men known in Spain under the appellation of *quinta*; but all journeymen employed in any manner in the silk-manufactures were exempted from the ballot. In the city of Valencia, this exemption extended to upwards of 3,000 individuals. It is computed, that the quantity of silk manufactured in Valencia amounts, on the average, to one million of pounds annually. Its exportation is strictly prohibited; but, notwithstanding the vigilance of the administration, part of the silk of Valencia has found its way out of the kingdom under the name of Murcian silk, which is of an inferior quality, and not so strictly forbidden to be exported. The consequence has been, that, in bad years, the workmen of Valencia have been idle for want of materials; and it has even been found necessary to import the article from France. The silk of Valencia may be compared in fineness with the best of Europe; but the spinning is still imperfect. The Granada silk, however, is esteemed the best of all, although the trees in that kingdom are all *morales*, black mulberry-trees; those which cover the plain of Valencia, are of the white kind, *moreras*. The great nurseries of mulberry-plants in this plain are produced from seed, obtained by rubbing a rope of *esparto* over heaps of ripe mulberries, and then burying the rope two inches under ground. As the young plants come up, they are drawn and transplanted. The trees, which are set out in rows, are here pruned every second year; in Murcia, only every third year; in Granada never.—BOURGOING, vol. i. pp. 243, 259.

Valencian was some time since made, but also, for several years past, to Spanish America. The wines and brandies of Valencia even find their way up the Loire to the environs of Orleans, where they are bought up by the French merchants, who mix them with their brandies, to make them of a superior quality.

“Rice is another source of wealth to the inhabitants of Valencia ; but its cultivation detracts from the salubrity of their genial climate. They, however, possess means of protecting themselves from the pernicious influence of the rice-lands. Some people, by taking care not to go abroad till after sunrise, by returning in the evening to apartments well closed against the external air, and abstaining almost entirely from the use of water, have lived in the midst of their rice-fields without sustaining any inconvenience ; but few persons who reside in their neighbourhood, escape the attacks of periodical fevers. Rice is sown at mid-summer, and reaped at the end of September. The crops seldom fail, and the produce is sure to find a ready market. On this account, the cultivators would become too numerous, were it not for the severe laws enacted by Government, to restrict the extent of the rice-grounds. They abound along the coast, and especially to the south of the city of Valencia, from Gandia to Catarrojo. On this tract, the predilection for the culture of rice assumes the character of a mania which nothing can restrain. The Government divides the farms into several quarters, or *cotos*, and marks out those which alone, for a given time, may be sown with rice ; but this restriction is in few instances attended to. In vain the captain-general repairs personally to the spot, to enforce these regulations ; his authority is often compromised, and sometimes even his safety ;

and the law is frequently evaded with impunity. The quantity of rice raised of late years is consequently prodigious. Valencia supplies all Spain, except the south of Andalusia, with rice, which is preferred to the produce of Carolina. The extensive demand for the rice of Valencia has tended considerably to raise its price, which, since 1785, is nearly doubled. There are, it is well known, two ways of cultivating this grain: it is either planted or sown. When planted, it is more productive, but requires more attention, for which reason the latter method is generally preferred. The land is prepared for its reception by ploughing; but the surface is made level without any appearance of furrows, and covered with water to the depth of more than a foot. The culture of rice, at least in the kingdom of Valencia, is attended with this singularity, that the plant is constantly in water, even including the time of reaping it. Rice-grounds are never drained, but for the purpose of weeding. In harvest-time, the reapers, wading up to the knees in water, are followed by low carts, which receive the sheaves of rice; this grain is then separated from the straw, in the same manner as all other kinds are, not only in Valencia, but almost throughout Spain: that is, it is trodden out by horses or mules. After this operation, the rice is still covered with the husk. This is removed by means of mills, perfectly resembling corn-mills, excepting that the stones are covered with cork. The rice is sold both before and after this latter operation.

“Barilla is a production peculiar to the kingdom of Valencia and Murcia. Of this essential article in the manufacture of glass, about 150,000 quintals are annually made and exported to France, England, Genoa, and Venice. Soda (in Spanish, *sosa*) is a species of

barilla, made use of in the soap-manufactories of France and England: of this, about 25,000 quintals a year are made in Valencia. Of *aqua-azul*, a third species of barilla, the quantity annually made amounts to 4,000 quintals, of which the greater part is exported to Marseilles. Lastly, *solicor*, a fourth species, is produced without cultivation, and is used in the glass-houses of France, England, and Italy. Oil is one of the most abundant productions of the kingdom of Valencia; but it is not allowed to be exported, except when the price is low. It is generally thought to have a disagreeable taste and smell. Valencia affords also a kind of clay, of which they make tiles of coloured delf-ware, called *azulejos*, which are manufactured only at Valencia. They are used to pave and cover the walls of apartments; and the most complicated subjects are painted upon them. Of *esparto*, one of the most common productions of the country, the inhabitants make mats and cordage. Considerable quantities are exported to Toulon and Marseilles, where it is much used in the dock-yards and arsenals. The industry of the Valencians even avails itself of a species of aloe, a parasitical plant, which seems to have been designed only for ornament and for enclosures. From its long and very thick leaves, they procure a kind of thread, with which they manufacture bridles and other articles. They likewise export part of the wool of the second quality which their territory produces, together with numerous cargoes of dried fruits, aniseed, and cochineal, the production of the country. Finally, their abundant crops of oranges, lemons, raisins, and figs, and above all, their wines and brandies, furnish them with articles for a prodigious exportation.” *

* Bourgoing, vol. iii. pp. 243—51.

Till of late, Valencia had no other port than the bad roadstead opposite the village of Grao.* Small vessels could seldom approach nearer than within half a league, and three-mast ships were scarcely ever seen there. Their cargoes were unloaded into barges, which were rowed close to the shore, and then drawn by oxen upon the beach. Within the last twenty years, efforts have been made to form a harbour capable of admitting large frigates, by raising the water of the sea by artificial means, similar to those to which the French had recourse in constructing the port of Cherbourg. A duty was laid upon silks towards defraying the expenses of the undertaking; but the success has not, it seems, been answerable to the first expectations. "The tempests of winter destroy what has been done in summer; the winds are continually choking up the entrance with sand-banks; and it is to be feared, that all the money hitherto expended has been absolutely thrown away."

Notwithstanding all this appearance of abundance, industry, and wealth, nothing, we are told, can be more wretched than the state of the Valencian peasantry, who can with difficulty procure food sufficient for the subsistence of their families. All the gains are absorbed by the rich proprietors, lay and clerical, and the mercantile speculators. In this province, "industry is not cramped and oppressed, as in the provinces of the crown of Castile, by royal imposts." In the place of the *rentes provinciales*, is levied a moderate property-tax, called the *equivalente*. But the

* The coast of Valencia is the terror of mariners. It has not a single good harbour. "From the Alfaques at the mouth of the Ebro, to Cartagena, there are no roads but those of Alicante and Santa Pola, where the anchorage is at all safe, or which can afford shelter to vessels in cases of necessity."

Valencians are, on the other hand, subject to very heavy feudal services and seignorial imposts, levied in kind on the produce of the soil, amounting to a seventh, a sixth, and in some places, a *fourth* of the crop.

The general character of the Valencians is represented by all travellers as differing very decidedly from that of the Catalonians and Castilians, by whom they are held in sovereign contempt, and regarded with the rancour of a national antipathy. Mr. Swinburne seems to have left Valencia with altogether unfavourable impressions and something like ill-humour with both the country and the people. "We shall leave Valencia to-morrow," he says, "being heartily tired of our quarters. The climate is mild and pleasant, but there is something faintish and enervating in the air. Every thing we eat is insipid and void of substance. The greens, wine, and meat, seem the artificial forced productions of continual waterings and hot-beds. It puts one in mind of the *Isle Frivole* of the Abbé Coyer, where things were so feeble and unsubstantial, that they were little better than the shadows of what they are in other countries. Here a man may labour for an hour at a piece of mutton, and when he has tired his jaws, find he has been only chewing the idea of a dinner.* The meat, as soon as cut into, yields abundance of gravy, and may be said

* This representation seems borne out in some degree by the Spanish proverb respecting the Valencians:

La carne es yerba, la yerba agua;

Los hombres mugeres, las mugeres nada.

"Their meat is grass, their grass water; the men are women, and the women nothing." Murillo speaks of the Valencians as "light alike in body and mind;" and Gracian, another Spanish writer, says: "The agreeable, very gay, flourishing, and noble city of Valencia is replete with all that is unsubstantial—*llena de todo lo que no es substancia.*"

to bleed a second time to death ; for nothing remains but a mere withered *caput mortuum*. The vegetables, with the finest outward show imaginable, taste of nothing but water. This washy quality seems also to infect the bodies and minds of the Valencians. They are largely built and personable men, but flabby and inanimate.

“ We have seen no women out at work in the fields ; but this may proceed from their constant employment within doors, as much as from any remnants of the Moorish jealousy, though the Valencians still retain much of the features and manners of their old Saracen masters. To this day, the farmers will not allow their wives to sit at table, but make them stand at their elbow, and wait upon them. The inhabitants of this province are said to have more of the filth and sullen, unpolished manners of the old Spaniards, and to have adopted less of foreign improvements in civilisation, than most other parts of Spain. They strut about all day in *redicillas*, or nets, monstrous hats, and dark brown cloaks, which give the crowd in the street the appearance of a funeral procession. Scarcely any society is kept up among them, though the salubrity of the climate, and reasons of economy, induce several very considerable families to make this city the place of their abode. In some strange way or other, they spend very large incomes, without doing themselves the least credit. Their chief expense lies in servants, mules, and equipages. Low amours often consume the best part of their fortunes ; and they live in so pitiful a manner, that most of them send out to the wine-vault for a pint of wine to their meals.” *

* With equal justice might a foreigner speak of the pitiful manner in which many reputable London families live, who send out to the public-house for a pot of porter to their meals.

“It is very true,” says Laborde, who rather endeavours to rescue their character from indiscriminate obloquy, “that the Valencians have a great degree of levity, a fickleness of disposition, and a gayety in their manners; that they are swayed by the love of pleasure; that they are fond of singing, dancing,* banqueting, and all kinds of feasting; that these are perpetually running in their head, at work or at prayers, abroad or at home, in the streets or in company. The very festivals of the church become with them recreations. But, notwithstanding all this, they can be serious when circumstances require it; they are not the less active in commerce, the less industrious in the arts, the less assiduous in agriculture, or the less profound in the sciences. Valencia can adduce scholars, literary men, artists, and able merchants enough to overturn the imputation of frivolity, to which the imposition of appearances only could have given rise. On juster grounds are the nobility of Valencia charged with an excessive pride. They are,

* The Valencians are accounted the best dancers in Spain. Many of them travel into the different provinces, and some even into foreign countries, exhibiting their skill, and collecting money by their singular appearance. They have dances peculiarly their own; two in particular, in the form of a ballet. In the first, they dance among a parcel of eggs ranged along the ground, which, in their nimble and various movements, they seem every moment on the point of crushing. This is safer than the Highland dance of *killum callum*, performed with bare feet across two naked swords laid on the floor. In their other dance, they are armed with short sticks; each strikes that of the other, marking thus all the measures of the music, and rattling them more or less quickly against one another, with wonderful dexterity in all their movements, as they advance, wheel round, or retreat. They all strike at the same moment, and their blows fall in perfect time. We have a poor mimicry of this in England, called the *Morris*, or *Moorish* dance, for such is its origin; only the Moors used their cimeters instead of the cudgels.

by themselves, divided into three classes: blue blood, red blood, and yellow blood.* Blue blood is confined to families who have been made *grandees*, and to some other houses, deemed entitled to it. Red blood comprehends titles of great antiquity, and the old titles of Castile and Aragon. Yellow blood comprehends the modern titles of Castile, and families the date of whose nobility extends no further back than two centuries. This division is the source of envy in the second class against the first, and in the third against the two others; so that no attachment is formed except among the nobles of the same class.

“The tradesman of Valencia loves pleasure and good living; so would the lowest class of people, if they had the means of gratification. These appear gentle; but they are charged with concealing their hatred. They were formerly accused of making frequent use of the dagger, and it has been even said, that there were a great number of professed assassins for hire in Valencia. One shudders in passing through the streets, particularly those near the *Mercado* Square, at the sight of crosses on the walls, with inscriptions containing the names of persons assassinated near the spot. We must, however, do justice to the modern Valencians. They are more civilised. There are no assassins for hire among them; the dagger is no longer used; and murders are much less frequent, though they are still heard of now and then.”†

“The Valencians are among the most superstitious

* This distinction is not peculiar to the Valencian nobility, but exists in other provinces.

† The diminution of the number of assassinations must partly be ascribed, however, to the establishment of the *serenos*, or night-watch, in 1777. They are so called, because, in proclaiming with the hour the state of the weather, they have generally to announce it to be *sereno*, or fine.

people in Spain. They mix religious works with profane customs, and think, by exterior observances which having nothing to do with the worship of the Deity, to obtain pardon for their sins. They have particularly great confidence in the saints, to whom they attribute the power of protecting from accidents and diseases. S. Roque protects against the plague, S. Antonio against fire, Sta. Barbara against lightning, Sta. Catalina cures the loss of blood, Sta. Apollonia the toothach, Sta. Augusta the dropsy, S. Raymundo has the care of married women, S. Lazaro presides over births, and S. Nicolas has the charge of marriageable girls. Every waggoner carries about him the image of a saint, to whom he expresses his gratitude if his journey be fortunate; but, should any mishap overtake him on the road, wo be to his protector! He tramples him under foot, loads him with abuse, and sends him, *al Demonio Santa Barbara! a los Diabolos San Francisco! al inferno Nuestra Señora del Carmen!** There are several other superstitions, but we shall only mention that called the *mal de ojos*, or evil eye. The Valencian women secure

* “ When disappointed by his tutelary saints, an Italian or Sicilian will sometimes proceed so far as to heap reproaches, curses, and even blows on the wax, wood, or stone which represents them. The same turbulent gusts of passion displayed themselves in the same way among the Romans, who scrupled not to accuse their gods of injustice, and to express their indignation against their faithless protectors by the most unequivocal signs.

‘ Injustos rabidis pulsare querelis,

Coëlicolas solamen erat.’

Stat. Sylv. v. 22.

‘ To him who smarts beneath the heavenly rod,
Some comfort is it, to reproach the god!’

“ Upon the death of Germanicus, stones were cast by the populace at the temples in Rome, the altars were overturned, and in some instances, the lares were thrown into the streets. (Sueton.

themselves from it by little ivory hands, moles' feet, or scarlet tufts, and likewise tie them about their children's necks."*

Laborde describes the Valencian women as mild and amiable, though somewhat impetuous, frivolous, and very mutable. They are, he says, always in motion. They walk about the streets, go from shop to shop, without any purpose of buying, and frequent churches as a pastime. Their favourite rendezvous is the square of Santa Catalina, where they are fond of exhibiting themselves to their male admirers; so that, were any one to remain there the whole of a day, he would see in that time at least three-fourths of the women of Valencia pass and repass before him. Their numerous festivals, and the many occasions presented for devotional exercises, afford a perpetual excuse for these trips abroad.

The description given by the same Traveller of the expensive religious processions, is adapted to excite as much disgust at these popular profanations of religion, as pity, not to say contempt, for their frivolous admirers. In most other parts of Spain, these barbarous, Gothic, and revolting exhibitions have been either suppressed, or at any rate greatly modified; but here, by this giddy, childish, and effeminate race, they are kept up with all their ancient incongruities, and cherished as much as ever; and were an enlightened ecclesiastical dignitary to attempt putting them down, he would raise a riot, and be stigmatised by the mul-

Calig. 5.) And Augustus thought proper to take his revenge upon Neptune for the loss of one of his fleets, by not allowing his image to be carried in procession to the Circensian games which followed!"—BLUNT'S *Vestiges of Ancient Customs in Italy*, &c. p. 125. Many other of the superstitions of the Valencians may in like manner be referred to a heathen origin.

* Laborde, vol. i. pp. 228—231.



titude as an infidel. As a sample of these sacrilegious absurdities, which are no where exceeded in extravagance, and are only approximated by those in Sicily, the following details, given by the French Traveller, may not be uninteresting.

Every procession in Valencia is preceded by eight prodigious statues of giants, made of wicker-work, with pasteboard heads, dressed out in the newest fashion, and carried by men, who, concealed beneath the drapery, make them dance, twist about, and make bows to the deluded populace. Four of them are female figures, representing the four quarters of the globe; the other four are their husbands. Two benefices have actually been founded in their honour; and the ecclesiastics possessing them, must attend to their preservation, and furnish their toilets out of a particular fund assigned for that purpose.*

The procession on the Thursday in Passion week, is opened by these giant puppets, two trumpets announcing its advance with a monotonous and discordant sound. They are followed by twenty-three persons bearing as many little flags, on which are painted the instruments of our Saviour's Passion. A double row of men in their usual dress, bearing large white lighted tapers in their hands, make up the body of this procession. Between them are seen boys walking, dressed in long violet robes, girded with cords, having wigs on their heads and crowns of thorns, and bearing crosses on their shoulders. Here and there appear penitents clad in red, with flags of the same colour, some of them carrying stages, on which are represented with figures the several circum-

* In Flanders, before the French Revolution, the same ridiculous display of giants, called in the vernacular dialect of that country *Les Gayans*, was exhibited.

stances of the Passion. On one of these of a prodigious length, is exhibited the Lord's Supper. That of the *Ecce Homo* is preceded by two men in armour, with their pikes reversed. A third supports three bad statues, as large as life, one of which is that of the Virgin Mary, wearing a scapulary of the Trinitarian order!!! Some monks of this order follow, having a huge crucifix carried before them. A fourth stage, upholding the Holy Trinity, terminates the procession. In this groupe, the Eternal Father is seen dressed in an albe, stole, and cope, like a prelate about to perform Divine service!

There are no fewer than five processions on Good Friday, a description of which would be but a repetition of the same revolting absurdities. That of Corpus Christi deserves, however, more particular notice, as being preceded and accompanied by ceremonies both singular and original. On the eve of that festival, masks are seen running up and down the streets, accompanied with tambarines, trumpets, and Valencian hautboys, called *dulzaynas*, announcing the solemnity of the coming day. At the same time is acted in the streets the massacre of the Innocents. The flight also into Egypt is mimicked thus: a fellow dressed in woman's clothes, to represent the Virgin Mary, holding an infant in his arms, and mounted on an ass, is led through the streets by one dressed out as St. Joseph. They are escaping from Herod's murdering satellites, who soon after appear in a fanciful Jewish costume, armed with knives, sabres, and cutlasses, in pursuit of the fugitives. They stop and affect to menace all they meet, placing their weapons against the throats and bosoms of male and even female passengers. On the festival day, the procession is ushered in with six large carts, each drawn by as many

mules, and surmounted with a wooden stage, called *rocas*, the trappings of which conceal the body of the vehicle from view. On the first of these stages is represented the story of the creation,—Adam being made out of the earth, Eve springing from his side, the serpent tempting her, she seducing her husband, both eating the apple, the Creator passing sentence on them, and the angel, in fine, with the flaming sword, driving them out of paradise. All this is represented by living persons, dressed out in the oddest manner, each appearing only in his turn to act his part, the performers gravely reciting Italian verses expressive of their meaning in the characters they assume. The other stages that follow, are crowded with men and women fantastically dressed, who perform several dances, to the sound of various musical instruments, particularly the *dulzaynas*. Next appears, attended with music, a pedestrian dancing groupe, standard-bearers, children dressed as shepherds, sailors with their *tambours de basque*, men dressed in white, capering and keeping time with their castanets, Moorish kings bearing banners, men of less swarthy complexion pitching and balancing their staves, giants, giantesses, and their pages. Wherever the procession halts, four children in a dress like nothing ever witnessed elsewhere, foot it nimbly on a large table placed before the host, accompanying their steps with the harsh cracking cadence of the castanet.

The procession of St. Joseph, on the carpenter's day, the 18th of March, is not less exquisite in its kind; but that on the festival of the city's patron saint, *Vicente Ferrier*, the second Monday after Easter day, exceeds, if possible, all the rest in the expensive display of all that is most extravagant and absurd. There are no fewer than a hundred and

fifty such exhibitions in the course of one twelve-month, many of which are protracted to very late hours, affording opportunities for assignations, thefts, and immoral practices of every kind. The French invaders, in requital for all the evils they caused to Spain, rendered so far a service to the country, by turning into ridicule, and suppressing wherever they had the command, the religious mania of her monk-ridden populace. The Constitutionalists were also attempting gradually to abolish them; but the *absolute king* and the present hierocratic government find it to be for their interest to busy the public mind with fantastic shows and childish exhibitions, that may divert the attention of the populace from the crimes of their rulers and the national grievances.

Upon the whole, the Valencians would appear to be an airy, lively, active, but effeminate people, very different in manners from the Castilians; while their character forms, apparently, a still stronger contrast to the savage heroism of the Catalonians and Aragonese, their immediate neighbours. Their dialect, though much akin to the Catalanian, is said to differ from it in retaining more of the Provençal. Here, as in all other parts of Spain, notwithstanding their supposed affinity to the southern French, there prevails a rooted antipathy against that nation.

Valencia, in spite of its opulence and the affability of its inhabitants, is far from being an amusing town,—at least to a Frenchman. Here are no coffee-houses, and few dinner-parties are given among the higher orders; though, in second-rate society, agreeable parties are sometimes made up to go and dine at Grao and other adjacent places. The luxury which appears in their dress and equipages, does not extend to the interior of the houses. The

walls are bare, the floors matted, the chairs straw-bottomed, and their large lustres, which constitute the principal decoration of their rooms, are of white glass. Tapestry and carpets are very rare; and we see no elegantly decorated mantel-pieces, no girandoles, clocks, mirrors, or china ornaments. But, in fact, in this fine climate, the inhabitants find their chief pleasures out of doors, and are naturally less solicitous about the embellishment of their houses. Swinburne, though impatient to quit Valencia, praises its rich gardens and brilliant sky; adding, that it would be "an admirable last retreat for our consumptive countrymen, were the approach by sea or land less difficult." The environs, in the fine season, are truly delightful. M. Bourgoing dwells more especially on the enchanting beauty of the village of Benimamet, half a league from the city. "Here," he says, "and in a hundred other places in the kingdom of Valencia, we are convinced of the truth of the observation of a native of Sweden, Count de Creutz," (minister from that country to the court of Madrid in 1764,) "when he said: 'In that highly favoured region, we forget every thing, even our native country, business, and all. A person is no longer a husband, a father, or a friend: he is a being cut off from the rest of his fellow-creatures, feasting on the beauties of nature, and drinking deeply of the happiness of existence.'" This is said to be, indeed, too much the case with the natives, who are charged with a heartless voluptuousness. There is, however, no doubt, a little poetical exaggeration in the Swede's description both of the felicities and the dangers of the climate.

There is a fine view of the surrounding country from the top of a tower contiguous to the cathedral, called the Miquelet. The city seems to stand in the

midst of a prodigious orchard, over which are scattered numberless villages and hamlets. To the east, the plain is open to the sea, but, in every other direction, is bounded by distant mountains. The Guadalaviar is seen slowly rolling the scanty remnant of its waters into the Mediterranean; and at some miles distance from the city is the lake of Albufera, about four leagues in length and two in breadth, but very shallow, which also discharges itself into the sea by means of a narrow channel closed with sluices. It supplies the Valencians with fish and water-fowl; and on its edge are salt-pans. Once or twice in the season (November), all the sportsmen, having purchased permission of the person who rents the lake of the crown, assemble upon it in boats, and make prodigious havoc among the flocks of birds who almost cover the surface. Flamingoes are sometimes met with.

FROM VALENCIA TO THE MURCIAN FRONTIER.

IN pursuing Mr. Swinburne's route southward to the kingdom of Murcia, we take the road to Alicant, which for the first thirteen leagues is the same as the Madrid road. The first large town is Alcira (corrupted from Algesira), built on an island formed by the Xucar, a deep, muddy river, which fertilizes the plain by means of numerous canals. The population is stated at 10,000. Soon after crossing this river, the traveller enters on the rice-grounds, which extend to the entrance of a more mountainous country. At three leagues and a half from Alcira, is Xativa (*Setabis*), an ancient Roman station. Here stood a strong fortress, which was destroyed, together with the town, by Philip V., who ordered it to be rebuilt under the name of San Felipe. The monster, Rodrigo Borgia (Pope Alexander VI.), was a native of this

place. "Our route from San Felipe," continues Mr. Swinburne, "lay up long, winding vales, between ridges of high, bleak mountains. On the right hand stands the castle of Montesa, head of the military order of Montesa, instituted in 1317 by Jayme II. King of Aragon, after he had driven the Moors as far back as the territories of Granada. All the possessions of the knights templars in the province were bestowed upon the new order, into which none but Valencians were to be admitted. They wear a plain red cross. The commanderies belonging to the foundation were thirteen in number, whose yearly income, according to the king's books, where they are rated very low, amounts to 444,112 *reals de vellon*. In 1742, an earthquake overthrew the castle and all the adjacent buildings, burying under the ruins the greater part of the monks and other inhabitants. Those who escaped were removed to Valencia.* We did nothing the whole day but ascend through olive-plantations, pine-forests, and bare chalky hills, up the course of a little brook, till we came to its source; it breaks out in the middle of a town on the confines of Castile. Hitherto, the olives I have seen, are all of the smaller sort. The castle of Villena† is large, well situated,

* A great part of the castle, Laborde says, is still standing, of a long, rectangular form, the walls flanked with towers.

† "Just as we were going into Villena," says Swinburne, "a little, round, squat figure met my eye, dressed in a brown *montero* cap, jacket, and breeches, with a yellow waistcoat. It is not possible to paint a better Sancho Pança, and we were actually in a corner of the country of that squire; which makes me conclude that Cervantes drew the picture from real life, in some of his journeys through La Mancha. All the inhabitants of the town wear the same dress, which is neat enough." Villena, though the country on both sides is comprised in Valencia, belongs to the kingdom of Murcia, (M. Peyron says, to New Castile,) and is the chief place of a marquiseate. It bore, under the Romans, the name

and has been strong. I never saw a country so full of ruined towers, as the skirts of Valencia and Castile. Not a village is without its fortress perched upon some almost inaccessible cliff; none more singular than that of *Sax*. The hills here are broken, the landscape bleak; but, about *Elda*, the plain is improved to the best advantage. We passed by a string of ponds and caves, where the inhabitants of that town keep their provision of ice.* As there was a thin coat of ice on the surface of the water, they were very busy carrying it off with the greatest expedition, lest a sudden thaw should deprive them of it.

“Before we came into the plain of Montfort, we had a vile piece of road through a broken range of marly hills. We now found the style of salutation quite altered. Hitherto, the peasants were wont to accost us, as they passed, with *Dios guarde v.m!*—‘God keep your worship!’ But here, they begin, twenty yards before they come up to you, to bawl out as loud as they can, *Ave Maria purissima*—‘Hail, Mary, most pure!’ to which you are expected to answer, *Sin pecado concebida!*—‘Conceived without sin;’ or, *Deo-gracias!*—‘Thanks be to God!’†

“Our road the next morning was bad, the country abominable—a white clay in powder, and not a stick of wood. In rainy years, the crops of corn are very

of Arbacula. It stands in a rich plain, and was formerly surrounded with walls, which are now in ruins. Not far from this place is Biar (Apiarium), still famous for its excellent white honey. At four leagues from Villena, there is said to be a detached hill, composed of rock-salt.

* Elda, a small town on the left bank of the little river of that name, is said to have been built by the Moors, who called it *Idella*, “that is to say, the House of Pleasure.”

† These were the watch-words by which the Christians distinguished each other from the Moors and Jews.

plentiful. We got in to Alicant very early, and took up our lodgings at an inn which overhangs the sea."

ALICANT.

THIS place, the principal entrepôt of the commerce of Valencia, Murcia, Aragon, and part of New Castile, ranks next to Cadiz and Barcelona as a commercial town. The population is rated at upwards of 17,000 inhabitants. Its bay is large and secure, but not deep. About a thousand vessels of different nations enter it yearly, about half of which are Catalans. The exports, estimated at less than 2,000,000*l.* sterling, consist of brandies, wines, oil, fruit, aniseed, cinnamon, cochineal, saffron, barilla, salt, lead-ore, wool, and silk. The imports are linens, cloths, corn, iron-ware, and Newfoundland cod. Mr. Swinburne gives the following description of the place :—

" Alicant stands on the middle of a narrow neck of land, that runs out into the sea a considerable way, and almost comes round in a semicircular form, in the centre of which ships ride with as much safety as in a harbour. A rocky mountain rises directly behind the town. On its summit is the castle, now fortified after the modern method, and extended far beyond the limits of the old fortress, great part of which was blown up, with a fragment of the rock, in the war with the allies, in the reign of our Queen Anne. The English who then garrisoned it, refused to capitulate, though the French gave them notice of the mine being ready to be sprung. A well that communicated with the mine, gave it some vent, and prevented the rest of the mountain from being shivered to pieces by the explosion. However, most of the officers were blown up ; and the remainder of the troops were so stunned by the shock, as to remain for many hours

deprived of all power of motion.* Behind the castle-hill, is a plain, some leagues in circumference, called *Las Huertas*, or the Gardens, lying along the sea-shore, surrounded on three sides by very lofty mountains. It is a very beautiful vale, thickly studded with villages, villas, farms, and plantations of all kinds of fruit-trees; but in the hot season, the air is very unwholesome, and few or none escape agues or fevers. Here the fine Alicant and Tent wines are made.

“The town has neither buildings nor streets to recommend it to notice; though the houses in general are solidly built, with flat roofs covered with cement. Their walls are plastered, and every thing is as white as the soil of the adjacent country, which fatigues the eye in sun-shiny weather, that is, almost every day in the year; then the dust flies about in whirlwinds. If it rains, the streets are almost impassable, the *Calle mayor* being the only one that is paved. In the hot months, this place is a very furnace; its form being the best calculated in the world for intercepting the rays of the sun, and collecting them in one focus. The moun-

* This took place in 1707. Mr. Townsend gives a version of the story less creditable to the unfortunate general, who, with twenty of his officers, perished by the explosion. “When the Spaniards had nearly finished the work, they gave warning to the garrison; and when they had lodged in it 1,300 barrels of powder, they generously permitted the English general to send his engineers, who viewed the mine with its contents. These reported, that the burthen was too great for the quantity of powder, and that the garrison was safe. On the day appointed for the springing of the mine, people from every part assembled on the opposite hill, to view the catastrophe; and notice of the fatal moment was given to the garrison. Precisely at that moment, the officers, engaged in drinking, and somewhat elated by their wine, declared their resolution not to quit the battery till they had drunk two bottles more, for which they had sent a servant; but no sooner had he turned his back, than the battery, together with General Richards and twenty gallant officers, mounted in the air.”

tain behind shuts out the winds that, blowing from the cool quarters, might refresh the atmosphere; though the sea breeze might occasionally contribute to the cooling of the air.

“Water is the great agent, the *primum mobile* of all productions in this country. Every thing languishes and is soon parched up without an ample supply of it. Abundance of rain secures a plentiful harvest and a copious vintage. Wherever a spring breaks out, the king’s people seize upon it, and allot to each landholder a proper hour for letting the water upon his grounds. It is of so much consequence, that the value of a guinea has been paid for an hour extraordinary.”*

Singularly different is Mr. Townsend’s account of this place; but, when he visited it in 1787, the indefatigable zeal of an enlightened governor had produced great improvements. The streets had been fresh paved; and “few towns,” says this Traveller, “can boast of superior neatness. From being in every sense a nest of vermin, it is become a delightful residence.” It had used to swarm all day with beggars, and all night with thieves, the natural result of unbridled and patronised mendicity. Don Francisco

* The *Huerta* is watered from a vast reservoir, called *El Pantano*, formed between two high mountains, five leagues from Alicante, by means of two immensely thick walls, 147 feet high. It is, in fact, an artificial lake, above 130 feet in breadth, and 236 in length. A royal edict, in 1739, established sixty-two regulations for the distribution of the water; so that all the landholders may have their fair proportion at a moderate price. The money raised is professedly to keep this reservoir in repair. It brings in a revenue to Government of 2,000*l.* a-year. The farmers, Mr. Townsend says, could dispose of five times as much water as they receive at present; and were the whole interval between the mountains occupied with reservoirs, they might all be filled. This *pantano* has been replenished by four hours’ rain.

Pacheco, the governor, saw the evil in its true light, and though he knew that prejudice would run strong against him, he succeeded in establishing a work-house under the title of the House of Mercy, which he placed under the superintendence of a society, with the bishop, canons, and chief nobility at its head, denominated the Brethren of the Poor. Here the lazy were compelled to work, and the increase of beggars was effectually checked. There is also a military orphan-asylum here.

“Alicant stood formerly about a league further eastward, on the other side of Mount San Julian, not far from Cape *de la Huerta*; and the modern city, so late as the year 1519, consisted merely of six cottages; but in three and forty years subsequent to that period, 1,000 families had taken refuge in it from the ravages of the Algerines. All the ancient houses in the Huerta, by their lofty and strong towers, evidently shew how much were dreaded the depredations of those pirates; and the vast increase of Alicant proves the peace and security which its citizens have enjoyed under the protection of its castle. Even so late as the year 1776, the Algerines invaded, like a cloud of locusts, all the sea-coast of Catalonia, Valencia, and Granada, but they were soon repulsed. In these incursions, it was not so much for plunder, as for prisoners, that they came; because they knew for a certainty, that their captives would be redeemed by the Fathers of Mercy, an order of monks instituted for that purpose. They had too much wisdom to set a value on the labour of a slave: it was the hope of the ransom only that allured them. What a pity to see the compassion of these fathers productive of the evils which they were anxious to prevent!”*

* Townsend, vol. iii. p. 219.

The rock on which the castle stands, is calcareous, and abounds with fragments of fossil shells; but the sierra to the north is apparently composed of schist. About two leagues from Alicant, is a calcareous mountain, called Alcoray, in which are found cinnabar* and red gypsum. The country in the vicinity of Alicant, is wild and broken; the mountains are lofty, rugged, and bare, but the valleys, though small, are remarkably fertile. The soil is sandy, with beds of clay and marl. The rock is, in general, calcareous. In the *Huerta*, it is a fine limestone resting on schist. At the distance of four leagues from Alicant, is the village of Las Aguas, where are the warm baths of Buzot. The road leads over the *Huerta*, and then ascends suddenly twelve or fourteen feet to a plain upon a higher level called the Campillo, which is also watered by the Pantano. After traversing this fertile plain, it begins to climb the hills of an elevated range, which derives its appellation, *Sierra Gitana*, from the gipsies. Near the base of these lofty mountains, on the southern declivity, four copious mineral springs burst forth. Their temperature is about 104° Fahr. They have a chalybeate taste, deposite a sediment of yellow ochre, and, on evaporation, yield both the sulphate and

* Veins of red lead are said to be found in the mountains of Alcoray, and also in the mountains between Valencia and San Felipe. At the foot of a mountain near the latter place, is also a mine of mercury, which, after having been abandoned, was reopened in 1793, but has again been given up. It is said to have yielded from a quintal of ore, 13 lb. of mercury, 21 of copper, 18 of sulphur and arsenic, and a 128th part of silver. Another vein of mercury is found in a clayey soil, two feet in depth, which crosses the city of Valencia from E. to W. Cobalt is found near Ayodar; alum near Castel Favi; ochre between Villena and Biar, and a beautiful white alabaster; amber in small quantities in the mountain Alcoray; and quarries of the finest marble in many parts of this province.

the muriate of soda. Iron ore is found in the sierra. This part of the country is frequently shaken by strong earthquakes. Another thermal spring is found at *Fuente Caliente*, at the eastern foot of a limestone mountain, two leagues east of Alicant.

Alicant lies a little out of the direct road, which, leaving it on the left, runs on to Elche, situated in a plain, and surrounded with forests of palm-trees. This place, the ancient *Illici*, gave its name to the *Sinus Illicitanus*, and had the title and rights of a Roman colony. It now contains about 15,000 inhabitants. Dates are the chief article of its trade. It contains three churches, two monasteries, and a nunnery, but nothing deserving of notice. It is a gloomy place, and the inhabitants, though reputed to be rich, "live wretchedly." The adjacent country, however, is very cheerful. Swinburne says: "The dates hanging on all sides in clusters of an orange colour, and the men swinging on bass ropes to gather them, formed a very curious and agreeable scene. The palms are old and lofty: their number is said to exceed 200,000. Many of the trees have their branches bound up to a point, and covered with mats to prevent the sun and wind from getting to them. In process of time, the branches become quite white, and are then cut off and sent by ship-loads from Alicant to Genoa and other parts of Italy, for the grand processions of Palm Sunday; an uncommon species of traffic, which is also carried on with Madrid, where every house has its blessed palm-branch."

Orihuela, the next place of any consequence (the *Auriola* of the Romans), is an episcopal city, tolerably well built, at the foot of a ridge of bare rocks, near the head of a very fruitful *vega*, or vale, on both

sides of the river Segura. The streets are broad, but not paved. There are no fountains: the inhabitants drink of the waters of the river. The population is rated at 20,000 souls. This place is dignified with a university, founded in 1556, for the four learned professions. There are also thirteen convents, one seminary, and two colleges, in one of which there are about 300 students. But, upon the whole, the system of education followed here, is, as in most Spanish schools, very indifferent and circumscribed. There is nothing in the public edifices to excite curiosity. The cathedral is small and gloomy. The parish church of San Juan has a tolerably fine portal in the Gothic style. That of Our Lady of Montserrat has two stories of architecture of the Corinthian order, each of four columns of green marble. The front of the Dominican convent is immensely wide, but without ornament. The church of the Augustins has its front ornamented with two fine square towers, having three stories of architecture. The inhabitants are distinguished by their suavity of manners and their laborious industry in cultivating their lands. The surrounding country is beautiful. It is a continuation of the *huerta* (garden) of Murcia, but is better cultivated. It forms, indeed, one succession of orchards, in which the orange and the lemon are intermixed with the almond, the pomegranate, and the mulberry.* The lands, by means of incessant irrigation, are constantly productive: hence the Spanish proverb, *Si llueva o no llueva, trigo en Orihuela*: rain or no rain, there is wheat in Orihuela. A prodigious number of

* Mr. Swinburne mentions avenues of the Peru pepper-tree, or *Schinus molle*, which he saw near this town, loaded with bunches of a handsome rose-coloured fruit.

silk-worms are raised here, which are to the inhabitants a considerable source of wealth. An hour beyond Orihuela, the traveller reaches the frontier of Murcia.

Before we quit the kingdom of Valencia, we shall give from Laborde, a brief sketch of a route from the capital to Segorbe, distant about twenty leagues to the N.W., on the road to Saragossa.

FROM VALENCIA TO SEGORBE.

LEAVING Valencia by the suburb of Murviedro, at the end of a league, the traveller reaches the decayed town of Moncada, at the extremity of the Valencian vale. The land here begins to be parched, and gradually rises. After ascending for a league, the road enters a wood of pines, intermixed with fields and olive-plantations, which leads to *Porta Cœli*, a Carthusian monastery, seated on an eminence, commanding a vast prospect over the sea and the intermediate beautiful land scenery. At half a league westward, near the farm (belonging to this convent) of La Torre, the land becomes level. At two leagues from the convent we reach Liria, a very ancient town, situated between two hills, containing about 7,000 inhabitants, and enjoying the title of a duchy. It bore the names of *Edera*, *Edeta*, and *Laurona*, under the Carthaginians and Romans, and was the capital of the *Edetani*. Some Roman monuments are said to be still in existence here. The road for the next two leagues, crosses a fertile plain, planted with vines, olives, and carob-trees: it then climbs a long and steep ascent, called *Las Lacobas*, to an elevated plain, at the extremity of which, four leagues from Liria, is the village of *Las Alcublas*, with about 1,400 inhabitants. Proceeding now between lofty mountains, covered with shrubs,

medicinal plants, and patches of vines, the traveller arrives at the entrance of a very deep valley, where stands the little town of Andilla. From this place, it is a steep ascent to the village of Canales. The road now winds along the side of the *Sierra Vellida*, and continues alternately to ascend and descend, often on the brink of precipices, till, after crossing the little river Canales, the traveller reaches Bexis, an ancient town, formerly fortified, but now inconsiderable, with only 1,000 inhabitants. Two leagues further is the little town of Vivel, with 1,300 inhabitants, agreeably situated near the river Palencia. It is thought to be the ancient *Belsinum*, afterwards the *Vivarium* of the Romans. There are still found here Roman inscriptions. Half a league more of good road through a fertile and well-wooded country, brings us to *Xerica*, (the ancient *Ociserda* or *Etobesa*; according to others, the *Laxeta* of the Romans,) situated near the river Palencia, on the side of a mountain, at the top of which are seen the ruins of a strong castle. Its population amounts to 2,300. Here are also Roman inscriptions, chiefly sepulchral. An undulating country succeeds. The road crosses the Palencia by a bridge, and a league and a half beyond it is *La Esperanza*, a monastery of *Geronimites*, situated on a hill, at the foot of which a spring throws out water sufficient to turn two mills, and to water the districts of Navajas, Segorbe, and Altura. Its waters are said to have a petrifying quality. Another quarter of a league brings the traveller to Segorbe.

This town, which has the title of a duchy, is well situated in a fertile vale, on the river of the same name, which, lower down, takes the name of *Murviedro*. It is supposed to be the Roman *Segobriga*. It is the see of a bishop, suffragan to Valencia, and

including in its diocese forty-two parishes. The city contains four monasteries, a nunnery, five hermitages, and an hospital, with about 6,000 inhabitants. There are some good paintings in the cathedral, and in the church of the nunnery. At the distance of a quarter of a league from the town, is the Carthusian monastery of *Val de Cristo*, where also there are some good paintings. Near this monastery, a mine of good copper has been opened in a stratum of slate. At Altura, a neighbouring village belonging to the monastery, the fathers have established a paper-mill. Segorbe is the last town in Valencia in this direction.

MURCIA.

THE kingdom of Murcia, on which we now enter, is the smallest province in Spain, being only twenty-five leagues in length, and about twenty-three in breadth. According to Laborde, it contains a surface of 1,100 square leagues, and less than 400,000 inhabitants. It lies between the province of Valencia on the East; La Mancha and New Castile on the North and West; Jaen and Granada on the South-west and South; and extends to the Mediterranean on the South-east. The only two rivers of any importance by which it is watered, are the Segura (the ancient Terebus) and the Guadalentin. To the former, the *Huerta* (garden) of Murcia owes its fertility; the latter takes its rise in the kingdom of Granada, and traversing that of Murcia from West to East, washes the walls of Lorca, and falls into the Mediterranean near Almazaron. Murcia, the capital, Carthagena, and Lorca, are the only places of note.

The road from Orihuela to the city of Murcia, a distance of four leagues, lies along the foot of some

bare, rocky mountains,* over land but partially cultivated, till the traveller enters upon the rich valley of the Segura. This celebrated vale is described by Swinburne as far superior, in the variety and richness of its culture, to any plain he had hitherto travelled through. Although it was in the middle of December, the general appearance given to the land by the young corn, the flax, the lucerne, the pulse, and the orange-groves, was a bright green. Its surprising fertility is derived from the numberless trenches or canals which distribute the muddy waters of the Segura. The elm, the poplar, the willow, the cypress, the orange-tree, the lemon-tree, the fig-tree, the pomegranate, the medlar, the quince, the palm, and, above all, the mulberry-tree, flourish luxuriantly here, and fully entitle the whole vale to the name of the *Huerta*.† The soil of Murcia is particularly adapted to the mulberry-tree, which is said to have been introduced by the Moors,‡ to whom also the Spaniards of Valencia, Murcia, and Andalusia are indebted for the construction of their canals (*azequias*) and reservoirs (*norias*), as well as for the introduction of the culture of rice, sugar, and cotton.

The city of Murcia is described by Swinburne as neither large nor handsome. The muddy stream of the Segura, which divides it into two unequal parts,

* Laborde says, that there is another road, which follows the course of the Segura, but is impassable in autumn and winter. M. Peyron describes the country from Orihuela to the environs of Murcia as having the appearance of "a vast desert." The *Sierra de Orihuela* separates the kingdoms of Valencia and Murcia.

† *Huerta* (hortus) is the name given to any watered plain: the dry plains are called *campos*, many of which are of excellent soil, but, for want of irrigation, are burned up by the intense heat.

‡ According to M. Peyron, the little kingdom of Murcia contained 355,500 mulberry-trees, which produced annually 250,000 lbs. of silk.

adds nothing to the embellishment of the town ; and he found the streets so full of black, stagnant water, as to be almost impassable. The city is ill built ; the streets are narrow, winding, and unpaved ; and the only public edifice worth notice is the cathedral. It was formerly a walled town, entered by thirteen gates, of which four still remain, but it is now open on all sides. It contained, in 1787, in eleven parishes, 15,000 families, ten monasteries, and nine nunneries. There is a botanic garden here, and two public libraries. The principal employment of the inhabitants is the manufacture of silks, besides which there is some trade in carpets, made of *esparto*, which are sent chiefly to Madrid.

Mr. Townsend arrived at Murcia from Carthagena, on which side the city is approached by a spacious and handsome avenue. " As soon as I arrived," he says, " I hastened to see the cathedral, whose lofty tower had from a distance attracted my attention. The front is elegant, with sixteen marble columns of the Corinthian order, and thirty-two images as large as life. One of the most striking features about this edifice is, a chapel of the Marquis de los Veles, a hexagon, covered with a dome, in the Gothic taste, which is both light and elegant. Round this chapel is a stone chain curiously wrought. I was much disappointed, when I entered the cathedral, to find the interior so little correspondent to the expectations excited by the beauty of its front. Indeed, there is nothing in it remarkable besides the pictures and jewels. Of two silver altars, one is plain ; the other, for high festivals, is more ornamented. One *custodia* of silver, for the elevation of the *host*, weighs nearly six hundred weight. Another contains eight pounds

and four ounces of the purest gold, with 600 emeralds, and many valuable diamonds. One vessel, somewhat similar, only used for preserving the consecrated wafers, and called *el copon* (more commonly the *pyxis*), has five pounds of gold, besides many brilliants of considerable value. On the right hand of the altar is a massive urn of silver, four feet long, two and a half wide, and four feet high, containing the ashes of the two bishops, Fulgentius and Florentinus. Over this, a little chest of gold and silver, highly wrought, contains one hair taken from the beard of Christ, and sent from Rome by Cardinal Velluga, who was bishop of this diocese !*

“ It would be endless to enumerate all the jewels belonging to this church, forming a mass of treasure which, if in circulation, would animate the general industry. The sacristy allotted for the reception of this wealth, is in the centre of a vast square tower, constructed like that of Seville, but at present not quite so high. When finished, it will be more lofty by ten feet than that famous edifice. As you ascend, not by steps, but by inclined planes,† you go round the sanctuary, a spacious apartment, destined as a place of refuge for assassins, where they may be equally se-

* The treasures of gold, silver, and precious stones accumulated in the churches of Spain, were beyond all conception immense, and formed one of Bonaparte's great inducements for invading the Peninsula. It is known that he had previously sent out emissaries, professing to be scientific travellers, with instructions to take notes of all church valuables in the kingdom. Copies of their reports were given by the imperial plunderer to his worthy marshals, who were thus enabled to point out to the dismayed guardians of all this wealth, the very places in which it had been deposited.

† The ascent to the summit of the tower is so easy, Bourgoing says, that you may ride up it on horseback.

cure from the sword of justice and the dagger of revenge.*

“ From the top of this tower you have a delightful prospect, commanding all the valley, with the circumjacent mountains. From hence you look down upon the city, every where surrounding the cathedral, and itself placed in the centre of the vale, the dimensions of which, extending east and west, are nearly six leagues, and two leagues from north to south. It is bounded on the south by the chain of mountains separating it from the vale of Carthagera ; to the east, it communicates, by a small opening of about a league, with the vale of Orihuela and the sea ; to the north-west are hills, and, beyond these, high mountains, bounding the distant view. The cathedral is built with freestone, distinguished by the name of *pisolite*, because it appears to be composed of shells in small fragments, with *globulæ* resembling the spawn of fish. It contains likewise many bivalves and *anoniæ* entire.

“ I was exceedingly struck with the bridge over the Segura, magnificent in itself, and delightful for the prospect it commands of the river, the city, the vale, and the distant mountains, all in the most pleasant points of view. This river being often overflowed during the rainy season, the city would have been long since swept away, had it not been for a strong dike, twenty feet wide, and as many high, by which it is protected. This dike, projected merely for the safety of the city, being extended many miles up into the country, affords a pleasant walk to the inhabitants.

“ No one who has lived always in a temperate

* These asylums, instituted in pretended imitation of the cities of refuge which were provided by the Jewish law for homicides, have been latterly abolished. Mr. Townsend saw two murderers who had fled from justice to this “ voluntary prison.”

climate, can conceive how much a traveller suffers from the flies, when he passes the summer in the southern provinces of Spain. But, of all the cities through which I passed, not one appears to be molested with such swarms of these teasing insects as Murcia. To disperse them in some houses, they have a large fan suspended over the dining-table, and kept constantly in motion. In others, one of the domestics is unremittingly engaged in waving the bough of a tree all the time the company are eating; but the great have a servant at their elbow, whose sole employment is with a napkin to keep off the flies.*

This city, though the capital of the province, does not contain a single inn. The only lodging to be had in it, is in a wretched and filthy *venta*, such as are found on most of the great roads of Spain, and which are generally kept by *gitanos* (gipsies). This ubiquitous race are found in great numbers in the southern provinces of Spain. All the butchers and tinkers, as well as most of the low inn-keepers, are of this tribe, and many of them are very rich.

The early history of this city is involved in much uncertainty. The Spanish writers pretend that it is of high antiquity, stating its ancient name to have been Murgis, and its inhabitants the Morgetes; besides which, it is said to have borne at different periods the appellations of Tadmir, Bigastro, Oreola, and Ormela. M. Peyron tells us, that this place was consecrated by the Romans to their *Venus Myrtia*. It appears to have been, however, a place of little consideration under its ancient masters, compared with Carthagenæ. At the beginning of the eighth century,

* The best security against these insects, which seek the light, is darkening the room: they then cluster about the windows, where quarts of them may be raked together at a time.

it had risen into some importance: in 714, it was besieged and taken by the Moors;* and, in 756, was attached to the dominions of the khalifs of Cordova. In 1144, it became a dependency of the new Moorish kingdom of Granada, but subsequently returned to the sovereigns of Cordova. At length, in 1236, on the dismemberment of that khalifate, it became the capital of a separate kingdom. In 1265, Alfonso X. of Castile, having made himself master of this place, fortified it, and peopled it with Catalonians, Aragonese, and French. Almost all the Murcian nobility, Laborde says, are of French origin, being descended from the military adventurers who, in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, left their country to try their fortunes under the banners of foreign princes. Most of these accompanied Jayme II. Since that time, Murcia has, with only an interval of two years,† belonged to the crown of Castile, and its laws and administration are the same as in the other Castilian provinces. The city is included in the military government of Valencia. Its bishop is a suffragan of the archbishop of Toledo. The see was originally established at Carthagera, but was transferred to Murcia in 1291. In the Succession war, this city declared for Philip V.;

* When Abdelazis, the Moorish general, laid siege to Murcia, it is said to have been so feebly garrisoned, that there were not men enough in the place to defend it. The governor was defeated in a *sortie*; but, with admirable presence of mind, he ordered the women to be clad in armour, and drawn up on the ramparts, by which *ruse de guerre* he obtained very honourable terms of capitulation. On entering the town, the Moors were astonished to find only an army of women. The same story is related of the taking of Orihuela. The plain of *Sangonera* is said to take its name from the bloody conflict between the Moors and the Murcians.

† From 1302 to 1304, it was in the possession of Jayme II., King of Aragon, but was ceded by him to Ferdinand IV., in exchange for Alicant and the adjacent country.

and Luis de Belluga, its prelate, is said to have acted the part of a military hero. The place was threatened by the advancing army of the archduke, when the bishop put himself at the head of the armed population, and prepared to dispute the possession. The city was open and defenceless; but the bishop opened the reservoirs, cut the canals, and, by turning the river Segura, laid the surrounding country under water. The troops of the archduke were unable to advance. The prelate immediately marched at the head of his little army to Orihuela, and gained possession of that city: he then laid siege to Carthagena, which he compelled to surrender on the fifth day. For these services he was afterwards created a cardinal.* To this learned and intrepid prelate is attributed the sarcastic remark respecting the city of Murcia, which has become proverbial: *El cielo y el suelo buenos, el entre-suelo malo* — the sky and the soil are good: all between them is bad.†

The character of the Murcians is the very opposite of that of the gay and volatile Valencians, to whom is also assigned a French origin. The worst traits in the Spanish character are here exhibited in the ridiculous family pride, the gloomy bigotry, and the debasing indolence which prevail among the citizens. The Murcian scarcely ever goes out of his native town; he is not to be seen either at courts or in camps, at universities or in commercial towns: he lives a life of apathy and sloth. The consequence is, that the annals of Spain scarcely present the names of any Murcians who have distinguished themselves either

* Laborde, vol. ii. p. 175.

† The pun is untranslatable. *Cielo* means roof, ceiling, as well as climate; *suelo*, soil, or the ground-floor; and the *entre-suelo* is a small room between the ground-floor and the principal apartment.

in arts or in arms. Among the very few exceptions, may be mentioned the illustrious Count Florida Blanca, whose measures were uniformly directed to the improvement of his country. The genealogical mania is here at its height. The nobles vie with each other in tracing their imaginary pedigrees to the ancient counts of Thoulouse and Barcelona, the twelve peers of Charlemagne, the Moorish khalifs, the Visigothic kings, the Roman emperors, and the Athenians! Family feuds and prejudices, a litigious spirit and unsocial manners, are the natural result of this absurd pride of birth, which appears to obtain the ascendancy in an inverse ratio to the prevalence of every personal merit. The enlightened state of the public mind may be estimated by two circumstances. Mr. Swinburne mentions, that in the cathedral, the names and banners of the Jews who have been burned in this town by the Inquisition, are stuck up like so many trophies won in the field of victory. The French Traveller states, that some years ago, an attempt was made to light the streets of Murcia; but the novelty displeased the people so highly, that the lamps were all broken to pieces the very first night they were lighted: a night-watch, however, has been established here, as at Valencia.

The complexion of the Murcian is sallow, often livid: he is gloomy, choleric, hypochondriacal. Hepatic diseases are prevalent here, which are attributed to the want of exercise, bad food, of which *pimiento* always forms a principal ingredient, the excessive use of iced water, which is carried, even among the common people, to the pitch of a mania,* and excess of sleep. The inhabitants go to bed early, rise

* In 1791, an insurrection was occasioned by a failure in the supply of ice.—LABORDE.

late, and their *siesta* is two hours long. The Sangrado system is here, as in other parts of Spain and Portugal, the sovereign remedy for all bodily ailments, but nowhere is it put in practice to the same absurd extent. Bleeding is prescribed for the slightest inconvenience, and nothing is more common than to meet persons in the streets with one hand tied round with a bandage of black taffeta, — the only part of the body to which the Murcian surgeons venture to apply the lancet. In spring, recourse is had to it as a preventive of disease.

The best explanation of this degraded character, which seems almost universally to attach to the Murcians, is supplied by the total want of education with which they are generally reproached throughout Spain. There are some excellent schools at Carthage, but these are not open to the public; and, with this exception, there are throughout the province only a few bad schools kept by the monks. The two public libraries at Murcia are useless alike from the badness of the selection, and the invincible dislike of the inhabitants to reading.

The little intercourse which they have with foreigners, or even with the neighbouring provinces, may be considered as another cause of their being so far behind the rest of their countrymen in civilisation. In this respect, they are strikingly unlike the Valencians, Catalonians, and Galicians, who are met with all over the peninsula. The apathy of the Murcians, says Laborde, must appear inconceivable to those who are acquainted with the happy situation of their country, its fine climate, a soil capable of affording immense wealth with little labour, and with the best port in Spain. Yet, such is their unconquerable indolence, that most of their time is spent in eating, sleeping, and smoking cigars. They make regularly five meals

a day ; viz. a breakfast of chocolate, a *pimiento* dish as a nunchion, dinner, a *merienda* of chocolate, and supper. They are not very nice, however, in their food, living chiefly on the most common vegetables, seasoned with *pimiento*, garlic, oil, and vinegar. Such a mess, with a morsel of bread, and a small glass of wine, costs about five farthings. There is a general prejudice in Murcia against beef : nobody eats it, and a person who should have it brought to table would be looked upon as a Jew. There is no luxury in Murcia, either in dress or furniture. The women dress as in other parts of Spain ; but, instead of the elegant satin or velvet *basquinas* and rich *mantillas* which are seen elsewhere, the *basquina* is of yellow, red, green, brown, or black serge, wide-spreading and short, shewing, in place of the handsome shoe and stocking of a Spanish belle, red or yellow woollen hose half way up to the knee. The *mantilla* worn here is heavy and dismal ; and, instead of the usual Spanish head-dress, the Murcian ladies have their sleek, shining, black hair combed backwards tight and flat ; while the graceful fan is superseded by a huge chaplet of large beads, reaching nearly to the ground, which they carry almost always about with them, even when not going to church. The military, the merchants, and the official persons dress in the French fashion. The common people in towns, wear a round hat over a black net, a black waistcoat, and a large brown or black mantle. The Murcian peasant wears, instead of a cloak, a piece of coarse striped woollen, half an ell wide and two ells long, thrown over the right shoulder, a white jacket, short white trowsers, not covering the knee, a red woollen girdle, shoes of hemp or bass, and either a round or slouched hat, or a leathern cap called a *montera*. From his general appearance and

sun-burnt complexion, he might be taken for a Moor.

The people here have a peculiarly fierce and sullen cast of countenance, which, Laborde says, is not belied by their actions. They are vindictive in the extreme, and Murcia often exhibits scenes of sanguinary contention or vengeance. The unvaried, gloomy life which they lead, gives them a wild, embarrassed air. The Murcians indulge in no kind of amusement. Balls, plays, or parties are unknown in the capital. Music and dancing, so passionately enjoyed in every other part of Spain, particularly in the adjoining provinces of Valencia and Andalusia, have little attraction for the Murcians: they scarcely ever dance, and sing still seldomer. Every other hour is spent in smoking cigars, which is performed with a true Moor-like taciturnity, and they are then in a state of torpid bliss, from which it seems that nothing could rouse them. The women, too, partake of this universal spirit of indolence; they neither knit, sew, nor embroider; to be able to read is a rare accomplishment, and still more rarely can one be met with who is able to write. Laborde states, that it is difficult to procure a female servant in summer time, because the lower classes can then, for half a real ($1\frac{1}{4}$ d.) a day, procure enough fruit, vegetables, and pimienta to subsist upon. Thomson's beautiful allegory of the Castle of Indolence, is here outdone by the gross reality,—indolence without elegance, and apathy without tranquillity of mind.

This province has no language peculiar to itself. The Castilian is spoken, but corrupted by a mixture of Arabic and the Valencian dialect, so that a Castilian is at a loss to understand a great number of the expressions in familiar use.

The immediate environs of the capital present nothing remarkable; but about four leagues from Murcia, upon the road to Madrid, is the little village of Archena, celebrated for its hot mineral waters. M. Peyron gives the following vague account of this phenomenon.

“ They have their source in a rock of no very great elevation, which is commanded by lofty mountains. Thirty paces from the Segura, a canal has been made from this source, upon which are three baths; one for gentlemen, another for ladies, and a third for the poor. The first is within ten or twelve feet of the source, and the water is so hot, that it is impossible to support the heat of it, even with the hand, for more than a second. Before it is bathed in, it is beaten for a considerable length of time. The water is of a bluish cast, very heavy, and bad tasted. The froth, or scum, at the source, takes fire like sulphur or brandy. Those who drink the waters must use a great deal of exercise to carry them off. Their effect is a violent and continued perspiration; and it sometimes happens, that persons who have bathed in them are obliged to change their linen five or six times in the day. There are about fifty small huts near the baths, where lodging may be had; but provisions must be carried thither, in case of a few days' residence.” These baths were famous under the Arabs; and were evidently well known to the Romans, as the ruins of a large edifice were discovered here, in digging to make a bath, with fragments of columns and a Roman inscription. A physician of Villena published an account of these waters in 1760, but they have never been analysed.

Hot springs are found in several other parts of this province; four in a cavern near Carthagera, of

which no use is made; the waters of Mula, seven leagues from Murcia, where are baths, which are badly kept; the waters of Fortuna, four leagues from those of Archena, which are used both as a bath and as an alterative; and the waters of Almaha, six leagues from Murcia, to the right of the road to Lorca, where there is a bath of Moorish construction. No naturalist has hitherto explored the mountains of Murcia, which present to the geologist, a "virgin land." Mines of lead and copper were formerly worked near Lorca; silver is said to be found in the chain of mountains near Almazaron; sulphur abounds in a tract of country, four leagues in extent, near Ulasparra; bole, resembling the Armenian bole, near Fortuna; and nitre and alum in several places. The mountains are chiefly limestone; but, in some parts, schist prevails. Slate is found in some places, and they abound with various kinds of marble.

The road from Murcia to Carthagena is described by Laborde as good, except at one place, where it has not been finished. Mr. Townsend also speaks of the "beautiful new road among the mountains." Great improvements must have been made since Mr. Swinburne travelled, ten years before.* "From Murcia," he says, "we struck directly across the vale into the chain of mountains on the south side of the town; and the rugged bed of a torrent was all the road we found. You cannot conceive of a more shocking one. The naked, clayey cliffs that hemmed us in on each side, were very unpleasant. As soon as we emerged from this ditch, and surmounted a very greasy, marly height, we found before us a plain almost without

* M. Peyron says: "The roads from Murcia to Carthagena are horrid, and in the high mountains over which they pass, are such as the waters have made them."

bounds, and absolutely without a tree. A ridge of mountains separates it from the sea-shore. Our muleteers pointed out to us the break in it, where the island of Escombrera closes in the harbour of Carthage. A cluster of islands to the left appear as if they had been struck off the mountain by some furious earthquake, and tumbled headlong into the sea. Most of the plain is sown with barilla." This is the *campo* of Carthage, which Mr. Townsend describes as deriving its "extraordinary fertility" from the constant mouldering of the high and tender schistous rocks, by which means the soil is constantly fed with a rich, loamy clay. In cutting through these hills, they discovered vast strata of shingle, white quartz, limestone, and silicious grit. The whole plain on which Carthage stands, was formerly called *Campus Spartarius*, and the city itself Spartaria, on account of the large quantities of *spartium*, or Spanish broom, found both in the plains and the mountains. The pitiful *venta* of Jimenado, about five leagues from Murcia and four from Carthage, is the only resting-place for travellers on this route.

CARTHAGE.*

THE origin of this city is carried back by Spanish writers into the times of fable; but thus much appears certain, that the coast of Murcia was the first part of Spain that was colonised by the Carthaginians, previously to which it is said to have been the country of the Contestani. This city was either founded or rebuilt by Asdrubal, in the year of Rome 562, who gave it the name of New Carthage. It remained in the possession of the descendants of the first colonists

* Properly Cartagena, for so it is written by the Spaniards.

till the year 208 B.C., when it was taken and pillaged by Publius Scipio and Caius Lælius. At that period, according to Livy, it was, next to Rome, one of the richest cities in the world; and so immense was the booty which fell into the hands of the conquerors, that the possession of the city was the smallest part of what they gained by the expedition.* Under the Romans, Carthagera formed the capital of a province, called *Provincia Carthaginensis*;† and its metropolitans, after the introduction of Christianity, long disputed the primacy with the archbishops of Toledo. The remains of the Roman road are said to be still visible, which began at the *Campus Juncarius*, at the foot of the Pyrenees, and, passing through Tarragona, Tortosa, Saguntum, and Setavis, turned at length towards the sea, and came out into the *Campus Spartarius*. Carthagera is said to have been totally destroyed by the Vandals, at the beginning of the fifth century, in their wars with the Gothic allies of the Emperor Honorius, but was soon rebuilt.‡ At the time of the Moorish invasion, the kingdom of Murcia was governed by Theodomir, Prince of the Goths, by whom a brave resistance appears to have been made; and the original treaty between this prince and Abdelazis is still preserved in the Escorial.|| Its subse-

* Scipio is said to have carried away with him, 64 military banners, 276 golden cups, 18,300 marks of silver, besides vessels of the same precious metal, 40,000 measures of wheat, and 160,000 measures of oats; — “*ut minimum omnium inter tantas opes bellicas Carthago ipsa fuerit.*”

† Several ancient inscriptions have been found among the ruins of the Roman city. In a garden at Espinardo, near Murcia, is a stone having on one side the stern of a ship, and on the reverse, Pallas holding an olive-branch, and at her feet a cornucopia and a caduceus.—BOURGOING, vol. iv. p. 121.

‡ Bourgoing, vol. iv. p. 121. Gibbon, vol. vii. chap. 33.

§ See Laborde, vol. ii. p. 155. In this treaty, it is stipulated on

quent conquest by Alfonso X. of Castile has already been mentioned. The modern town was built or enlarged in the reign of Philip II.

The harbour of Carthagená is the finest in Spain, and one of the very best in Europe. It is a basin formed by nature in the figure of a heart. The island of Escombrera blocks up the entrance, and shelters it from the violence of winds and waves. High, bare mountains rise from the water's edge on the east and west, while on the north, a low, narrow ridge of hills, on which the city is built, shuts out the view of the inland country.* Under the mountains on the right hand, which is the deepest and safest position in the whole bay, a large fleet may lie in security, and out of sight of all ships at sea or in the narrow entrance of the harbour. The east side of the port is much shallower, and the anchorage is loose and sandy. Vessels have been forced from their anchors here by gales from the S.W. and dashed against the rocks; but in every other part of the harbour, the waters are so perfectly dormant, that, Mr. Swinburne says, "during

the part of Abdelaziz, the son of Musa, that Theodomir shall not be disturbed in his principality, and that the lives, property, and Christian churches of his subjects shall be respected, on condition of his delivering up the seven towns of Orihuela, Valentola, Alicante, Mula, Vacasora, Bejar, Ora (or Opta), and Lorca; and becoming tributary to the khalif. The treaty is dated A.H. 94, answering to A.D. 715.

* M. Peyron remarks, that Virgil might seem to have taken for his model the harbour of Carthagená, when he described the port at which Æneas landed in Italy:

*"Est in secessu longo locus: insula portum
Efficit objectu laterum, quibus omnis ab alto
Frangitur, inque sinus scindit sese unda reductos.
Hinc atque hinc vastæ rupes, geminique minantur
In cœlum scopuli, quorum sub vertice latè
Æquora tuta silent."*

VIRG. *Æneid.* i. 161.

the stay of the many hundreds of vessels destined for the Algerine expedition, they became absolutely putrid and infectious from the filth thrown out of the ships."

"Carthagena occupies the declivity of a hill with the little plain intermediate between it and the harbour. The city is protected from the south and from the west by high mountains and barren rocks ; but, to the north and the east, it is open, and communicates with an extensive valley, which is separated from the plain of Penilla (on the south) by a ridge of hills, a continuation of the above-mentioned mountains ; while another chain divides it, on the north, from the vale of Murcia. On the summit of the hill, commanding the city, is a castle now going to decay ; but on the adjacent heights are raised considerable works to defend the harbour, with the arsenals and dock-yard. The streets are wide, and the houses are commodious. They have generally flat roofs, where, after sunset, the inhabitants assemble to enjoy the refreshing breeze. The new parade, extending east and west, at the head of the harbour, and looking through its entrance into the Mediterranean, is built on a regular plan ; and as a high schistous rock has been cut away to make room for this long range of habitations, excellent vaults are excavated behind each house for the service of the merchants. At the end of this stands the royal hospital, a vast establishment, destined to receive the sick from the dock-yard and the army, with the *presidarios*, or criminals condemned to the galleys. The cathedral, a miserable pile, is now degraded to a parish church. Of the convents, not one appeared worthy of notice, but the proportion allotted to the men is certainly remarkable : out of nine, eight are occupied by

monks.”* At the foot of the summer-evening walk, is a small church, erected in honour of St. James (Santiago), the patron of Spain, who is believed to have landed here from Palestine, when he came to convert this country to Christianity. “The arsenal is a spacious square, south-west of the town, under the mountains. Forty pieces of cannon defend its approach from the sea ; but, on the land side, it is without defence. The timber for ship-building lies in ponds, behind a long range of magazines for stores, opposite to which the men-of-war are moored in a wet-dock, each before the door of its own magazine. The ships are heaved down in a dry dock, which, by reason of the back-water, and the springs that ooze through the marshy soil, would never be clear of water, were it not for several fire-engines continually going, and for the great pump which is plied without intermission by Spanish criminals and Barbary slaves.” Of the former, at the date of Mr. Swinburne’s visit (1775), there were 800 ; of the latter, 600. “Most of these wretches,” he says, “are kept at it sixteen hours out of the twenty-four, by four hours at a time ; some work only twelve, and most of the Moors only eight hours. It is the hardest labour in the world. Ten men are set to each pump, to the number of above a hundred in the room above ground, and as many in a kind of dungeon below. In summer time, scarcely a day passes without some of them dropping down dead at their work ; and even at this cool season of the year, we have met some of them every day being carried to the hospital. The despair that seizes them is so outrageous, that, if they can get within reach of any weapon, there are many instances of

* Townsend.

their having plunged it into their own breast, or that of some person near them, which answers the same purpose, a speedy deliverance from all their woes by death. As we were looking at them, a dirty little keeper struck a fine, tall Moor over the head, for leaving his pump to beg of us. The Mussulman darted a look of indignation at his tyrant, and resumed his task, without saying a word or shrinking from the blow. On our leaving this house of sorrow, we met several strings of galley-slaves, going to relieve those at work, or to fetch their provisions. The Moors had an M on the sackcloth that covered them; and the whole gang were lively pictures of malady and despair. The king allows them a *pistreen* a day, but I am afraid they are defrauded of their allowance; for we saw them making their dinner upon black bread and horse-beans boiled in salt water. We returned quite melancholy from this scene of woe. The only reflection that diminishes our compassion, is the atrociousness of the crimes that have brought the Christians to the chain: none are here, that have not deserved death in fifty shapes. One boy, of fifteen years old, is here for the murder of his father and mother; and either murder, sacrilege, or some such enormous and horrible offences have been perpetrated by almost all those condemned for life to this punishment.* The

* The number of those condemned *for life* to this punishment, formed, however, a small proportion, according to the information obtained by Mr. Townsend; and a very different class of offences appears to have been visited with this horrible penalty. "They have here," says this Traveller, "two thousand criminals, chiefly *smugglers*, who, being condemned to work in chains, are called *presidarios*. These are employed in the most servile labour, some for five, others for seven years; and at the expiration of these terms, they are turned loose upon the public, not corrected or trained to habits of industry, but vitiated by the society of thieves, and unfitted to pursue the occupations to which they had been

severity exercised over the Moorish captives, is not so easily reconciled to the principles of humanity, and the meek doctrines of Christianity. Retaliation does not seem a sufficient plea."

The fishery at this sea-port is considerable. The half-profits claimed by the crown amounted, in 1786, to about 1000*l.* a year. The fishery within the port was the property of a chartered company: in the open sea, all mariners who were enrolled, were allowed to fish. Within the port, they take chiefly the *atun*, or tunny, and the *melvas*. Large quantities of *esparto* ropes and cables are manufactured here: mats also, and a fine thread fit for weaving, are made of the same rush.* But the most important production of the country, and the most valuable article of commerce, is barilla, which has already been mentioned as indigenous in Valencia and Murcia. The country producing this plant is about sixty leagues in length, and eight in breadth, extending along the coast of the

originally trained. Before the introduction of steam-engines, these wretched creatures were obliged to work at the chain-pumps; but such was their malignity arising from despair, that many, watching their opportunity, would throw stones, nails, and bits of iron into the pumps to spoil them. These two thousand slaves require five hundred soldiers constantly to guard them; and, independently of this expense, they cost each to Government five reals a day for their maintenance." The state of prisons in England, and the whole administration of our criminal system, were not, at that period, such as would have entitled an Englishman to pass any severe reflections on the Spanish Government on this ground.

* This valuable rush, from which the plain derived its ancient name, is the indigenous production of all the high, uncultivated mountains in the south. "And here," remarks Mr. Townsend, "we cannot help admiring the bounty of Providence in thus administering to the wants of man, and giving abundantly in these dry and elevated regions, where neither hemp nor flax will grow, materials proper for his clothing, and for the employment of his industry."

Mediterranean. The duty upon this article, of seventeen reals a quintal, amounted, in 1786, to 25,500*l. per annum*. All the varieties may be collected in the swamp called *Almojar*, eastward of the city. * Next to the barilla of Spain, that of Sicily is the best. The chief imports are bale goods, and *bacallao* (codfish) from Newfoundland.

The population of Carthagena was computed, in 1786, at 15,000 families, or between 60 and 70,000 souls; but the clergy, the monks, the military, and the convicts are not included in this enumeration, and probably, not foreigners. If this be the case, the native population is, we suspect, much over-rated. Laborde says, that very few Murcians reside here; that most of the inhabitants are English, French, or Italians, who are either merchants, soldiers, or sailors; but the number of officers of every rank, agents, and official persons, is very considerable. In entering this town, he says, after travelling through Murcia, one might fancy one's self in a new country. Here, strangers are well received, and the inhabitants are very affable and sociable. There is, moreover, no want of amusements. The municipal government is vested in a military governor, with his *alcalde mayor*; thirty *regidores*, whose office passes by inheritance, if not previously sold; and two syndics, annually chosen by the people as their peculiar guardians, but they are completely under the influence, Mr. Townsend says, of the hereditary *regidores*, who may here be called the thirty tyrants. To render the yoke still more intolerable, the *escribanos del numero* succeed likewise by inheritance, and may even sell their office by shares,

* See page 155. Also, Townsend, vol. iii. p. 131; and Swinburne, vol. i pp 200—206.

to be served by a deputy. Owing to the corruption and mal-administration which result from this state of things, murders and assassinations are frequent; and "for many years, not an offender had been punished for these crimes, because the most atrocious villain, unless miserably poor, may find refuge in the rapacity of the *escribanos*. Want of fidelity to matrimonial vows is equally prevalent at Carthagena as in the other provinces of Spain."* This corrupt state of morals, Mr. Townsend ascribes to the celibacy of the clergy as "the predisposing cause;"† while the immediate source of the great relaxation of principle which has comparatively of late years gained ground in Spain, he considers to be, "the introduction of Italian manners on the arrival of Charles III. from Naples, with the previous want of reasonable freedom in the commerce of the sexes. If, in addition to these," adds this intelligent Traveller, "I might ven-

* "It was here, that a gentleman one morning said gravely to his friend, 'Before I go to rest this night, the whole city will be thrown into confusion.' This he himself occasioned by going home an hour before his usual time, to the no small vexation of his wife and of her *cortejo*, whose precipitate retreat and unexpected arrival in his own house occasioned the like confusion there; and thus, by successive and similar operations, was literally fulfilled the prediction of the morning."—TOWNSEND, vol. iii. p. 145.

† "My friends, the inquisitors of Barcelona," says Mr. Townsend, "gave me to understand, that, as long as the priesthood should be debarred from marriage, and confessors continually liable to abuse the confidence reposed in them, the secrecy, the prudence, and, when needful, the severity of the Inquisition, would be the only effectual restraint against licentiousness and the universal depravation of morals."—TOWNSEND, vol. iii. p. 335. Whether the Inquisition had any such effect as is here ascribed to it, may be doubted. Very different was the original purpose of the institution, and very different the crimes of which it took cognizance; but the plea here set up for this infamous tribunal is a striking admission of the demoralising influence of those essential parts of the papal system, clerical celibacy and auricular confession.

ture to assign another cause for this universal depravity of morals, I should seek for it in the want of admonition. The secular clergy seldom, if ever, preach. The monks, indeed, descant upon the virtues of their patron saint, or labour to extol some favourite *Senora*" (the Virgin Mary under some particular form of invocation), "and to set up altar against altar; but they seldom appear solicitous to improve the morals of the people; and, except during Lent, they do not often exhort the people to repentance." A remarkable exception, however, to the general dearth of pulpit orators, was exhibited in the person of a Capuchin monk, Father Diego of Cadiz, who visited Carthage during Mr. Townsend's stay in that city, and preached every evening in the great square to more than ten thousand people. This good father was learned, eloquent, and modest; and although the vulgar ascribed to him a variety of miracles, unlike Prince Hohenlohe, he disclaimed all such pretensions. Such was the admiration he excited, that it was found necessary that he should be constantly attended by a guard, to prevent his clothes from being torn off his back for relics! Many of his admirers would assemble soon after sunrise, to secure good places, though he did not preach till six in the evening. "What he spoke was heard with the most profound attention; and after one discourse, on the forgiveness of injuries, many were reconciled and became good friends, who had previously been at enmity. One sermon, however, had a pernicious tendency; yet, so deeply is a sense of honour, of gratitude, and of filial piety impressed on the human heart, that few appeared to relish his doctrine, or to be convinced by his arguments; but most of his hearers seemed to shudder with abhorrence, while he endeavoured to persuade

them, that, in cases of heresy, they were in duty bound to accuse, at the tribunal of the Inquisition, their nearest and their dearest friends."*

Carthagena is subject to visitations of an endemic bilious fever, arising, it is supposed, from the proximity of the extensive swamp called the *Almojar*, containing many hundred acres, which might easily be drained, so as to produce the most luxuriant crops. During the three autumnal months of 1785, 2,500 persons were carried off by this complaint, and, in the following year, 2,300 more; yet, no attempt was made to remedy the evil, except by an order from the court, that no other medicine than a certain famous prescription, should be on any account administered to the sick! The extensive valley or *campo* to the north and east of the city, is varied by beautiful undulations, and, although not watered by any rivers, might easily be rendered very fertile by irrigation, as is evident from a few scattered *norias*. Among the most common trees here, are the elm, the poplar, the mulberry, the olive, the fig, the pomegranate, the apricot, the palm, the palmito, and the *ginjoler*, or jujube-tree. The soil is loamy, composed of calcareous earth, sand, and clay, from the adjacent mountains, which are of schist, covered with limestone; in some places, sandstone appears, with shingle and sea-shells; and at no great distance from the city is a mountain, whence they obtain the gypsum used for plaster. The whole country abounds with salt-petre. Near the village of Almazaron, situated on the chain of mountains running towards the sea, is found a fine red earth, called *almagra*, which is used for polishing looking-glasses at the manufactory of San Ildefonso: it is also worked

* Townsend, vol. iii. pp. 147, 3.

up with tobacco, at Seville, to fix the volatile particles, to give it a colour, and at the same time communicate that softness which is the principal recommendation of Spanish snuff. Near Almazaron, also, are remains of a silver mine, which is said to have been once very productive. Rock crystal is stated by Laborde to be found on two mountains, one to the east, and the other to the west of Carthagena, near some quarries of marble, mixed with slate. He also mentions a remarkable cavern near Carthagena, where are traces of an alum mine and four hot springs. The plume-alum or *pseudo-asbestos*, is found near Almazaron.

FROM CARTHAGENA TO LORCA.

THE road to Granada, for about two leagues from Carthagena, runs in a north-westerly direction over the fertile plain, but soon afterwards becomes narrow and stony as it enters the mountains, and continues so to Fuente el Alomo, a decayed village. Near Tutana, the traveller re-enters the direct road from Murcia to Granada.* This is a considerable, but ugly and ill-built village, with a population of 12,000 souls, who derive their support chiefly from the cultivation of *barilla*. At the end of the square there is a marble

* The road from Murcia passes over the most beautiful part of the *Huerta* along a causeway. At the village of Don Juan, it leaves the Carthagena road, and turns to the right into an extensive campo, flat, dusty, and naked, having only a few olives here and there. The country improves as the traveller approaches Lebrilla, a distance of four leagues from Murcia. A magnificent *posada* here, built by a duke of Alba, forms a contrast to the miserable appearance of the houses. A league and a half further is the *Venta de Alhama*. The town of that name is seen to the right at the foot of the mountain Espuna. It is said to have been founded by the Moors, and the name is evidently Arabian, being taken from the hot baths for which it is famed. The ruins of an ancient castle

fountain, ornamented with sculpture ; but whether ancient or modern, we are not informed. The road still continues level, but insensibly approaches the naked, gloomy mountains which close the view on all sides, till, at the end of four leagues more, after fording the little river Guadalentin, the traveller enters the town of Lorca, built at the foot and on the eastern declivity of the *Sierra del Cano*. This has been a considerable place ; but, the lower part of the town being concealed by trees, nothing is seen on approaching it, but a number of low houses, crowded together on the side of the mountain, of the same colour as the schistous rock, and seeming to belong to it. This is the old or upper town, which was built by the Moors, and some portions of the walls and gates are still visible ; the streets here are narrow, steep, and crooked, and the houses ill built and low. The lower town, built on the plain, has been more regularly laid out and better built. Lorca contained, in 1786, nine parish churches, seven monasteries, two nunneries, two hospitals, and about 22,000 inhabitants. Connected with one of the churches is a collegiate chapter, with an abbot at its head ; and some writers have claimed for this town the honours of an episcopal see of high antiquity. Its bishop is said to have been president at a council held at Toledo, A.D. 610. The great church has an elegant façade, with numerous columns of the Corinthian and Composite orders. The interior has nothing remarkable : M. Peyron, however, speaks of some excellent paintings. In this church, says Mr. Townsend,

are still to be seen here. It contains, besides its parish church, two monasteries, an hospital, and about 4,000 inhabitants. Two leagues and a half from the *venta*, the traveller arrives at Tutana. The chief production of the intermediate tract is olives. Extensive vineyards and mulberry-plantations are seen at intervals.

every criminal may find a safe asylum. A curious episcopal grant also, the property of this church, secures forty days' indulgence every time any penitent shall say a pater-noster and an ave-maria to six saints therein named, for the benefit of the souls in purgatory. An old castle, built on the edge of a high rock, which formerly commanded and over-awed the town, is now regarded with indifference: the outer walls alone remain.

Lorca is supposed to be the Cliocrata of the Itinerary of Antonine. It has sustained several sieges. Being so near the frontier of the kingdom of Castile, after the annexation of Murcia to that crown, it was exposed to repeated attacks from the Moorish sovereigns of Granada, till Ferdinand the Catholic at length made himself master of their states. From that time, its fortifications were neglected, and Lorca became an open town. The surrounding country is pleasant, and the meandering stream of the Guadalentin spreads fertility around. The place was in a thriving condition, when the enterprise of a speculator led, by its melancholy issue, to the subversion of its prosperity. Of this catastrophe, Laborde gives the following account.

The individual in question, whose name was Lenourda, had, it seems, obtained permission and authority from the Spanish Government, to collect all the waters of the district into a common reservoir, similar to that of Alicant. The basin was "superb," and appeared to be of solid construction. Its extent, we are told, was immense,—terrific: it contained a body of water sufficient to irrigate the whole territory of Lorca for years. A violent prejudice, however, existed against the undertaking; and the proprietors murmured at the high price they were obliged to pay

for the water. It is even said, that the monopoly operated to the discouragement of cultivation, and that the prosperity of Lorca was materially affected by it, owing to the ignorance and obstinacy of the proprietors, who refused to avail themselves of a public benefit. Government at length interposed, and some of the refractory malcontents were arrested, imprisoned, and banished. Such appears to have been the state of things for nearly ten years, when, suddenly, on the 30th of April, 1802, the waters, which had been insensibly undermining the reservoir at one angle, rushed out with an impetuosity that swept away every thing before it, — public buildings, trees, rocks, men, and animals. “ One of the suburbs of Lorca, consisting of about 600 houses, the parish church, two convents, two hospitals, some barracks, mills, and fountains, were swallowed up and disappeared in an instant. Similar ravages occurred wherever the water reached ; that is to say, to an extent of sixteen leagues. Many villages were destroyed ; the city of Murcia, twelve leagues distant, and the town of Orihuela, four leagues further off, suffered, though in a smaller degree, from its effects. The number of people who perished, is estimated at 6,000, and the animals at 24,000. The fields, formerly so beautiful, are now bare, impoverished, covered with sand, rubbish, heaps of stones, and pieces of wood. In many places, marshes have been formed. In short, this once opulent tract of country has fallen suddenly into a state of perhaps irreparable wretchedness. The loss is estimated at two millions sterling.” The inhabitants of Lorca mention with high satisfaction, as an evident instance of Divine retribution, that the unhappy director of the works, who, by his vexatious and tyrannical conduct, had rendered himself an ob-

ject of general execration, happened to be there at the time, and was among the first who perished.* The catastrophe has cast an air of melancholy over this once cheerful and agreeable town. The beautiful promenades, laid out on the banks of the river, are now deserted, and even the manners of the inhabitants are changed. On one side of these promenades, a fine broad road had been made for five or six leagues, and planted with trees, leading to the port of Las Aguilas. It is entered by a new bridge of three arches thrown over the Guadalentin.

Lorca had formerly manufactories of silk, linen, and woollens, but they had gone to decay so long ago as the time of Mr. Townsend's visit. The saltpetre works were extensive. The olive, the mulberry, the tamarisk, and the oleander† flourish in the adjacent plain; and wheat, in the irrigated land, yields a hundred fold. Lead and copper exist in the adjacent mountains. Mr. Townsend speaks of a project for opening a communication between Lorca and Carthage by means of a canal, which would, no doubt, have the happiest effect, if practicable, on its trade; but subsequent events have rendered the plan abortive. Lorca is reckoned thirteen leagues from Murcia.

* It is remarkable, that a similar catastrophe is said to have destroyed the ancient city of Mareb, in the kingdom of Yemen, or Arabia Felix.—See MOD. TRAV., *Arabia*, p. 28. The construction of these *norias*, or reservoirs, is known to have been originally the work of the Arabian conquerors of Spain; and the pantano of Alicante and the reservoir of Lorca, are evidently works of the same kind as the reservoir of Abdus-shemss at Mareb.

† The Spaniards call the oleander *amarga adelfa* (bitter rose-bay), on account of the bitterness of its leaves; and it serves as a constant comparison in Spanish sonnets and novels.

FROM MURCIA TO LA MANCHA.

THE route given by Laborde from Murcia to the frontiers of La Mancha, which is the Madrid road, comprises almost every other place of any consideration in the province. The distance is twenty-five leagues and a half, in a direction chiefly north-west. The first town on this route is Molina, pleasantly situated on the edge of a valley watered by the Segura, but separated from the Huerta by arid mountains. It is surrounded with orchards and gardens, and contains about 3,000 inhabitants. Soon after passing through this town, the traveller leaves on the left the village of Lorqui, situated on the left bank of the Segura, not far from which place, Massanissa, the Carthaginian general, gained a signal victory over the Romans in A. Rom. 542. Cneius and Publius Scipio were slain in two successive engagements, and their army was almost cut off. At the *Venta de la Rambla*, four leagues from Murcia, the road enters the mountains, and passes over some very steep and rugged defiles. The frightful pass called the *Puerto de la Pinosa*, is so narrow, that if two carriages meet, they can neither pass nor turn; and in other places, two horses cannot go abreast. A wretched *venta*, and some scattered houses called *Las Caserías de la Pinosa*, are all that occur between Molina and Jumilla, a distance of six leagues and a half. The latter is a small town, with about 8,000 inhabitants, situated at the entrance of a fine valley, at the foot of a mountain surmounted by a ruined castle. No other town occurs till the traveller reaches Albacete, a distance of nearly twelve leagues. For two hours beyond the *venta* of Albatana, the road passes over a wild, parched up, and sterile country, where no signs of either man or animal re-

lieve the dreary solitude. The whole tract is described as gloomy and tedious in the extreme. Beyond this, some beautiful valleys and horrible mountain defiles alternately succeed. One of these passes bears the name of *Puerto del Infierno*. At Albacete, the route enters the new road from Madrid to Valencia.* This small town (formerly called Cetede) stands in a large and fertile plain, yielding wheat and barley, wine, fruit, and saffron. The population is stated at between 7 and 8,000 inhabitants. The place is remarkable for nothing but its annual cattle fair, and its indifferent cutlery. A dry, bare, and for the most part uncultivated tract extends from this town to the confines of Castile, — a distance of not quite three leagues.

The greater part of the kingdom of Murcia would thus seem to be occupied by arid mountains, almost entirely uninhabited; yet, there can be no doubt, that the vine and the olive might in many parts be successfully cultivated. The valley of the Segura and the *campos* of Carthagená and Lorca are the only parts which are well peopled. The roads, if roads they can be called, are almost every where in a state of nature. In fact, this province has never been thoroughly re-peopled since the expulsion of the Moors, and every thing has been retrograding, rather than improving, since then.

FROM LORCA TO GRANADA.

IN pursuing the road to Granada, we now enter on that beautiful portion of the Peninsula, which was known to the ancients under the name of *Bætica*, and

* From Albacete, it is a distance of fourteen leagues to the Valencian frontier. The only town which occurs is the small town of Almanza, near which, in 1707, the Duke of Berwick defeated the army of the Archduke Charles in a sanguinary engagement, and by his victory secured the throne to Philip V.

is the Andalusia of the middle ages, although that term is now understood as restricted to the kingdom of Seville.* The kingdom of Granada, which occupies the south-eastern portion of this tract of country, is fifty-eight leagues in length, extending along the Mediterranean to the Straits of Gibraltar, where it joins the province of Seville. Cordova bounds it on the north-west, and Jaen on the north, while, on the north-east, it borders on Murcia. It contains only three ports: those of Almeria and Malaga, which are episcopal cities, are well known; the third, Amunecar, is inconsiderable. Guadix, an inland city, is also the see of a bishop; and Granada, the capital, is an archiepiscopal see.

From Lorca to the *posada* of Lumbreras, the road is tolerable; but, from the latter place to Velez el Rubio, you travel for five leagues in a *rambla*, or the dry bed of a torrent, amid nothing but deserts and naked rocks on either side, and surrounded by high mountains, which early in the winter are covered with snow.† Velez, the first town in the kingdom of Granada, stands in an open and fertile plain: it has still some remains of Moorish fortifications, and is com-

* The name of Andalusia (Handalusia) is applied by the Arabs to the whole peninsula. It signifies in Arabic, the region of the west, and appears to be, in fact, a translation of the Hesperia of the Greeks.—See GIBBON, chap. li. § 5, *note*. The etymology which derives the name of the country from the Vandals, (*quasi* Vandalusia,) is nothing more than a plausible, but not very probable conjecture.

† These barren and desolate hills, the resort of wolves, are covered, Mr. Townsend says, with the *esparto* rush. Near the frontier, he mentions a castle called Xixena, erected on the summit of a craggy schistous rock, to guard this pass, the ruins of which still preserve a respectable appearance.

manded by a castle now going to decay. It contains a beautiful church and a magnificent *posada*, (both built by a dutchess of Alba about the middle of the last century,) a solitary convent, and a population of about 3,000 families. It is nearly twelve leagues from Lorca. For three leagues further, the road ascends through the sandy channel of a torrent, shut in by rugged schistous rocks, to the miserable village of Chirivel; and it is another very long league to Vertientes, so called from the parting of the waters, which here take opposite directions; one portion passing by the Dauro to the Xenil, and thence, by the Guadalquivir, into the ocean; while the other, by a shorter passage, joining the Guadalentin, reaches the Mediterranean near Carthagena. In these elevated regions, the *esparto* rush can scarcely be distinguished from grass. At a lower level, it becomes long and rampant, and there the vines begin to shoot, wheat thrives, and the lark is heard to warble in the air. For three tedious leagues beyond the *puerto* or pass of Vertientes, the road continues to wind among hills covered with rosemary and other aromatic herbs, but chiefly with the *esparto*, and a few straggling pines: over them are scattered herds of goats, to whom the whole tract of country seems given up. Mr. Townsend saw one flock of 2,000, "all as white as milk." Cullar de Baza, a wretched village built at the foot of a mountain of gypsum, four leagues from Chirivel, is the next place. The sides of the rock are here excavated into numerous habitations, in which three-fourths of the inhabitants reside. "These are real dens," says M. Peyron, "inherited from the Moors." A more particular description of them is necessary to enable us to determine whether these dens were originally designed as

habitations, sepulchres, or granaries.* The little valley which supplies this village, is about a quarter of a mile in breadth, enclosed by barren, gypseous mountains : it is well watered, and produces flax, hemp, and wheat, while the vine flourishes on the more elevated spots. The same formation, horizontal strata of gypsum, continues for the next two leagues to the town of Baza, which stands in a bottom at the extremity of an extensive, well-watered, and fertile vale. The road from Cullar is a gradual descent, the view being bounded every way by snowy mountains, in a circumference of about thirty miles. Nitre is remarkably abundant over the whole extent of this gypseous country. Baza (the ancient Basti) is said to contain 6,500 families : it has nothing remarkable. The edifices are chiefly of Moorish construction, built of brick or a hard cement. Nine old iron cannon, which were used, as an inscription on one of them testifies, in the conquest of this city from the Moors in 1489, now serve as pillars to the front of the market-house. The high mountain, at the foot of which this city is built, is, during the greater part of the winter, covered with snow ; and the road to Guadix lies for the most part over bleak, uncultivated heights, with a succession of rapid ascents and descents, which, after rain, are inconceivably slippery and fatiguing. There occur many considerable tracts of land, however, which might be watered and rendered fertile. The natural productions are pines, juniper, savin, rosemary, and other aromatic herbs, and Spanish broom (*esparto*). There are also some remains of ancient forests of ever-green oak. Numerous herds of goats and of swine are met with. The flesh of the latter, during three-

* Probably, the latter, like those of Tortosa and Granada.

fourths of the year, is almost the only food of the inhabitants of these parts, who have a saying :

“ *No hai olla sin tocino,
Ni sermon sin Augustino.*”

“ There is no good dish without lard, nor good sermon in which St. Augustine is not quoted.” At about half way between Baza and Guadix is the *venta* of Gor, near which a little brook brings down from the mountains metallic particles, apparently of copper and lead ; but mines of gold are said to have been wrought in this vicinity in days of yore.

Guadix, an episcopal city, is situated at the foot of the *Sierra Nevada*, on the same kind of gulley as that of Baza. “ The clay-hills that encompass it on all sides,” says Mr. Swinburne, “ are the most extraordinary in nature ; they are very high, and washed into broken masses resembling spires, towers, and mishapen rocks. Whole villages are dug in them, the windows of which appear like pigeon, or rather, marten holes.* The passage through is remarkably singular, winding for half a mile between two huge, rugged walls of earth, without the least mixture of rock or gravel.” The city is ancient, and is said to have been formerly called Acci, or Colonia Accitana. It was taken from the Moors in 1252, by Alfonso the Wise, but was recovered by them ; and it was not till the year 1489, in the reign of Ferdinand and Isabella, that they were finally expelled from this place. The climate here is so much colder than in almost every other part of the kingdom of Granada, that neither orange nor olive-trees flourish. There are some manufactures of hemp, flax, and silk ; but the article

* This is the case more especially at the village of Parillena, a league from Guadix, and, as has been mentioned, at Cullar.

for which the city is most celebrated, is pocket-knives.* The city contained, in 1786, five parishes, five monasteries, and two nunneries, with upwards of

* Mr. Townsend describes one of these knives which was purchased by his guide. "The blade was sixteen inches long, and when open, it was prevented from shutting again by a strong spring. Although this was the first of the kind I had ever seen, my imagination immediately suggested the purpose for which it was designed. Having produced his weapon, he began to brandish it; then, supposing himself to have been suddenly attacked by some one armed with an implement similar to his own, he stooped forwards, bending his knees, and holding his hat before him by way of shield, in his left hand; while his right hand, depressed and grasping hard the handle of his knife, directed its elevated point. Thus prepared, and casting a look of fury on his supposed antagonist, he sprang forwards, and appearing to have received in his hat the thrust of his opponent, he gave the fatal blow, which was in one instant to rip up the wretched victim.

"These knives are strictly forbidden; but, unfortunately, inveterate custom is too powerful for human laws, more especially in a country where the passions are easily inflamed, and where, from the nature of the judicial process, the laws must be weak in the extreme. For no information can be taken but by the *escribanos*, nor can any judgement be pronounced but upon their record. Now, as these officers are usually poor, and not unfrequently destitute of principle, they may, without much difficulty, be persuaded to change the complexion of an action, and at pleasure to make it either black or white. Hence, from impunity, assassinations are frequently committed; and, since little security can be derived from the laws, it becomes the interest of every man to be armed for his own defence. With this view only, he procures the formidable weapon; but, when provoked to anger, his views are changed; and that which was designed for his own protection, becomes the instrument of treachery, of malice, and of revenge."—Vol. iii. p. 103.

These dagger knives were the terror of the French in the Peninsular war. M. Thiers, in one of his spirited sketches, introduces an old French serjeant thus commenting on the villanous weapon: "My musket goes only in one hand, but this serpent of a knife passes from one hand to another; it sees you when you do not see it, and it penetrates you as it would into the crum of this loaf. The road is always open,—there are never any enemies before you; but behind—if you only want to drink at a pool, or to cut wood, you must be on your guard against the very stones. All

8,300 inhabitants. The cathedral has a whimsical façade, exhibiting, Mr. Townsend says, three orders of architecture, the Corinthian, the Composite, and the *Anomalous*, while the interior is Doric and Corinthian. The effect, however, is not unpleasing; and the marble, obtained from the vicinity of the city, is beautiful and of various colours, red, grey, white, and green. The bishop is a suffragan, not of Granada, but of Seville, though that city is upwards of sixty leagues distant. The *alameda* is well planted, and very neat. Guadix was a favourite city with Mehemed Abou Hadjad, one of the Moorish kings of Granada, who succeeded his father in 1379.

The *Cuesta Yerma*, which the traveller has to ascend after leaving Guadix, is "perhaps not to be matched," Mr. Swinburne says, "for badness, by any carriage-road in the world. All our mules, yoked together," continues this Traveller, "were scarcely able to wrench either of the carriages out of the narrow pass between the rocks, or drag them up the almost perpendicular parts of this abominable mountain." In the sides of this ravine are seen many horizontal strata of rock, separated from each other, ten, fifteen, or even twenty feet, by beds of clay, sand, and gravel. Mr. Townsend, who travelled this road on his return from the South of Spain to Barcelona, describes the country to the right, on approaching Guadix, as having a most singular appearance, resembling the stormy ocean. "The innumerable pointed hills seem to have attained what may be called their quiescent state, being no longer fretted, washed away, and ravaged by heavy rains and vernal torrents.

on a sudden, one of these fellows rushes out, and you are dead before you have time to cry, *Vive l'Empereur*. . . . My poor children," (addressing some young soldiers,) "God keep you from Spain!"

Protected by herbage, they are now fed by every shower, and in the spring exhibit a delightful verdure." The learned Traveller supposes, that, at some remote period, the whole of this country formed one extensive plain, "but, being composed of soft materials, and subject to violent rains, it was soon torn in every possible direction by gulleys, which, in process of time, became deep ravines, till, the mouldering angles of high cliffs being washed away, the wide expanse was left covered with hills, whose pointed tops are nearly all on the same level." The hardships to be endured in the journey from Granada to Lorca, he remarks, what with bad roads, wretched fare, and worse lodging, can be fully comprehended only by those who have passed this way. "Certain it is," says Mr. Swinburne, "that no man has as yet undertaken this tour a second time for pleasure; and, if my advice be listened to, nobody will ever attempt it once." After escaping from the last-mentioned defile, the road lies over a high, level country, winding round the snowy mountains of Granada, to "the dismal, ruinous village of mud walls," called Isnallos, five leagues from Granada. Soon after, proceeding down a valley, and over some heath and forest land, the traveller comes in view of that city and its plain,—“beautiful beyond expression, even in its winter weeds; what must it be,” exclaims Mr. Swinburne, “when decked out in all the gaudy colours of spring!”*

GRANADA.

THE Moors are said to have regretted the loss of no part of their Spanish possessions so much as this

* The distance from Cartagena to Granada is computed at fifty leagues. It is forty-five *posts* from Murcia to Granada.

once affluent and beautiful capital, the Damascus of the West. They still offer up their supplications, every Friday, for the recovery of this city; and the last Moorish ambassador who came into Spain, having obtained permission to visit Granada, is stated to have shed tears on entering the Alhamra. They have left more monuments behind them in this city, than in any other in the Peninsula; and it might almost be supposed, M. Peyron remarks, that they intended to make it the great depository of their learning, religion, and magnificence. There is not a wall which does not bear some marks of their greatness. Of the history of Granada prior to the Arabian invasion, nothing certain is known. The Spanish antiquaries assign to its foundation the remote date of 2808 years B.C. That a Phenician colony established itself here, is highly probable. It is alleged, that the ancient walls of the Alcaçaba are of a different sort of masonry from those of the Romans and Saracens, and similar to the acknowledged works of the Carthaginians. Granada was known to the Romans under the name of Illiberia, and the city was made by them a municipal colony, with the title of *Municipium Florentinum Illiberitanum*. The modern name signifies pomegranate; and a split pomegranate, the arms of the city, appears upon every gate or ornamented post in the streets and public walks.* The alluring beauty of

* Some writers suppose, that this name was given to the city on account of the fanciful resemblance which it bears to that fruit, when ripe; the two hills representing the bursting skin, and the houses crowded into the intermediate valley, the pips.—(Swinburne, vol. i. p. 218.) It may have been intended merely to characterise the deliciousness of the situation. Remmon, or Rimmon, the Hebrew for pomegranate, was the name of several ancient cities in Syria; and if it be true, as Swinburne states, without giving his authority, that the Arabs still call this city *Roman*, and the Jews,

the country; the striking situation of the place, and the salubrity of the air, united to recommend Granada as a most attractive object to the victorious Saracens; but it was for a long time eclipsed by Cordova and other Moorish cities. The march of Tarik, the Moorish general, after the battle of Xeres, was directed through the Sierra Morena to Toledo. That decisive battle was fought in the 91st year of the Hejira (July, A.D. 710). A detachment of his army was sent to reduce the sea-coast of Bætica; but, from the treaty between Abdelaziz and Theodemir, the Gothic Prince of Valencia, dated nearly three years later, it would seem that the south-eastern portion of Andalusia did not, in the first instance, attract the attention of the conqueror. Nor does Granada appear to have been for some time considered as a place of importance. The present town is said to have been built in the tenth century, at which time it belonged to the dominions of the sovereigns of Cordova. It was originally assigned to a colony of Arabs from Syria and Irak.* The Alhambra, however, does not appear to have been built for above five hun-

Rimmon, there can be no doubt that Granada is the mere translation of its ancient name. The etymological reveries which derive it from *Gar*, a cave, and *Nata*, Count Julian's daughter (whose name, however, others make to have been Cava); or, according to others, *Nata*, the daughter of Liberia, the wife of Hesperus, or a goddess of that name; or from *Grana*, corn; are undeserving of serious notice, as they only serve to prove the ignorance of those who framed them.

* "The royal legion of Damascus was planted at Cordova; that of Emesa at Seville; that of Chalcis at Jaen; that of Palestine at Algezira and Medina Sidonia; the natives of Yemen and Persia were scattered round Toledo and the inland country; and the fertile seats of Granada were bestowed on ten thousand horsemen, of Syria and Irak, the children of the purest and most noble of the Arabian tribes. Egyptian Arabs shared the establishments of the Moorish legions at Murcia and Lisbon."—GIBBON, chap. li. § 5.

dred years after the descent of the Arabs, towards the close of the thirteenth century. It was not till the year 1235, that, by the revolt of Meheméd Alhamar, this city became the capital of a new sovereignty, and began to acquire celebrity in the Moorish annals. That monarch is said to have been the ally, or rather, the tributary of St. Ferdinand, King of Castile, whom he assisted in his conquest of Seville. By his son, Muley Mehemed Abdallah, the building of the Alhamra is said to have been begun; and the great mosque was completed by his successor early in the fourteenth century. The Gate of Judgement, which forms the principal entrance, bears an inscription, attributing its erection to the unfortunate Yusef Abu Hagiagi: it is stated to have been finished in the 749th year of the Hejirâ (A.D. 1338). From that period, the kingdom of Granada began to decline. Its prosperity revived for a short time, under the enlightened government of Mehemed Abu Hadjad (A.D. 1379—1392); and for a hundred years after, though the scene of several sanguinary intestine revolutions, it continued to resist all the efforts of the Christian kings. But at length, in the year 1492, after a nine months' blockade, it was surrendered by the last of its sovereigns to the triumphant arms of Ferdinand and Isabella; and the Moorish power in Spain was extinguished, after their empire had subsisted for seven hundred and eighty years. At that period, the city is said to have been three leagues in circumference; its ramparts were defended by one thousand and thirty towers; and it comprised within its walls 70,000 houses, and 400,000 inhabitants. This enormous population is accounted for by the number of Moors who, as the Christians extended their conquests in Andalusia, took refuge in Granada as a secure asylum against the Spanish power.

In 1350, it is said to have amounted to only half that number. Of its appearance about this time, a native author (Ibn Alkhatib) gives the following description :—

“ The city of Granada is surrounded with most spacious gardens, where the trees are so thick set as to resemble hedges, yet not so as to obstruct the view of the beautiful towers of the Alhambra, which glitter like so many stars over the green forests. The plain, stretching far and wide, produces such quantities of grain and vegetables, that no revenues but those of the first families in the kingdom are equal to their annual produce. Each garden is calculated to bring in a neat income of 500 pieces of gold, out of which it pays thirty *minæ* to the king. Beyond these gardens lie fields of various culture, at all seasons of the year clad with the richest verdure, and loaded with some valuable vegetable production or other. Adjoining, you may see the sumptuous farms belonging to the royal demesnes, wonderfully agreeable to the beholder, from the large quantity of plantations of trees and the variety of the plants. These estates occupy an extent of twenty miles square. For the purpose of superintending and cultivating them, are kept numbers of able-bodied husbandmen and choice beasts, both of draught and burden. In most of them are castles, mills, and mosques. Many towns, remarkable for the number of their inhabitants and the excellence of their productions, lie dispersed round the boundaries of these crown lands. The plain contains also large tracts of meadow and pasture, villages and hamlets full of people, country-houses and small dwellings. I have heard the names of above three hundred hamlets in the environs of Granada. Within sight of the city

walls may be reckoned fifty colleges and places of worship, and above three hundred water-mills.

“ The Granadians are orthodox in religion, of the sect of the Malekites. They pay implicit obedience to the mandates of their princes, are patient of labour, and above measure liberal. They are in person comely, of a middle stature, with small nose, clear complexion, and black hair; elegant in their language, but rather prolix in discourse, and in disputing, haughty and obstinate. The greater number of their families derive their origin from houses of Barbary. Their dress consists of the most costly Persian or Turkish robes, of either fine woollen, linen, silk, or cotton. In winter, they wear the *albornos*, or African cloak; in summer, a loose white wrapper. The soldiers of Spanish extraction use in war a short coat of mail, a light helmet, Arabian horse-furniture, a leathern buckler, and a slender spear. Those born in Africa bear very long staves, called *amras*. Their dwellings are but slightly built. It is very curious to assist at the diversions of their festivals; for then the young people assemble in sets at the dancing-houses, and sing all manner of licentious ballads. The citizens of Granada eat the very best of wheaten bread throughout the year. The poorer sort and labourers are sometimes, in winter time, obliged to put up with barley bread, which, however, is excellent in its kind. They have every sort of fruit in abundance, especially grapes, of which the quantity eaten is incredible. Immense are the hoards of all species of dried fruits. They have also the secret of preserving grapes sound and juicy from one season to another. Both their gold and silver coin are good and near to purity. Many are the amusements and recreations of

the citizens, when they retire in autumn to their pretty villas in the suburbs. They are passionately fond of decking themselves out with gems and ornaments of gold and precious stones. The women are handsome, but of a stature rather below the middle size, so that it is rare to meet with a tall one among them. They are very delicate, and proud of encouraging a prodigious length of hair; their teeth are white as the driven snow, and their whole person is kept perfectly sweet by the abundant use of the most exquisite perfumes; they are light and airy in their gait, of a sprightly, acute wit, and smart in conversation. In this age, the vanity of the sex has carried the art of dressing themselves out with elegance, profusion, and magnificence, to such an excess, that it can no longer be simply called luxury, but is become absolute madness.”*

To every house in Granada was attached a garden, planted with orange, lemon, citron, laurel, myrtle, and other odoriferous trees and shrubs. All the houses were supplied with running water, and in every street, through the munificence of successive sovereigns, there were copious fountains for the public convenience, and for the performance of religious ablutions. Whatever, in short, could tend to promote the convenience and comfort of life was here to be found in the richest profusion. The houses in the Albaycin (the highest quarter in the city), which, in the time of the Moors, were ten thousand in number, were particularly elegant, being beautifully orna-

* Translated by Swinburne from Casiri's Latin Translation of the Arabic MS. entitled, "The History of Granada, by Abi Abdallah Ibn Alkhatib Absaneni," written A.H. 778 (1378), and preserved in the Escorial.—*Travels*, vol. i. p. 255.

mented with *damasquina* work.* The surrounding country is described by Alkhatib as rivalling in beauty the environs of Damascus. "Language, indeed," he says, "can with difficulty describe how happy, how charming it is rendered, by the softness of the air, the mildness of the climate, the bridges over the river, the splendour of the temples, and the convenience of its market-places (bazars?)." "Its territory abounds with gold, silver, lead, iron, tutty, marcasites, and sapphires. Among the plants growing on its mountains and in the marshes, are to be found the sulphur-wort, gentian, and spikenard. Its silken stuffs are deservedly reputed to be far superior to those of Syria, in beauty, softness, and fineness of texture." The surplus of the abundant crops produced by the exuberant fertility of the soil, was deposited in numberless granaries excavated in the sides of the mountains, which still remain, and furnish a wretched habitation to gipsies, who abound in this part of the Peninsula.

Such are the terms in which the native writers loved to dwell on the former glories of this Arabian capital. But, alas ! exclaims Swinburne, "those glories have passed away with its old inhabitants ; its streets are choked with filth, its aqueducts are crumbled to dust ; its woods are destroyed ; its territory is depopulated ; its trade is lost.....Nothing but the numerous ruins scattered over its hills, can induce one to believe that those bleak, barren wastes, which make up more than two-thirds of the province, were formerly covered with luxuriant plantations of fruit-trees, abundant harvests, or noble forests." Still, however, the plain of

* A peculiar kind of stucco ornament invented at Damascus.

Granada forms one of the most delightful spots in the world ; and the Alhamra remains, the pride and the disgrace of Spain.

Granada stands on two hills, at the foot of the *Sierra Nevada*, where two little rivers, the Dauro (*Auro*) and the Xenil (*Singilis*), form a junction, and, after watering the whole plain, take a westerly course, and flow on to Seville. The ancient palace of the Alhamra and the *Torre Vermeja* crown the double summit of the hill between the rivers : the other hill, north of the Dauro, is covered with the quarters of the Albaycin and the Alcaçaba. The remainder of the city extends along the skirts of the plain in a semicircular form. The *Vega*, or plain, which is between three and four thousand feet above the level of the sea,* is thirty leagues in length, by about sixteen in breadth. A gentle slope of beautiful hillocks bounds the horizon on all sides, except on the north, where the *Sierra Nevada* lifts it head into the regions of snow, and to the north-west, where the view is terminated by the bare summit of the *Sierra de los Infantes*.† The height of these mountains gives this elevated plain the appearance of a delicious valley. Mr. Jacob (of whose Travels in the South of Spain in 1809-10, we shall now have occasion to avail ourselves) thus describes the exquisite prospect which presented itself when he reached the top of some small hills within two leagues of the city, on the

* Mr. Jacob says, " about 1200 yards, or nearly three quarters of a mile." The latitude, according to Pedraza, is $37^{\circ} 50'$; but Francisco Dalman, who published a map of the kingdom in 1796, makes it $37^{\circ} 22'$.

† So called from the death of the princes of Castile, Pedro and Juan, who perished here, through the excessive heat and thirst, in a battle against the Moors, A.D. 1319.

road from Malaga. "The rich and populous country, well supplied with trees, the clear rivulets descending from the mountains, and artificially contrived to intersect it in every part; the splendid city, extending in a half-moon from the river, clothing the gradual ascent of a hill; the streets rising above each other; the profusion of turrets and gilded cupolas; the summit crowned with the Alhamra; the back-ground composed of the majestic *Sierra Nevada*, with its top covered with snow, — completed a scene to which no description can do justice; a scene, to view which we had travelled on horseback two hundred miles over the worst roads in the world, and which we nevertheless considered as amply repaying us for the fatigue we had endured, and the filth we had encountered. This place, however, should be viewed at a distance, and not be too nearly inspected; for the splendid poverty visible within, destroys the illusion created by a distant view."

The modern city contains, according to Mr. Townsend, twenty-three parish-churches, forty convents, three *beaterios*, seventeen *ermitas*, or chapels, nine hospitals, and eight colleges. It is the see of an archbishop, and the seat of one of the two high courts of chancery in Spain, the other being at Valladolid. The population in 1786, according to the Government returns, amounted to 52,325 souls; but Mr. Townsend, "upon good authority," is disposed to carry it as high as 80,000. Mr. Jacob states it at between 60 and 70,000 in 1810, adding, that it is capable of containing a much greater number.* "The streets," he says,

* Laborde says, only 50,000, which is conformable to a recent census, adopted in the *Manuel Géographique et Statistique de l'Espagne*. Of this number, Swinburne says, "only 18,000 are useful working hands: the surplus is made up of lawyers, clergymen,

"are generally narrow, and the houses by no means so handsome in their appearance as in the other cities I have seen." The market-place is spacious; but the houses which surround it are despicable: few of the upper apartments have glass in the windows, and the shops below are very indifferently supplied with goods. One part of the town, which, in the time of the Moors, formed the bazar, is not inhabited; but the gates which enclose it being shut at night, the property in the different shops is secured from theft. The city had formerly twenty gates: a few of these only are now entire, but the ruins of most of the rest are still in existence. The cathedral is a very splendid but irregular building, 425 feet in length, by 249 in breadth; and the great dome is 169 feet high, by 80 in diameter. It is divided into five aisles, adorned with Ionic columns. Its irregularity has arisen from its consisting, in fact, of three churches made into one, the royal chapel and the *Sagrario* having been taken into it. The most striking parts, Mr. Jacob says, are the high altar and the choir, in which the most beautiful marbles have been employed. Here are two fine monuments; one to the memory of Philip I. and his queen Joanna; the other to Ferdinand and Isabella. The dome is supported by twenty-two Corinthian columns; and colossal statues of the twelve apostles, gilt, are ranged on the architrave. Some of the best pictures of Alonzo Cano are in this church, and there

children, and beggars. There are no fewer than a thousand sturdy, able-bodied rascals, that live by alms and conventual donations." Mr. Townsend states, that the archbishop, who daily distributed bread to all applicants, counted them one day, and found the men 2,000, the women 3,024: at another time, the women were 4,000. And in this indiscreet and pernicious bounty, he was imitated by forty convents!

are two beautiful statues of our first parents, the size of life, and admirably executed, by the same artist. Here, too, Mr. Townsend says, is deposited the image of the Virgin, carried by Ferdinand and Isabella in all their wars as the pledge of victory.* The palace of the archbishop stands close to the cathedral: it is very extensive, and has a handsome appearance.† The captain-general of the kingdom of Granada resides in the palace of the chancery, which has a splendid façade, ornamented with alabaster columns and gilt balconies. Among the other public edifices, the church of *N. Señora de los Angustias* is distinguished by the profusion of fine marble, obtained from the neighbouring mountains,‡ and the execrable taste exhibited in

* Townsend, vol. iii. p. 65. Jacob, p. 290. Bourgoing (Peyron), vol. iv. p. 145. Laborde, vol. ii. p. 101. Pedro de Mena, the pupil of Cano, is also mentioned by Mr. Jacob as having contributed to the decoration of this cathedral. The equestrian statue of Santiago is deemed his best production. Among the best paintings in the cathedral, Mr. Townsend mentions those of Don Pedro de Athanasia, a native of Granada, especially his "famous picture" of S. Pedro de Narasco; also, "four incomparable pictures by Espanoleto, two good ones by Risueno, and one excellent by John of Seville. Here, likewise, is the famous sculpture of Charity."

† "I noticed it," says Mr. Jacob, "as the scene of some of the incidents in the history of Gil Blas, whose adventures are affirmed by all Spaniards to have been translated by Le Sage from one of their early novels."

‡ The dark-green, from the *Sierra Nevada*, is esteemed the most valuable. Tables of an extraordinary size of this marble were cut for the infant Don Luis about sixty or seventy years ago; but the roads have since been so cut up by the torrents as to render the carriage of such large blocks almost impracticable. There are also many handsome brown marbles and alabasters, diversified by an almost infinite variety of shades and tints. Swinburne states, that it was usual to frame fine specimens of marble, and hang them up, by way of ornament, in the apartments of the higher classes. One whole street was occupied by artificers employed in making little boxes, bracelets, necklaces, and other trinkets of the same materials.

its decoration. In the *Cartuxa*, or convent of the Carthusians, "every thing is valuable:" the marbles are in great variety and highly wrought, the pictures numerous and by the best masters. The dome of the church is covered with fine paintings in fresco by Palomino. The convents of *Los Angeles*, San Domingo, and the Capuchins, are also said to contain some good pictures. That of *San Juan de Dios* has a church admirable for its proportions, but ornamented in the most execrable taste. The ashes of the saint are here deposited in an urn five feet in height, surrounded by images of the thirteen apostles, about fifteen inches high, and covered with a dome, supported by eight columns, of about seven feet high; the whole of massive silver, exquisitely wrought. Such a treasure, at least, did this church possess in the year 1786. The church of the Geronimites contains a fine marble statue of its founder, Ferdinand Gonzales de Cordova, surnamed "the Great Captain."

The amphitheatre for bull-fights is built with stone, and passes for one of the best in Spain. There is a theatre, differing in its construction from those in other parts of Spain: the men occupy all the pit or ground-floor, and the women sit very high up, in a crazy kind of gallery. Most of the smaller houses, Mr. Swinburne says, are of Moorish building, or coarse imitations of that manner, the modern masons decorating their walls with uncouth copies of the Saracenic mosaics. "There is scarcely a house in Granada," he adds, "that has not over its door, in large red characters, the words, *Ave Maria purissima, sin pecado concebida*, the *cri de guerre* of the Franciscans."*

* This doctrine of the immaculate conception of the Virgin Mary is a favourite tenet in Spain. According to Swinburne, all

Of the Moorish edifices within the city, Laborde mentions only a singular structure near the cathedral, "built in porticoes, supported by marble columns," which was formerly a mosque, but is now a parish church; and M. Peyron notices an edifice, over the gate of which is a long Arabian inscription, setting forth, that it was founded as an asylum for the benefit of poor or sick Moors, by King Abi Abdallah, in the 778th year of the Hejira (A.D. 1376). In the first court, there is a fine reservoir, with two lions rudely sculptured in marble, through which the water runs into the basin; but the edifice is not otherwise remarkable.

THE ALHAMRA.

BUT we have too long detained the reader from the royal fortress and palace which forms the chief ornament of Granada, and the noblest monument of the Moorish dynasty. Like Windsor Castle, the Alhamra *

the knights of the new order of *Carlos Tercero*, all the ancient military orders, and all candidates for degrees, took an oath to defend by word and deed this monstrous dogma. The Dominicans were the grand antagonists of the Conceptionists. These inscriptions over the houses of the Granadines, however, were probably designed as a public confession of orthodoxy on the part of the old inhabitants after the conquest, that might serve to protect their effects from confiscation, on the suspicion of secret Mohammedism.

* Or *Medinet Alhamra* (erroneously written Alhambra), that is, the Red City; so called, according to the Arabian writers, from the colour of the materials. Other derivations less probable have been assigned. Alkhatib, in particular, ascribes its name to the circumstance of the workmen having wrought at it by candle-light. We are not informed whether the vicinity affords a red earth: if it does, not only would the former etymology be established, but the coincidence would be remarkable, that a red soil is found in the *Agro Damasceno*, to which the environs of Granada have always been compared by the Moors.—See MOD. TRAV., *Syria*, vol. ii. pp. 38, 74. By the modern Spaniards, the Alhamra is called *La Sierra del Sol*, the Mountain of the Sun, it being exposed to the rising sun.

is finely situated on the brow of a steep hill, commanding an extensive prospect over the fertile vale, and towering with venerable aspect above the city. The sides towards the citadel are so dilapidated, or so encumbered with modern buildings, that very few traces of the ancient external walls are now visible; but the interior is in tolerable preservation. Since the conquest of Granada by Ferdinand and Isabella, in the year 1492, the Alhamra has undergone various alterations. The Emperor Charles the Fifth caused a magnificent edifice to be commenced on the ruins of the offices of the old Moorish palace, with the view, it is supposed, of making it his constant residence; but it was never completed; and the suite of apartments which were constructed, like all the rest of the Alhamra, are falling rapidly to decay. "At present, the walls are defaced, the paintings faded, the wood-work is decayed, and festoons of cobwebs are seen hanging from the ceiling. In the works of the Arabs, on the contrary, the walls remain unaltered, except by the injuries inflicted by the hand of man. The colours of the paintings, in which there is no mixture of oil, on removing the particles of dust, appear to have preserved their brightness. The beams and wood-work of the ceilings present no signs of decay; and spiders, flies, and all other insects shun these apartments at every season."* "All the ornaments of the Alhamra are intermixed with more modern ones of the age of Ferdinand and Isabella, and of the Emperor Charles the Fifth, whose arms, together with some of their successors, destroy in some degree the

* "The art of rendering timber and paints durable, and of making porcelain, mosaics, arabesques, and other ornaments, began and ended in Western Europe with the Spanish Arabs."—*Hist. of the Mahom. Empire in Spain*, p. 196.

effect of that illusion which might otherwise transport the beholder to the palace of the Khalif of Damascus, or to the scenes of the Arabian Nights. This execrable taste is even carried so far, that an image of the Virgin, or an inscription in praise of the Catholic conquerors, very frequently stands by the side of others of opposite import."

The road to the Alhamra is by a winding ascent through a wood of lofty elms, mixed with poplars and oleanders, and some orange and lemon trees. By the side of the path are beautiful marble fountains, from which transparent streams are constantly rushing down.* Here, the melodious warbling of nightingales may be heard, not only at the midnight hour; it is equally "the delight of noon." A large fountain, ornamented with imperial eagles and other sculptures and bas-reliefs in good taste, but much dilapidated, adorns the platform near the top of the hill. It bears an inscription, *Caesari Imperatori Carolo V. Hispaniarum Regi*. "Here," says Mr. Swinburne, whom we must now take as our *cicerone*, "you turn short to the left, and come under the walls of the inner enclosure. Its appearance is that of an old town, exhibiting a long range of high, embattled walls, interrupted at regular distances by large, lofty, square towers. These have one or two arched windows near the top, and a precipitate slope from the bottom into a dry ditch. The whole is built with round, irregular pebbles, mixed with cement and gravel. Some parts are covered and

* This wood, Swinburne says, is intersected by wild, neglected walks, where streams of clear water, finding their passage obstructed by the rubbish of their old channels, spread over the whole road. In like manner, the water, diverted from its proper conduits, and suffered to run at random, has almost destroyed the sculpture of the beautiful fountain erected by Charles the Fifth.

smoothed over with a thick coat of plaster: in other places, mortar has been laid in between the stones, leaving as much of them uncovered as came to the level; then, the trowel has been carefully drawn round, forming about them triangles, half-moons, &c. Just before you stands the principal entrance into the castle, a square tower, built by the King Juzaf Abuhagiagi in 1338, as an inscription informs us. From its being the place where justice was summarily administered, it was styled, 'the Gate of Judgement.' You pass through it under several arches, each of which is more than a full semicircle, resting upon a small impost, the ends of the bow being brought towards each other in the form of a horse-shoe. On the keystone of the outward arch is sculptured the figure of an arm, the symbol of strength and dominion. On that of the next arch is a key embossed, the armorial ensign of the Andalusian Moors.* Above it, the wall of this partition is covered with a beautiful blue and gold mosaic, in the middle of which the Christians have placed an image of the Virgin Mary. As this is not a gate ever used for carriages, the passage winds through several turns, full of images, indulgences, and altars, before you get through, out into a narrow street, between a row of shabby barracks on the right, and on the left the castle wall, supposed to have been built by the Phenicians. I examined the work very

* The key among the Moslems, answers to the cross among Christians: it is the symbol of their faith. It was, moreover, the armorial ensign of the Andalusian Moors. The hand was a symbol of Providence, as well as of the five fundamental tenets of Islam. A talismanic power was ascribed to it; and the Spanish women are said still to hang round the necks of their children, a collar made of little hands of ebony, box, or ivory, to preserve them from enchantments,—a superstition borrowed from the Moors.—*BOURGOING*, vol. iv. pp. 146—8.

narrowly, and found it consisted of a layer of cement one or two inches thick, upon which is placed flat-wise a stone of the same thickness, chiseled on the face into a kind of chequered design. This is the regular method employed from top to bottom. This lane ends in the great square, or *Plaza de los Algibes*, so named from the ancient cisterns, that undermine it from end to end, and are constantly fed by a supply of running water. The prospect from the parapet-wall is wonderfully grand, over the vale of Dauro, the Albaycin, and down the *Vega*. On the very brow of the hill, hanging over the city, stand the *Torres de la Campana* (Towers of the Bell), a groupe of high square buildings, which now serve for prisons. Below them, on the south side, on a slip of terrace, is the governor's garden, a very pleasant walk, full of fine orange and cypress-trees, and myrtle hedges, but quite abandoned. The view it commands is incomparable. Two large vases, enamelled with gold and azure foliages and characters, are the only ornaments left. These were taken out of the vaults under the royal apartments. On the right hand of the *Plaza de los Algibes* is a solitary gateway, formerly the entrance into some of the outward quadrangles thrown down by Charles the Fifth, to make room for his superb palace, which stands facing the *Torres de la Campana*. This edifice is a perfect square, of 200 Spanish feet. It has two orders of pilasters, Doric and Ionic, upon a rustic base. The whole measures sixty-two feet from the top of the upper entablement to the ground. Three of the fronts are free from all other buildings; the fourth, that to the north, is joined and connected with the ancient palace of the Moorish kings. It was never finished, which is much to be regretted by all lovers of the fine arts, for there are few edifices more de-

serving of their admiration. The architect was Alonzo Verruguete, a native of Paredes de Navas, near Valladolid. In this work he has discovered a most transcendent genius, grandeur of style and elegance, and chastity of design.....The doors are designed in a great manner. The bas-reliefs, figures, festoons, medallions, &c., are of excellent invention and execution; the ornaments of the cornices, windows, and capitals, are delicate and suitable to the general effect. On the pedestals of the columns that support the entablement of the great door, are reliefs on dark marble, that, for polish, might pass at a little distance for bronze. The Doric door in the south side, called *el Zanguenete*, has something simply elegant in the taste, and new in the ornamental part. The pediment is filled with a scroll thrown with great ease, on which is inscribed *Plus Outre*, the motto of the emperor, which he never failed introducing into every public work he undertook. You come through an oblong vestibule into the court which forms the centre of the palace. It is an exact circle of 144 feet diameter, round which runs a Doric colonnade, or portico, of thirty-two columns, supporting an upper gallery of an equal number of pillars of the Ionic order. They are all of them of one entire block of reddish marble. The portico is nineteen feet wide, and serves as a communication with the staircase and the intended apartments, which are disposed round the court in various forms and proportions. The roof of the gallery is crumbling away very fast, and many of the columns are much damaged. The apartments never had any other covering than the sky; and nothing but the matchless temperature of the climate could have saved this beautiful work so many years from total ruin. The magnificence, the unity of this whole pile, but, above

all, the elegance of the circular court, quite transported me with pleasure on the first view ; and I have ever since found my admiration increase in proportion to the number of my visits.*

“ Adjoining, to the north, stands a huge heap of as ugly buildings as can well be seen, all huddled together, seemingly without the least intention of forming one habitation out of them. The walls are entirely unornamented ; all gravel and pebbles daubed over with plaster by a very coarse hand. Yet, this is the palace of the Moorish kings of Granada, indisputably the most curious place within that exists in Spain, perhaps in Europe. In many countries, you may see excellent modern as well as ancient architecture, both entire and in ruins ; but nothing to be met with any where else can convey an idea of this edifice, except you take it from the decorations of an opera, or the Tales of the Genii. Passing round the corner of the emperor’s palace, you are admitted at a plain, unornamented door in a corner. On my first visit, I confess I was struck with amazement as I stepped over the threshold, to find myself on a sudden trans-

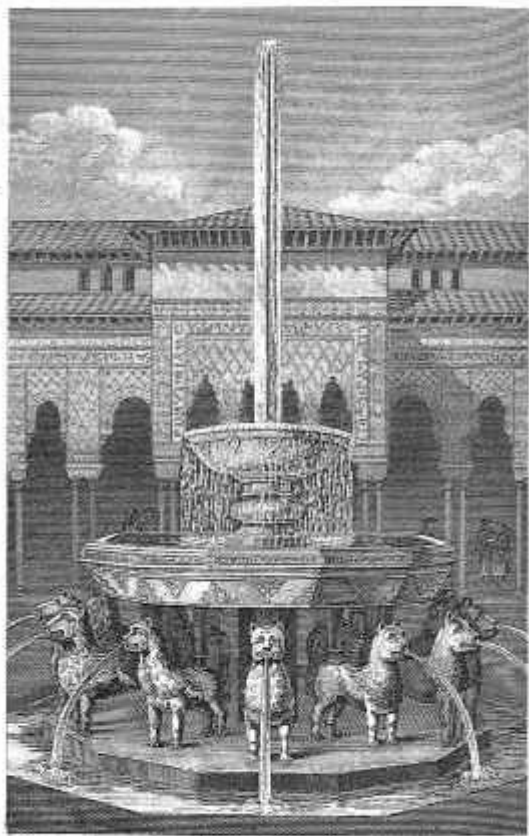
* This palace is said to have been erected with the money which the emperor had the art to obtain from the Moors, under the pretence of allowing them liberty of conscience. They advanced, at two payments, 160,000 ducats, for which they received nothing but promises, which were shamefully violated. At the death of Charles the Fifth, this palace was abandoned. “ Few buildings,” says Mr. Jacob, “ can exceed this in beauty. Perhaps the Banqueting-house at Whitehall more nearly resembles it than any other building in England, and may give some idea of it.” The contrast between the exterior beauty of this palace and the outward meanness of that of the Moorish kings, is very striking and characteristic. It is on the inside of their dwellings that the Asiatics lavish all their arts of decoration. For this, the state of society may seem to account, which requires that wealth should conceal itself under the garb of meanness, and that the palace should also be a fortress.

ported into a species of fairy-land. The first place you come to, is the court called the *Communa*, or *del Mesucar*, that is, the Common Baths; an oblong square, with a deep basin of clear water in the middle, two flights of marble steps leading down to the bottom, on each side a parterre of flowers, and a row of orange-trees. Round the court runs a peristyle paved with marble. The arches bear upon very slight pillars, in proportions and style different from all the regular orders of architecture. The ceilings and walls are incrustated with fretwork in stucco, so minute and intricate, that the most patient draughtsman would find it difficult to follow it, unless he made himself master of the general plan. This would facilitate the operation exceedingly; for all this work is frequently and regularly repeated at certain distances, and has been executed by means of square moulds applied successively, and the parts joined together with the utmost nicety. In every division are Arabic sentences of different lengths, most of them expressive of the following meanings: *There is no conqueror but God; or, Obedience and honour to our Lord Abouabdoulah*. The ceilings are gilt or painted; and time has caused no diminution in the freshness of their colours, though constantly exposed to the air. The lower part of the walls is mosaic, disposed in fantastic knots and festoons. The porches at the ends are more like grotto-work than any thing else I can compare them to. That on the right hand opens into an octagon vault, under the emperor's palace, and forms a perfect whispering gallery, meant to be a communication between the offices of both houses.

“ Opposite to the door of the *Communa*, through which you enter, is another, leading into the *Quarto de los Leones*, or apartment of the lions. This is an

oblong court, 100 feet in length, and 50 in breadth, environed with a colonnade seven feet broad on the sides, and ten at the end. Two porticoes, or cabinets, about fifteen feet square, project into the court at the two extremities. The square is paved with coloured tiles, the colonnade with white marble. The walls are covered, five feet up from the ground, with blue and yellow tiles, disposed chequerwise. Above and below is a border of small escutcheons, enamelled blue and gold, with an Arabic motto on a bend, signifying, *No conqueror but God*. The columns that support the roof and gallery are of white marble, very slender, and fantastically adorned. They are nine feet high, including the base and capital, and eight inches and a half in diameter. They are very irregularly placed, sometimes singly, at others in groupes of three, but more frequently two together. The width of the horse-shoe arches above them is four feet two inches for the large ones, and three for the smaller. The ceiling of the portico is finished in a much finer and more complicated manner than that of the Communa; and the stucco is laid on the walls with inimitable delicacy. In the ceiling it is frosted, and handled with astonishing art. The capitals are of various designs, though each design is repeated several times in the circumference of the court; but not the least attention has been paid to placing them regularly or opposite to each other.....Not the smallest representation of animal life can be discovered amidst the varieties of foliage, grotesques, and strange ornaments. About each arch is a large square of arabesques, surrounded with a rim of characters, that are generally quotations from the Koran. Over the pillars is another square of delightful filigree-work. Higher up is a wooden rim, or kind of cornice, as much enriched with carving





THE COURT OF THE LIONS IN THE ALHAMBRA.

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as the stucco that covers the part underneath. Over this projects a roof of red tiles, the only thing that disfigures this beautiful square. This ugly covering is modern, put on by order of Mr. Wall, the late prime minister, who a few years ago gave the Alhamra a thorough repair. In Moorish times, the building was covered with large painted and glazed tiles, of which some few are still to be seen. In the centre of the court are twelve ill-made lions muzzled, their fore-parts smooth, their hind-parts rough, which bear upon their backs an enormous basin, out of which a smaller one rises. While the pipes were kept in good order, a great volume of water was thrown up, which, falling down into the basins, passed through the beasts, and issued out of their mouths into a large reservoir, where it communicated by channels with the *jets d'eau* in the apartments. This fountain is of white marble, embellished with many festoons and Arabic distichs.*

“ Passing along the colonnade, and keeping on the south side, you come to a circular room, used by the men as a place for drinking coffee and sorbets. A fountain in the middle refreshed the apartment in

* The smaller basin is described by M. Peyron as an alabaster cup, or rather vase, of one single piece, six feet in diameter; and he adds, that it is said to have been made in imitation of the brazen sea of Solomon. Swinburne has given a pretended translation of the Arabic verses which are inscribed on this fountain, professing to take it from a Latin translation; but either he was imposed upon, or he has drawn upon his invention. M. Peyron has also given a translation, in which some approach to the meaning of the original is occasionally preserved; but it has neither the merit of fidelity nor of intelligibility. The reader who wishes to see a competent version of these Arabian poems, may consult the Appendix to the History of the Mahommedan Empire in Spain (4to, London, 1816), in which they are given at length, as translated by Mr. Shakespear. It is doubtful, however, whether an accurate transcript has yet been made of the originals.

summer. The form of this hall, the elegance of its cupola, the cheerful distribution of light from above, and the exquisite manner in which the stucco is designed, painted, and finished, exceed all my powers of description. Every thing in it inspires the most pleasing, voluptuous ideas. Yet, in this sweet retreat, they pretend that Abouabdoulah assembled the Abencerrages, and caused their heads to be struck off into the fountain.*

* The romantic though tragical story of the murder of the Abencerrages, as detailed by the Spanish historian Giles Perez, has furnished Dryden with the ground-work of his "Conquest of Granada;" and a Spanish ballad, translated in Bishop Percy's Relics of Ancient Poetry, is drawn from the same source. The story is well told by Swinburne. M. Peyron has given a translation from an Arabic MS. of the year 1492, purporting to be an official report of the transaction; but he does not state where the MS. exists; and it is very possibly the document referred to by Swinburne as having been *found* by Medina Conde, the genuineness of which he seems to think questionable. Doubts have been entertained respecting the whole transaction. The alleged facts were briefly these. In the reign of Abou Abdoulah, the four most powerful families in Granada were, the Alabeces, the Abencerrages, the Zegris, and the Gomeles. The head of the Abencerrages, Albin Hamet, (the Arabic MS. calls him Mahomed Aben Zurran,) was high in the king's favour, and "the queen called him her council." One of the Zegris, instigated by envy, resolved on pulling him down from this invidious eminence; and he adopted the diabolical scheme of privately denouncing him to the king as conspiring against his honour and his throne, charging him with a guilty intimacy with the queen. The credulous monarch, in the fury of jealousy, determined on the destruction of the whole house. They were invited to the palace; but no sooner had each unhappy victim entered the hall of lions, than he was seized and beheaded. Thirty-six of the noblest of the race had perished before the treachery was discovered by a page, and the alarm given in the city. The people flew to arms, and proceeded tumultuously to the Alhambra, resolved on the death of the tyrant. Abou Abdoulah escaped, but two hundred of the Zegris and Gomeles are stated to have been slain by the friends of the Abencerrages. At length, the tumult being appeased by the wisdom of Musa, brother to the king, a grand council was held, in which Abou Abdallah declared

“ Continuing your walk round, you are next brought to a couple of rooms, supposed to have been tribunals, or audience-chambers. In the ceiling are three historical paintings, executed with much strength, but great stiffness in the figures and countenances. One of them seems to be a cavalcade; the other the entrance of some princess; and the third a divan. When these were painted, and what they are meant to represent, I could not make out; but our *cicerone* naturally adapted them to the history of the sultana and the four Christian knights.*

his reasons for the punishment inflicted on the Abencerrages; and the queen was sentenced to be burned alive, if, within thirty days, she did not produce four knights to defend her cause against her four accusers. The fatal day arrived, and the queen, who had declined all the offers of the Moorish knights, was led forth to execution, when four Christian knights, disguised as Turkish horsemen, rode into the great square; these were no other than Don Juan de Chacon, Lord of Carthage, to whom the queen had secretly written to implore his aid, accompanied by the Duke of Arcos, Don Alonzo de Aguilar, and Don Ferdinand de Cordova. Each Christian champion slew his antagonist, and the arch-traitor, Mahomed Zegri (the Arabic MS. calls him Zulem), with his dying breath, confessed the falsehood of the accusation against the queen, which he had invented to accomplish the ruin of his rival. The victors immediately left Granada without discovering themselves to any other person than the queen, who was escorted back to the palace in triumph. She inflexibly refused, however, to have any further intercourse with the king; and the secession of his ablest officers and most powerful nobles, left him so entirely at the mercy of his enemies, that in a few months, the Castilian gained possession of the Alhamra and Granada.

* The Author very justly supposes them not to be Moorish; first, because Abou Abdoulah could not be desirous to perpetuate the memory of a transaction so dishonourable to himself; and secondly, because an anathema is denounced by the Koran against all representations of living creatures. The lions, however, he remarks, may be brought as an argument against the latter reason; “ and indeed they shew,” he adds, “ that the Granadine princes, as well as some of the Oriental khalifs, who put their own effigy on their coin, ventured now and then to place themselves above the letter of the law.”

“ Opposite to the *Sala de los Abencerrages*, is the entrance into the *Torre de las dos Hermanas*, or the Tower of the two Sisters, so named from two very beautiful pieces of marble, laid as flags in the pavement. This gate exceeds all the rest in the profusion of ornaments, and in beauty of prospect, which it affords through a range of apartments, where a multitude of arches terminate in a large window open to the country. In a gleam of sunshine, the variety of tints and lights thrown upon this *enfilade*, are uncommonly rich.... The first hall is the concert-room, where the women sate : the musicians played above in four balconies. In the middle is a *jet d'eau*. The marble pavement I take to be equal to the finest existing, for the size of the flags and the evenness of the colour. The two sisters, which give name to the room, are slabs that measure fifteen feet by seven and a half, without flaw or stain. The walls, up to a certain height, are mosaic, and above are divided into very neat compartments of stucco, all of one design ; which is also followed in many of the adjacent halls and galleries. The ceiling is a fretted cove. To preserve this vaulted roof, as well as some of the other principal cupolas, the outward walls of the towers are raised ten feet above the top of the dome, and support another roof over all ; by which means no damage can ever be caused by wet weather or excessive heat and cold. From this hall you pass round the little myrtle garden of Lindaraxa, into an additional building made to the east end by Charles the Fifth. The rooms are small and low : his dear motto, *Plus Outre*, appears on every beam. This leads to a little tower projecting from the line of the north wall, called *El Tocador*, or the dressing-room of the sultana. It is a small, square cabinet, in the middle of an open gallery,

from which it receives light by a door and three windows. The look-out is charming. In one corner is a large marble flag, drilled full of holes, through which the smoke of perfumes ascended from furnaces below; and here, it is presumed, the Moorish queen was wont to sit, to fumigate and sweeten her person. The emperor caused this pretty little room to be painted with representations of his wars, and a great variety of grotesques, which appear to be copies, or, at least, imitations of those in the *Loggie* of the Vatican. They have been shamefully abused by idle scribblers. What remains shews them to be the work of able artists. From hence you go through a long passage to the Hall of Ambassadors, which is magnificently decorated with innumerable varieties of mosaics, and the mottos of all the kings of Granada. This long, narrow anti-chamber opens into the *Communa* on the left hand, and, on the right, into the great audience-hall in the tower of *Comares*; a noble apartment, thirty-six feet square, thirty-six feet high up to the cornice, and eighteen from thence to the centre of the cupola. The walls on three sides are fifteen feet thick, on the other, nine: the lower range of windows is thirteen feet high. The whole hall is inlaid with mosaic of many colours, disposed in intricate knots, stars, and other figures. In every part are repeated certain Arabic sentences. These inscriptions, dispersed all over the palace, prove that there is very little of it remaining that is not the work of Abulhaghagh, or of Abouabdoulah.

“ Having thus completed the tour of the upper apartments, which are upon a level with the offices of the new palace, you descend to the lower floor, which consisted of bed-chambers and summer-rooms. The back stairs and passages that facilitated the intercourse

between them, are without number. The most remarkable room below is the king's bed-chamber, which communicated, by means of a gallery, with the upperstory. The beds were placed in two alcoves, upon a raised pavement of blue and white tiles ; but, as it has been repaired by Philip V., who passed some time here, I cannot say how it may have been in former times. A fountain played in the middle, to refresh the apartment in hot weather. Behind the alcoves are small doors, that conduct you to the royal baths. These consist of one small closet, with marble cisterns for washing children ; two rooms for grown up persons, and vaults for boilers and furnaces, that supplied the baths with water, and the stoves with vapours. The troughs are formed of large slabs of white marble. The walls are beautified with party-coloured earthenware. Light is admitted by holes in the coved ceiling. Hard by is a whispering gallery, and a kind of labyrinth, said to have been made for the diversion of the women and children. One of the passages of communication is fenced off with a strong iron grate, and is called the prison of the sultana ; but it seems more probable, that it was put up to prevent any body from climbing up into the women's quarter.* Under the council-room is a long slip, called the king's study ; and adjoining to it are several vaults, said to be the place of burial for the royal family. In the

* M. Peyron says : " The iron railing of the queen's prison and the corridor appeared modern, compared to the rest of the palace, and seemed to me to have been of the time of Charles V. The gallery leads to four apartments, built under the same emperor, on a base of Moorish construction. The superb cabinet, called the queen's toilet, joins these empty apartments. It is certain that this cabinet served for the toilet of the empress of Charles V., and since that time, was made use of for the same purpose by the Queen Isabella."

year 1574, four sepulchres were opened ; but, as they contained nothing but bones and ashes, they were immediately closed again." *

M. Peyron mentions a "closed door" in the Hall of the Abencerrages, which, he says, communicates with the habitation of the Vicar of the Alhamra. "He is lodged in a kind of fortress, of which surprising things are related." From the Hall of the Baths, he also states, "a gallery leads to that of the Nymphs, so called from two female figures of white marble, sculptured with much art and exactness. The subterraneous chamber in which they were placed, contains several large urns, that formerly held the treasures of the Moorish kings. The Archbishop of Granada has lately forbidden these statues to be seen, from a regard to good morals, and he has taken away the key of the case in which they are preserved." They are generally supposed, he adds, to be the production of an Arabian artist, which is not very probable. If they exist, they will doubtless prove to be either some relic of antiquity, or, what is more likely, the work of some foreign sculptor of the age of Charles the Fifth, who is the only person likely to have introduced marble nymphs into this Mohammedan palace.

Although the Arabs were unacquainted with perspective, yet nothing, it has justly been remarked, can be more truly picturesque than their architecture, or better calculated to make a small building appear larger than it really is. Except in the side towards the precipice, where the prospect is very grand, the windows are so placed as to confine the view to the interior of the palace. The purport of an inscription

* Swinburne, vol. i. pp. 269—93.

in one of the apartments, is to this effect : " My windows admit the light, and exclude the view of external objects, lest the beauties of nature should divert your attention from the beauties of my workmanship." The arabesques, paintings, and mosaics give a consequence and interest to even the smallest apartment. The receding ornaments are illuminated in just gradations with leaf-gold, pink, light blue, and dusky purple : the first colour is the nearest, the last the most distant from the eye ; but the general surface is white. In every part of the palace, they had water in abundance, and they seem to have had an almost magical control over the genial element ;—sometimes making it spout in the air, tempering the aridity of the atmosphere ; at other times, spreading it out in the midst of a court, in a large, oblong, glassy sheet, in which were seen repeated the architectural details, or the reflection of a serene azure sky. A long, narrow bed of roses bordered the basin on either side ; and a perennial stream stole in at one end, and out at the other, leaving the surface, on a level with the paved floor, as smooth as a mirror. The whole range being on the same plane, the courts seemed but a continuation of the suite of apartments. Halls and galleries, porticoes and columns, arches and mosaics, with balsamic plants and flowers of every hue, were seen through the spray of playing fountains. Add to this, the costly furniture which once adorned this palace,—of citron, sandal, and aloes-wood, ornamented with ivory and mother-of-pearl, intermixed with burnished gold and cerulean blue,—vases of curious and costly workmanship, of porcelain, rock-crystal, sardonyx, or mosaic,—the rich hangings, flowery carpets, and luxurious sofas, or divans, the whole perfumed with the precious frankincense of Yemen ;—and we

may form some idea of what this Arabian palace must have been in the days of Moorish grandeur, when the throne of empire in the Golden Saloon* was surrounded by the turbaned race in all their gorgeous costumes, or the princely inhabitants paced the Court of Lions, robed in fine linens, silks, and embroidery, glittering with gold and gems. At that period, the Gothic monarchs of Castile skirted their halls with mats, and covered the floors with bulrushes. What England was at this era, as to manners, arts, and luxuries, under her Edwards, may be learned from Froissart. But alas ! this noble palace, Mr. Jacob says, is hastening to decay, and, without repairs, will, in a few years, be a pile of ruins. Its voluptuous apartments, its stately columns, and its lofty walls, will be mingled together, and no memorial will be left in Spain of the pomp and glory of the western khalifate.

The whole fortress of the Alhamra is very extensive, and contains a considerable number of inhabitants. It has a separate governor, with the title of *alcalde*. One part, in 1810, was converted into a prison for the French troops. Within the enclosure of the walls stands a mosque, now converted into a Christian church, the absurd ornaments of which form

* Such was the name given to the apartment now called *La Sala de Embaxadores*, described as being "arched so high, that giants may keep their turbans on." The *Sala de las dos Hermanas*, though not so large, displays still more ingenuity of construction. "The domes, in particular, are the most curious productions of architecture, without exception, that have ever been seen, and they are in excellent preservation. Notwithstanding the apparent slightness of the construction of the edifice, the resistance is so well adjusted to the impulse, that there is not an instance of any part being pushed out of its place, or of having sunk under the incumbent weight."—*Hist. of the Mahom. Empire in Spain*, p. 197.

a striking contrast to the simple columns of the original structure. M. Peyron mentions also a Franciscan convent, built upon Moorish ruins, near the palace of Charles V. "It was erected," he says, "when Philip V. and his queen Isabella Farnese came to Granada. The monks, without any respect for the noble marbles which attested the ancient magnificence of its former masters, have transformed a voluptuous palace into a number of vile cells."

THE GENERALIFFE.

THE Alhamra was the general residence of the Moorish sovereigns; but during the intense heat of summer, they usually removed to the royal villa of the Generaliffe, situated on the steep declivity of the opposite hill. In point of situation, it has the advantage over the Alhamra, and is greatly superior to it in the beauty of the grounds. The principal building stands on the acclivity of the mountain, behind which the gardens rise in the form of an amphitheatre, full of large trees, venerable with age, and fertilised by many rivulets issuing from the summit, which, after forming numerous cascades, lose themselves among the trees and flowering shrubs. Two ancient cypress-trees still exist, whose foliage overshadowed this romantic spot when it was the abode of pleasure and luxury. They are called the Cypresses of the Queen, from the tradition, that this was the place of guilty *rendezvous*, where the sultana of the last sovereign of Granada was charged with receiving her paramour. Altogether, this is the most delightful spot in the environs of Granada. You enter from the Alhamra by a low postern, through which Abou-Abdoulah is said to

have made his escape when Ferdinand entered the city.* Above the Generaliffe itself, and near the top of the eminence, is a kind of stone bank cut out of the rock, which is said to have served the Moorish kings as a point of observation while the Castilians were besieging Granada. These traditions are of as doubtful a character, perhaps, as that which ascribes the building of this palace to a prince of the house of Omar, who was so fond of music, we are told, that he retired to this palace for the purpose of giving himself up entirely to this amusement. It is probably the more ancient palace. When Swinburne travelled, it belonged to the Conde de Campotejar, a Genoese nobleman of the house of Grimaldi, descended in the female line from the royal family of Granada.† The remains of the building, this Traveller represents to be scarcely worth looking at, the noblest halls and best-finished work having been almost entirely demolished, and the grand *jets d'eau* being no longer in repair. “A double

* This is stated by M. Peyron; but it does not appear that the king fled on the capitulation of Granada. He retired, agreeably to an understanding with Ferdinand, to the Alpuxarras. Swinburne mentions the story of his having burst into tears, as he took a last look of his beloved Granada from the hill of Padul; on which the Sultana Ayxa, his mother, exclaimed: “Thou dost well to weep like a woman, over the loss of that kingdom which thou knewest not how to defend and die for as a man.”

† Swinburne, vol. i. p. 311. Spanish genealogies are not always more authentic than are some Welsh pedigrees (see p. 189); and we could have wished for something like historic authority for the singular circumstance here mentioned. The last Moorish sovereign of Granada retired to Fez, where he consoled himself by building some palaces in imitation of those he had left behind in Spain. He died in the year 1533, leaving two sons, Yusef and Achmed. Some of his posterity were remaining at Fez in the year 1627, where they were reduced to the necessity of subsisting on alms and charitable bequests, and were regarded in fact as beggars.—See *Hist. of the Mahom. Empire*, p. 159.

hedge of royal myrtle about fifteen feet high," and "a row of cypresses of prodigious height and bulk," with the "little recess behind" them, where the fatal assignation was said to have taken place, are mentioned as the only things yet existing that claim attention. Mr. Jacob, however, speaks of the interior as still exhibiting traces of its former splendour. "The floors of the rooms," he says, "are of marble, and have streams of the clearest water running through them. The garden adjoining is enriched with orange, lemon, and cypress-trees, and abounds in crystal fountains, transparent pools, and shady groves. Of late years, it has been inhabited by a nobleman, who has added some modern comforts to the ancient luxuries; and though he no longer resides there, it is much frequented by the inhabitants of the city, who repair to it with their provisions, and hold their convivial meetings in halls which rival in coolness and beauty the most voluptuous palaces of Asia."

"The *alameda* along the banks of the Xenil," Swinburne says, "is a very pleasant promenade; but the river has seldom water enough to enliven the prospect with a reflected landscape. The hill rises boldly to back the avenue, with orange-groves, cypress-alleys, and clusters of houses grouped upon the waving lines of its sides and summit. This and another drive beyond the river, are the chief places of resort; and the beauty of Granada is no where more striking than from these points of view. The environs are charming even now" (December); "and every body tells us, that, in summer, Granada is a delicious abode, never too cold or too hot, refreshed by numberless streams, and perfumed by all the sweets wafted by the breeze from the gardens that lie scattered over the declivities of the neighbouring hills. Nothing can be

more agreeable, in the mild, sunshiny afternoons, which we enjoy here, though at Christmas, than the walks along the heights of the Alhamra. There is always a great concourse of people sitting on the grass, basking in the sun, and diverting themselves, as if it were a fair. Venders of cakes, toys, and liquors, call their wares through the crowd. The women come to shew themselves in their holiday finery, dressed out in black silk petticoats and veils. In that habit, every woman has something uncommonly alluring. Here, indeed, the sex is really handsome in any dress: their complexions are fairer, their skins clearer, and their cheeks glow with a brighter tinge, than any faces we have met with in our journey down the coast. The surprising purity of its air must greatly contribute towards the freshness of their looks. In many houses, a current of water passes in an uncovered channel through bed-chambers, where people sleep, winter and summer, without its having the least bad effect upon their health. Fruit and butcher's meat remain in the Alhamra an unusual length of time, without taint or putrefaction.

“ Taking a stroll behind the Alhamra, we passed below the *Puerta de los siete Suelos*, which was formerly the great entrance. This gate has been long blocked up, and the seven stories of vaults, from which it derived its name, have been filled with rubbish. A little further on, the wall turns to the north-east, where the towers are very high. Part of the hill, which is a strong cemented gravel, has been cut through, to make a dry ditch before them. A single arch crosses it, and conveys into the palace a copious supply of water. The path down this solitary, gloomy hollow, is rugged and broken by the waste waters. About the middle is a very low postern,

through which the court passed, when it chose to retire to the spring palace, which stands on a hill to the right. Nearer the Dauro, the water has burst all its conduits, and broken the gravel bank into a tremendous precipice. Here we descended into the charming vale of the Dauro, where we remarked the remnants of a Moorish bridge and tower, that appear to have supported a gallery of communication between the Alhamra and the Albaycin. The view from the little green bank near the river, though a confined one, is unspeakably beautiful. At the bottom, where the cathedral and other steeples rise in a groupe, in the narrow reach, the little stream winds its way into the heart of the city. To the south, the verdant slopes are crowned with the turrets of the Alhamra, the hanging woods and gardens of the Generaliffe, and the banks of the *Sierra del Sol*. On the north are the Albaycin, innumerable gardens, orchards, and caverns full of inhabitants. We found our mules waiting for us here, and proceeded up the river; a very pleasant ride, between villas and convents, romantically situated, mills and waterfalls, gardens and plantations of fruit-trees, and thickets of filberts. We turned off to the southward by the ruins of a small aqueduct, and came back over the mountain, on the top of which is a long ridge of stones, said to be the remains of the ancient *Illiberia*. It has more the appearance of a park wall, or a line of circumvallation. On the point that overlooks the Alhamra, stood formerly the Fort of the Sun, or of St. Helena, under which ran three canals cut in the rock, one above the other, which serve to convey water to the city, from the mountain springs and the river. Some large reservoirs, of Moorish (or perhaps more ancient) origin, still subsist below in perfect preservation."

Granada, under the Moors, carried on an extensive trade, and was famous for its different manufactures. They are said to have been in a flourishing state down to the middle of the sixteenth century. The absurd and injurious restrictions enacted in the year 1672, led to their decay; and the want of political wisdom has been fatal alike to agriculture, to manufactures, and to commerce.* Mr. Swinburne states, that trade was very feebly carried on, without encouragement or protection, while the crops of the fertile *Vega* diminish annually, and the population gradually decreases. The swarm of lawyers who are attracted here by the royal court of chancery, absorbed all the little wealth of the place, and were the only class that lived in any degree of luxury or affluence. The people, in general, were reduced to a state of great poverty and depression. "As for morals," says Mr. Townsend, "they are much like the rest of Spain: the monks are exceedingly corrupt, and the women have no want of lovers, although there are said to be numbers who are

* At the beginning of the seventeenth century, the university of Toledo represented to Philip III. the various grievances by which the nation had been reduced both as to population and wealth. Among these are enumerated the heavy duties collected in Granada on raw silk, amounting at that time to sixteen reals, or 3s. 2½d. per lb. In 1740, they amounted to nearly 17½ reals, when raw silk was selling at 42 reals; *i. e.* to more than 41 per cent. When Count Campomanes wrote, the rate was considerably higher per lb., but the proportion to the value was diminished: they then amounted to 4s. 3¼d. per lb. of 16 oz., whereas, before the conquest, the Moors paid no more than 8½d. on 18 oz. There were, first, the *alcavala* and *cientos*, which, besides being levied on the raw material, followed the manufacturer and merchant in all subsequent transfers of the property; the *diezmos*, or ecclesiastical tithe; the *arbitrio*, a municipal rate; the *tartil*, paid to the magistrate who weighed the silk; *velix*, paid to the auctioneer and registrar; and *torres de la costa*, a species of ship-money, levied under pretence of guarding the coast against the Algerines.—TOWNSEND, vol. iii. p. 71.

uncorrupted by the manners of the age." The Spanish manners prevail. Mass, business, or visits to the ladies, fill up the forenoon; after an early dinner, they take their *siesta*; in the evening, they repair to the *paseo* (public walk); and when the day closes, assemble at some *tertulia*, where a round game at cards forms the usual amusement.

It is not possible to contemplate the present depressed state of this once opulent city, especially with regard to its manufactures, without adverting to the expulsion of the Moors. To that grossly impolitic, as well as intolerant measure, more than to any other circumstance, may be ascribed the decline of the Spanish empire. As to their numbers, of a hundred thousand condemned by the Inquisition for apostatising from the Christian faith, four thousand are said to have suffered at the stake. Philip III., in 1609, banished to Africa, 140,000 out of the kingdom of Valencia, and in the three years following, 600,000 from Seville, Murcia, and Granada. "If to these," remarks Mr. Townsend, "we add the multitudes who perished by famine and by sword, we shall be inclined to state the loss to Spain, if not with Count Campomanes, at 400,000 families, yet, at least, at one million of its most active subjects. This loss, added to what the country had sustained by the previous expulsion of 800,000 Jews, with all their wealth, in the reign of Ferdinand and Isabella, was, under such a government as that of Spain, irreparable. The Moors are acknowledged by the best Spanish writers to have excelled in agriculture, particularly in watering their lands, in the cultivation of mulberry-trees, the sugarcane, rice, and cotton, all introduced by them,—in their peculiar breed of horses, and in the manufacture of silk, of paper, and of gunpowder, first brought by

them into Europe." The plea of state necessity has been urged in defence of the measure; but it may reasonably be questioned whether any sense of danger influenced the Spanish Government in this determination; for what danger could arise from the Jews, who fell victims to the same spirit of intolerance? The Moorish power was broken, and their wealth could give no just ground of alarm. In fact, the reasons urged by the apologists for the measure, shew that the real ground of their expulsion was their pertinacious adherence to the creed of Islam, in spite of all the apostolic labours of Cardinal Ximenes, in burning their Korans and baptizing their children, and all the terrors of the infernal office. How closely some of the following grounds of complaint touched the worldly interests of the clergy, is, however, sufficiently evident. First, says Fonseca, speaking of the Moriscoes,* when conducted to church *by the alguazil*, and compelled to take the holy water, they treated it with every expression of contempt; and when the host was lifted up, would make a sign of defiance and indignity *under their cloaks*. Secondly, *they neither left legacies in their wills, nor did they give money to procure masses for the souls of their departed friends, unless when compelled to do so*; and then they came to the priest with half a real to purchase half a mass. Further, when they were *dragged to the confessionals*, they would not acknowledge themselves guilty either of mortal or even of venial sins. Fourthly, out of twenty children born to them, they carried one only to the baptismal font, and him they baptized twenty times, under twenty different names, and even lent this child from

* In his work entitled, *Justa Expulsion de los Moriscos*. See Townsend, vol. iii. p. 76.

one village to another. Once more, they *ill-treated* the images of the saints which they were *obliged to receive into their houses*, setting them in the most indecent places with their heads downwards, and other marks of sovereign contempt. Now it is remarkable, that, with the exception of the fourth charge, these Moriscoes were guilty of no worse offence against that which miscalled itself the Catholic faith, than, under similar circumstances, the followers of John Knox or Zwingli, or, in fact, any consistent Protestants, would have gloried in committing. In pouring contempt on holy water, the divine wafer, the idolatrous images, auricular confession, and the doctrine of purgatory, they acted in no one respect inconsistently with the faith and duty of a sincere Christian. Nay, it may be affirmed without hesitation, that the Mohammedan's was a purer creed, less at variance with the religion of the New Testament, even in its doctrines, than that of their persecutors. The honour of Christianity demands from us this explicit avowal.*

* “ The means employed by the Spaniards to convert the Moors of Granada, may be judged of by a letter, which still remains, of the famous Aben Humeya, in which he conjures his subjects, his brethren, to persevere in their religion, and to wait for more happy days. We might imagine we hear St. Paul, or the fathers of the primitive church, exhorting the faithful, and supporting them under persecutions; so much do the paths of error resemble those of truth.

“ “ The unhappy, the sorrowful Moslema, despoiled of the kingdom which belonged to him, as the only remaining branch of the race of kings, the defenders of the nation and the law, Moslema, who took pleasure in the labours of a sovereign, without losing sight of justice and religion, Aben Humeya, son of Thali, and descendant of the high, mighty, and faithful Muley Hacén, to the honourable and zealous Mussulmans his brethren of Granada, health and benediction.

“ “ We weep and shed bitter tears at the disgrace and misfortunes which the faithful Mussulman, Ab Hami, has seen fall upon

Whatever plea of necessity may be urged in extenuation of the measure itself, the mode in which the expulsion was conducted, is totally indefensible. The Moors had only sixty days allowed them to dispose of their effects. Yet, on quitting the kingdom, they were not to carry out gold, silver, or precious stones, unless under the exorbitant duty of 50 *per cent*, nor even letters of exchange, but only merchandise purchased of native Spaniards. "By their expulsion," remarks Mr. Townsend, "houses went to ruin and decay, lands were left uncultivated, commerce was neglected, and manufactures felt the severest shock,—a shock such as some scarcely survived, while others were wholly lost. The sudden departure of this multitude left a vacuity which it was not easy to fill up ;

you ; and we rejoice to learn with what firmness you resist the importunate entreaties and cruel threats and persecutions of those who wish to make you renounce the truth, — wretched men that they are ! If the voices of two or three of the Christian imams be a torment to us, what must you suffer, who are exposed to so great a number of their imams, who daily preach to, surround you, and even enter your houses ! We know that the most severe among them are they who, with their profane mosque, are placed in a collected body in the midst of you. These are the persons who most defame our patience and courageous fidelity. We congratulate ourselves upon the means you employ to keep them at a distance, and especially to prevent their destructive poison from infecting the tender minds of your feeble children. Fear nothing. Arm yourselves with new strength ; power will manifest itself to destroy this race of infidels, and we shall one day possess this power. He who, with a steady eye, watches over us and our works, is almighty. He will multiply his faithful and zealous servants, like the stars of heaven and the sands of the sea. In the midst of all the evils with which you are surrounded, you are happy, since you have before your eyes that splendid city and the flowery fields, which were the native country of our forefathers. May they enjoy peace, and receive the benediction of Heaven !" — PEYRON in BOURGOING, vol. iv. pp. 149—151. If this document be genuine, it must be admitted to be exceedingly striking. We could have wished that the translator had given us his authority.

more especially by a nation which, having, for the space of seven centuries, been trained to war, and inflamed only by military ardour, had learned, in that long interval, to look down with contempt upon all who were engaged in the mechanic arts, and more especially to despise those occupations in which their antagonists excelled." Every consideration, however, was sacrificed to the gratifying of the national antipathy, the propitiation of the priesthood, and the temporary wealth which the spoliation of the Moors poured into the coffers of the state.

At the time of the expulsion, some of the Moors, who were particularly skilled in the silk-manufactures, or in the art of irrigating lands, were suffered to remain; and a few more were fortunate enough to find powerful protectors. So late as the year 1726, the Inquisition, with the sanction of Government, seized upon 360 families accused of *secret Mohammedism*, and confiscated all their effects,—estimated at 12,000,000 of crowns; an immense sum, of which no account was rendered.* "The ancestors of these people," says Swinburne, "had at their baptism assumed the surnames of their godfathers, by which means they had the same appellations as many of the best families in Spain; a kind of relationship that was of great service to them in their misfortune, and probably saved their lives from the fury of the holy office. They

* When Mr. Townsend was at Granada in 1787, the *Quemadero*, or place of burning, appeared to be neglected and going to decay. Yet, not more than eight years before, two Jews and a Turk had been burned there! The archbishop half jocularly assured the English Traveller, a Protestant clergyman, that though the inquisitors of the present day were become more gentle than their fathers, and seldom regaled themselves with human flesh, they had not yet forgotten the taste of blood.—See TOWNSEND, vol. iii. p. 83.

were dispersed into different parts of Spain, where, it is said, that with so much experience and skill in commerce, they soon grew rich again, and no doubt acquired wisdom enough to secure their second acquisitions better than their first. They were the principal merchants and monied men of Granada. Their custom was, to buy up for ready money all the silk made in the Vega, and sometimes to advance the value of it to the landholders before the season. This raw silk they distributed to the manufacturers in the city, whom they supplied with cash for their present maintenance, and were repaid by degrees in wrought silks. All these artificers thrived under their protection, and provided a comfortable subsistence for themselves and their families. The proprietors of land felt the sweets of a ready sale for their commodities; and the annual produce of silk in this province, before the year 1726, seldom fell short of 2,600,000lbs., whereas now (1776) it does not exceed 100,000. The sea-coast of Granada, from Marbella to Motril, formerly afforded large quantities of sugar, which was an article of commerce to Madrid till within these thirty years. What is now produced, is consumed in the neighbourhood in sweetmeats. From the heavy duties laid on this branch of trade, it is almost lost, there being now only three mills at work, in a declining state. At Motril, and at Toros near Velez, sugar-canes have been produced nine feet high, and of a proportionate thickness. The first plants are said to have been imported from Sicily, and afterwards carried to the West Indies; and the quality and grain of the Spanish sugar are affirmed to be equal to any imported from the colonies.

“ A village in the mountains, up the Dauro, is to this day almost wholly composed of the descendants of

Moors; but it is not possible to know whether they have retained any attachment to the customs and religion of their ancestors, or whether they are as good Christians in heart as in appearance. You may easily distinguish them from the Castilians who were transplanted thither, by their round, plump faces, small, bright eyes, little nose, and projecting under-jaw. In their deportment, they are extremely humble and smooth-tongued, but so tenacious of their ready money, that it is with difficulty they can prevail upon themselves to part with the rents and dues which they cannot well avoid paying. These people, and the progeny of the Mosarabic Christians who inhabited the country before the conquest, are esteemed a much better race of men, both as to morals and industry, than the descendants of those vagabonds of Castile who constitute the major part of the present inhabitants."

"Even to the present day," says Mr. Townsend, "both Mohammedans and Jews are thought to be numerous in Spain; the former among the mountains, the latter in all great cities. Their principal disguise is, more than common zeal in external conformity to all the precepts of the church; and the most apparently bigoted, not only of the clergy, but of the inquisitors themselves, are by some persons suspected to be Jews."* The proportion of *hidalgos* in the kingdom of Granada is not considerable, amounting, according to Mr. Townsend's information, to only 1,979 nobles

* Swinburne, vol. i. pp. 262—6. Townsend, vol. iii. p. 84. The Rev. Jos. Wolf, a Christian Jew, was assured by the Jewish rabbies of Gibraltar, that the Jews in Portugal remain faithful to their religion, but the Jews in Spain have entirely forgotten that they are Jews. "I asked them," says Mr. Wolf, "whether the account I heard at Rome, from the Secretary of the Inquisition,

out of 652,990 inhabitants, or 1 in 325 ; whereas, in Leon, they form nearly a fifth, and in Asturias, nearly a third of the population.

We must not forget, however, that we have but just entered on the Spanish Mauritania, and have to pursue the routes of the three English travellers into the kingdoms of Seville and Cordova. The route to Cadiz, which we are now to follow, will lead us

FROM GRANADA TO MALAGA.

THE direct route is by way of Alhama, which was taken by Mr. Townsend and Mr. Jacob in coming to Granada. The road, after leaving the fertile Vega, lies for several leagues over almost barren mountains, to Almaha (or La Mala), a town containing about 2,000 inhabitants, where there is a royal salt-manufactory, which supplies the surrounding country. The salt spring rises on the side of a small river, and its contents are spread in pools about nine inches deep. As the process of evaporation is slow, the crystals formed are of a large size. The surplus of the spring runs into the river, which, from the saline taste it thus acquires, is named El Saladillo. From this place, it is a distance of four hours to Alhama, the road being a gradual ascent over rich corn-fields, unadorned with trees. This city, which was a place of considerable importance in the days of the Cid, and in the later wars with the Moors, is very remarkably situated, having a precipice on three sides, of at least

were true, that there is a street at Madrid where they are all Jews. They replied, Yes. A rich Portuguese Jew, called Cohen, told me, that there are Jews in Portugal who are bishops and priests, and in secret observe the Jewish religion."—WOLF'S *Missionary Journal*, p. 83.

200 feet in elevation, at the bottom of which a river pours down with great velocity through a fissure in the solid rock.* “It is beautiful,” says Mr. Townsend, “to see and hear numerous cascades, assuming various forms, all foaming among the rocks, and, when they have spent their force, gliding almost imperceptibly along in one continued stream. Thus situated, the city is accessible only from the west, where a castle, formerly reputed strong, but now going to decay, commands the entrance.” Alhama contains one large church, “most extravagantly decorated with tasteless ornaments,” three convents, and about 1,500 families. It has no kind of manufactures, but is visited by invalids from all parts of Spain, not only on account of the remarkable purity of its air, but for some medicinal springs of great celebrity. The waters are sulphureous. One of the springs, which fills a marble bath, is of the temperature of 104° Fahr.; it is tempered by another spring, close to it, of cold water, resembling in taste, Mr. Jacob says, that of Harrowgate. “When the Moors possessed this place, the fame of the baths was so great among the surrounding Christians, that a revenue of 500,000 ducats is said to have been raised by giving them permission to make use of them.” The people here appear more robust than in the valleys, and some of them, this Traveller says, have complexions almost ruddy. The dreadful epidemic which occasionally prevails in the country near the coast, never crosses the mountains, or reaches the elevation of this town. The agriculture of Alhama is also totally different from that of Velez or Malaga. Instead of vineyards,

* The upper stratum of these rocks is pudding-stone superposed on sand-stone; and near the water's edge is a stratum of shingle.

olive-grounds, and orchards, nothing is to be seen but extensive corn-lands. The soil is strong, formed, apparently, by the decomposition of the neighbouring mountains.* "The cultivators in these parts are a richer body of men than those in the fruitful valleys on the other side of the mountain. Grain here produces a more uniform crop, than fruit does in the valleys, the excessive produce of which in some years, and the great failure in others, create in the people a disposition similar to that of our West India proprietors, who have been said to regulate their expenditure on a scale commensurate with their most favourable years. At Alhama, the farmers have generally good crops and certain markets, and therefore live in a state of ease, and have become affluent. Many of the fields are so remote from the habitations of man,† that, during the harvest, the proprietors and their labourers erect tents, under which they live till the corn is cut, threshed, and carried home, when they return to the town: here they reside till the seed-time, and then they once again live under tents, till the labour of sowing be finished. The corn-farms are divided into portions not varying much in size; and at the corner of each portion, threshing-floors are constructed, which carry us back to the ancient husbandry of Arabia as practised by the patriarchs. The Arabs carried it to Africa, and their descendants introduced it into Andalusia. The corn, indeed, is here trodden out by mares instead of oxen; but the mode of doing it, the

* The rock, Mr. Jacob says, is limestone. Mr. Townsend describes the *sierras* as "mostly gypseous, including strata of crystallised selenite." Wolves abound in this elevated region; for which reason the shepherds keep watch, with large dogs, over their flocks by night.

† Between Alhama and La Mala, one very small village is the only one that occurs on the road, in the space of twenty miles.

living in tents, and the storing the grain in caves, are all evidently Arabian customs."* The river which nearly surrounds the city, turns in succession eight mills for grinding corn.

The road, after leaving the open corn country in the midst of which Alhama is situated, ascends a ridge of mountains, the declivities of which are clothed with the cork-tree and the ilex. Thousands of pigs of a peculiar breed, perfectly black, fatten in these woods, during the season, on the acorns. To the right, the *Sierra de Alhama* is seen with its lofty summit covered, in winter, with snow; although its elevation is far below that of the *Sierra Nevada* of Granada, which may be seen from the highest point of this range. A lonely *venta*, on the summit of a second and lower ridge, is all that occurs between Alhama and La Venuela, a distance of four posts, or upwards of eight leagues. The ascent from La Venuela to the *Puerta* (or opening) at the highest point, occupied nine hours. The country is rugged in the extreme, arid, and uncultivated; and the steep track, bordering frequently on precipices, is such as only mules or Spanish horses could travel with safety. The scenery, which is sufficiently wild and terrific, is rendered still more so by the monumental crosses which are occasionally seen, denoting the place where some traveller was murdered by the smugglers or banditti who take refuge in these mountains. At length, the traveller descends towards the delightful *playa*, or maritime plain, and, an hour beyond La Venuela, reaches Velez Malaga. This city, at the time of Mr. Jacob's visit, in 1810, exhibited a most deplorable appearance of desolation, the result of the dreadful epidemic which,

* Jacob, p. 250.

six years before, committed such ravages in all the towns along this coast. In Malaga itself, out of a population of 75,000, the deaths amounted to 21,637. In Velez, they amounted to 7,000 out of 16,000. And in all the towns between Gibraltar and Malaga, the pestilence swept away from one quarter to one-third of the inhabitants. The situation of Velez is most delightful, in the midst of a beautiful and fertile country, where "all nature seems to wear a smile." The city occupies the declivity of the mountain, and is commanded by a castle, now in ruins. It contains two parish-churches and six convents, and carries on a considerable trade in the rich produce of the soil. Mr. Townsend speaks in terms of poetical rapture of the *alameda*,* where the inhabitants assemble every evening to enjoy the "cool and refreshing shade, and where, through the whole year, the nightingale sings, and lemon-trees diffuse their fragrance." "Here," he says, "the peasants at every step call for some blessing upon all who pass; their manner is soft, their salutation peculiar — *Vayausted con la Virgen*, May you be under the protection of the Virgin." Mr. Jacob speaks of Velez in similar terms. The vineyards on the sides of the mountain, the verdure of its gardens, the shady groves on the banks of the river, the lofty elms on the *paseo* (or *alameda*), the profusion of fruits, and the transparent streams in the valley, render it, he says, one of the most enchanting spots in Andalusia. The views around the city derive additional interest from several Moorish towns, seated

* This word is derived from *alamo* (*ulmus*), the name given in Spain both to the elm and the poplar, with which these promenades are most frequently planted. The white and black poplar are distinguished as the *alamo blanco* and *alamo negro*; and the aspen is called *alamo temblon*.

on the narrow summits of mountains, and seeming to bid defiance to an enemy. "Among these are the towns of Benamocarra, Alcaucen, and Albasyda, the names and position of which carry back the mind to those remote periods when the conquering Catholics spread devastation through the valleys, and the luxurious but not totally enervated Moors, retiring to these fastnesses, renounced their luxuries, and carried on the most inveterate warfare against their invaders." On approaching Velez from Malaga, innumerable pointed hills are seen, all rich and cultivated to their very summits with the vine, and affording a constant variety of view. The rock in general is schist, with some limestone, and one hill of gypsum. The level country is covered with luxuriant crops of corn. The ride to Malaga, a distance of five leagues, lies for the most part over a succession of *playas*, triangular plains, from one to two miles in extent, open to the sea, and extending to the foot of the hills, the washings of which have formed the rich alluvial soil. From the latter end of May, however, or the beginning of June, when the harvest is carried in, till October or November, these plains are reduced, by the excessive heats, to mere sands. The chasms between the hills are filled with the almond, plum, orange, lemon, and apricot trees. Some cotton and sugar plantations are found at *Torre del Mar*.

MALAGA.

"LIKE all Spanish towns," says Mr. Jacob, "Malaga is a most beautiful object at a distance, but will not bear a near inspection. The *alameda* is the only part of the town which is handsome, and that is truly magnificent." At the end of it is a

beautiful marble fountain, said to have been presented to the Emperor Charles the Fifth by the Republic of Genoa ; it consists of three basins, one above another, and gradually diminishing in size, supported by groupes of female figures. The city stands in the very corner of the plain, which is quite bare of wood, with the exception of a few plantations round the villas ; and the naked, craggy mountains here overhang the shore, leaving scarcely room for the town. This situation renders Malaga insufferably hot during eight months of the year. On approaching it by sea, it is seen deeply embayed, and the high and rugged shores seem destitute of soil ; but on a nearer view, the declivities appear clothed with vineyards. The deep ravine by the side of the town is dry in summer, but in winter affords a bed to a considerable stream. The streets of Malaga, like those of all other Moorish towns, are very narrow, many of them not more than eight feet wide, others not so wide ; “ all badly paved, and dirty to a proverb.” The houses are high and large, built in the Asiatic fashion round a court, into which the windows look. There is only one square in the town, which is neither spacious nor handsome ; and the churches and convents are so crowded among the houses, that whatever beauty they may possess, is concealed. The only edifice, however, which deserves the least attention, Mr. Townsend says, is the cathedral, begun in the year 1528 by Philip II.,* but still unfinished. “ It is, indeed, two hundred years since it was so far brought to a conclusion as to be fitted for the performance of Divine service ; but, notwithstanding new taxes have been granted for its comple-

* The united arms of Philip II. and Mary of England are still to be seen over the door.

tion, and have been collected for nearly seventy years, it remains with one single tower out of six contained in the original design.* The dimensions are 360 feet by 180, and 135 in height.† It is a noble pile; the architecture is a mixture of Roman and Gothic.‡ “The interior is finished with exquisite taste: it is an oblong spheroid, with a row of Corinthian pillars, around which is the nave; these pillars support a lofty roof of well-turned arches, with the sky painted in the compartments. The high altar and the pulpit are of flesh-coloured marble; and the choir is so singularly fine, that Palomino, the biographer of Spanish artists, calls it the eighth wonder of the world. It contains about fifty stalls, curiously carved in cedar and mahogany, and a considerable number of statues of saints, the work of Alonzo Cano, and of his pupil, Pedro de Mena. The paintings are far inferior to those in the cathedral of Seville: the best is by Cano, the Virgin in heaven with the infant Jesus and a groupe of angels. There are some few marble monuments, particularly one to the memory of a late bishop, Don Jose de Molina, who is celebrated for having expended in church plate and in ornamenting this edifice, the enormous sum of 20,000*l.* sterling. The annual revenue of the see amounts to 100,000 dollars, principally derived from a tithe on wine. There are two

* This would seem to be a favourite financial *ruse* in Spain. See the account of Barcelona, p. 83.

† According to Mr. Townsend. Mr. Jacob states the measurements at 400 feet by 260, and 140 feet in height from the floor to the arches. Laborde makes it 306 by 178, 123 feet in height to the roof, and the tower 267 feet in height.

‡ M. Peyron says: “The façade, which is mostly of blue and red marble, would be tolerably handsome, were it not dishonoured by a shabby bas-relief of white marble.”

fine organs in this cathedral, which add much to its beauty. The pipes are not perpendicular, as in our churches, but project from the instrument, like a range of trumpets, over the top of the choir, diminishing gradually in length. The palace of the bishop forms one side of the small square in front of the cathedral; but the majestic height and grand dimensions of the latter, make this palace, which, in another situation, would appear a handsome building, look small and mean. The other churches and monasteries contain nothing worth describing.”* The city contains six parishes, fifteen monasteries, ten nunneries, one *beaterio*, and nine hospitals. The population, in 1786, as stated by Mr. Townsend, was estimated at only 41,592. If this be correct, it must have rapidly increased during the ensuing five-and-twenty years, since a census taken in 1804, after the fatal epidemic had nearly ceased, made the survivors amount to 52,376. Of those who fell victims to the pestilence, 1,206 were military, 300 convicts, 81 monks, 76 nuns, 114 secular ecclesiastics, 17 physicians, and nearly 20,000 private individuals. Mr. Townsend mentions a singular fact. “Of those who arrive at maturity, and go out to labour, here are found six women to one man.”

Malaga is a very ancient city; and the opinion which assigns to it a Phenician origin, is in some measure countenanced by its name, written Malacha by Ptolemy and Pliny, and supposed to be derived from the Hebrew *Malach*, salt, on account of the great quantities of salt fish anciently sold there.† Its bishop is suffragan to Granada. The Moors retained

* Jacob, p. 227.

† Strabo, M. Peyron says, speaks of it as a Carthaginian colony, famous for its salted provisions.

possession of this place till the year 1487, when it was reduced by famine to surrender to Ferdinand V. In point of commercial importance, Malaga, Mr. Jacob says, may be considered as the third port in Spain, ranking immediately after Cadiz and Barcelona, but with this singular difference, that here the exports always exceed the imports; whereas at Cadiz, Barcelona, Corunna, St. Andero, and even Alicant, the imports from America always exceeded the exports.* The port, since the construction of an additional mole, is one of the best artificial harbours in the world; it is not large, but there is sufficient depth of water for a ship of the line to lie close to the pier; it is well sheltered, and is accessible with every wind.† In 1810, its commerce was flourishing, the peace with England having led to the export of nearly three times the quantity of wine and fruit that had been shipped any preceding year. Besides these articles, which are the foundation of its trade, a few manufactured commodities were exported to the colonies and other parts of Spain; these were brought chiefly from Granada, consisting of linen, sail-cloth, satins, velvets, taffetas, ribbons, and silk stockings. There are also manufactories of paper, leather, soap, hats, tapes, and woollens, but all on a small scale. The fishermen form a numerous body. Foreigners, according to Laborde, are also numerous. This Traveller speaks in terms of high

* Laborde states the imports at 281,250*l.* sterling, and the exports at 515,625*l.*, but without mentioning any year. We suspect that his information on this point comes down no later than 1789.

† Swinburne states, that the sea has lost ground here, owing to the sand brought down from the mountains by the Guadalmedina, which annually accumulates; and Laborde says, that the sea has retired upwards of forty fathoms, and is still retiring, from the same cause; "so that there is room to fear that Malaga may in time lose its harbour."

commendation of the agreeable manners of the people. The men, he says, are active, industrious, and polite; the women, graceful, lively, and bewitching,—in fact, the most agreeable in all Spain.

An ancient Moorish castle, in good preservation, called *Gibralfaro*, stands on the sharp point of a rock commanding the city. “From many inscriptions found here, it is evident that this fortress was the site of a Roman temple and castle;* and the bricks in some parts of the foundation are manifestly the work of that people; but the whole superstructure is purely Arabian. The entrances are protected by a contrivance generally found in the Moorish fortresses: over each door and window, a kind of chimney is constructed, the bottom of which is level with the upper part of the entrance, and the top terminates at the parapet. Through these chimneys, the besieged could shoot their arrows on the heads of their assailants, and be themselves secure from attack. The modern art of fortification might render this castle impregnable.” There is another Moorish building, which is externally in good preservation; it was formerly the *darsena*, or dock, in which the Moorish galleys were laid up; it is now converted into store-houses. An Arabian palace, called the *Alcaçaba*, once stood near the shore, but has been partly destroyed to make room for the new custom-house, a handsome structure, close to the water, erected in 1789. In digging the foundations, some ancient remains are said to have been found here, among which was a fine female statue in white marble.

“A very fine road,” according to Laborde, “runs

* Laborde says, a magnificent pharos, which seems to receive colour from the name, *Gebel al faro*. Fragments of marble columns, he says, have been found on this eminence.

for eight leagues from Malaga to Antequera. We find no village all the way. The road lies over a succession of hills covered with vineyards, which yield the excellent Malaga wine known all over the world. A passage cut through a rock, leads to a chain of mountains, on the summit of which we pass the *Puerta de Escabruzala*. The country here wears a very singular appearance. Rocks of every shape and figure, intersected and ranged in various ways, present a picturesque resemblance to a collection of churches, towers, and other buildings. This place is called the Torcal." Mr. Jacob has given a similar account of this singular geological phantasmagoria, which is seen on the left hand, on the road between Antequera and Alora. "It is situated on the summit of a high mountain, and has the appearance of a considerable city in ruins, with regular streets, large churches, and vast public buildings. It is, however, nothing more than an assemblage of white marble rocks, which is so extensive, that whoever enters it without a knowledge of the paths, is in danger of being lost in a labyrinth from which he could not extricate himself without great difficulty." A very fine, variegated marble is said to be found here. A gentle descent of a mile and a half conducts the traveller to Antequera, where the road to Cadiz joins the route taken by Mr. Swinburne in travelling from Granada to Malaga, and by Mr. Jacob on his return to Gibraltar.

FROM GRANADA TO SAN ROQUE.

A road passable for wheel carriages, leads over the *Vega* to Santa Fé, a city built by Ferdinand during the siege of Granada, at the distance of two leagues from that city. This place is remarkably subject to

earthquakes, and had suffered very severely from them in the two years preceding Mr. Jacob's visit. That of 1809 extended its effects across the whole *Vega* in a tract of about a league in breadth, and was felt, though very slightly, and but for a few minutes, at the city of Granada. At Santa Fé, it lasted twelve hours, and left marks of its ravages on most of the buildings. "One of the churches," says this Traveller, describing the appearance which it then presented, "is completely divided in the centre, and the tower is a heap of ruins. A convent which has been much injured, exhibits a curious spectacle; one half is thrown down, and the cells of the monks in the other half are laid completely open. Several houses of private individuals have suffered severely; but so much are the people accustomed to these occurrences, that many of their habitations are already repaired, and workmen were busily employed in rendering the others habitable."

The mountains which surround the plain of Granada, are the termination of the great cordillera, the loftiest points of which are the summits of the *Sierra Nevada*, near the city of Granada. The height of the Mula Hacen is stated by Mr. Jacob to be 12,762 feet above the level of the sea; that of the Picacho de Veleta 12,459 feet; but, to the eye, the whole chain appears of nearly equal elevation.* The line of perpetual snow commences at 9,915 feet. From the *Sierra Nevada*, the mountains gradually decline in height towards the south, till, at the *Sierra de Gador*, near Almeria, they again rise to the elevation of 7,800 feet. Here is situated the celebrated rock of Filabres, 2,000 feet in height, and four miles in cir-

* Don Clemente Rosas makes them only 1,824 and 1,781 fathoms. See p. 11.

cumference, consisting of one block of solid white marble.* The intermediate mountains between the

* This singular mountain is about three leagues from Almeria, but it takes ten hours to reach it, on account of the necessity of turning so many hills. From its summit, on the side towards the village of Machael, a great part of the kingdom of Granada may be discovered, resembling in its appearance the waves of the sea in a storm. On the other side, the mountain is cut almost perpendicularly, and, from its prodigious elevation, affords an awful prospect. The *Sierra de Gador* is another immense mass of marble, of which excellent lime is made: it dissolves entirely with acids, without leaving the least residue of clay. We shall here throw together a few particulars respecting the southern coast eastward of Malaga. To the east of Velez is the little port of Herradura, where a fleet of galleys was lost in 1562, being driven on shore by the wind; it is, therefore, very unsafe. Further eastward is Motril, another small port, near which are four large sugar-mills (*ingenios*), sugar having been made on this part of the coast "from time immemorial." "From Motril to Almeria, you range along the mountains, many of which are of marble to the very summit. The strand is level and sandy, with very little earth, except near Almeria. This ancient city was conquered from the Moors in 1147, by Alfonso, styled the emperor, assisted by Garcias, King of Navarre, Raymond, Count of Barcelona, and a fleet of Genoese. About half way towards Cape de Gata, there is a large plain so full of garnets, that a ship might be loaded with them; they are likewise to be found in a gulley formed by the waves at the foot of a hill. Cape de Gata is a huge promontory, consisting of an enormous rock, eight leagues in circuit, and five broad. The first object that strikes the eye is a rock 200 feet high, about fifty paces from the sea, all crystalised in large stones that will take a good polish. Precious stones are said to be found in the mountain of Bujo, in a cavern with an entrance twenty feet high, open to the waves. On the outside, a large white patch serves as a landmark to mariners, and is thence called *Vela Blanca*. This is what is properly called Cape de Gata. Near the *Torre de las Guardas* there is a bed of jasper of a white ground, veined with red; and further on, near the *Torre de Neste*, a low rock is seen, almost covered with a stratum of white corneian. They gather a black sand not far from the *Torre de San Josef*, produced from the constant demolition of the rock, which is sold to throw over writing. In the centre of this promontory, there are four hills near to each other, called the Sacristan, the Two Friars, the Captain, and the White Mountain. The other side of the promontory, after passing these four hills, is called *El Puerto*

Sierra Nevada and the *Sierra de Gador*, are named the Alpuxarras, which extend about seventeen leagues in length from Velez Malaga to Almeria, and eleven in breadth. From their summits, the coast of Barbary and the cities of Tangier and Ceuta may be descried. These mountains, in which the wretched remains of the Moors took refuge, are covered with villages and a few well-peopled towns. The mountaineers are said to retain the active and industrious spirit of their ancestors. They cultivate the vine and almost every kind of fruit tree, the produce of which they bring to Velez or to other parts of the coast.

“The secondary mountains,” says Mr. Jacob, “are of various kinds. Some are naked, and others appear of red earth, covered with herbs, trees, shrubs, and plants. One very lofty hill is composed of veined marble from top to bottom; another has its base covered with *esparto*, but, to a prodigious height above, is a naked rock. All these abound with mines of silver, copper, and lead, some of which were formerly worked by the Moors. From the top of the *Sierra Nevada* almost to the city, there is one mass or column of perpendicular rock, of a reddish-brown colour, without any perpendicular or oblique streaks. In many parts, the melting of the snow has washed the rock into the valleys, where, by decomposition, it has formed a luxuriant and productive soil. Two leagues from the city, on a level with the river Xenil,

de la Plata, where the Moorish corsairs lie lurking for Spanish vessels. There is a rock near this *Puerto*, called *El Monte de las Guardas*, where they find amethysts, but still more in a stratum of quartz of difficult access.”—DILLON'S *Travels through Spain*, 4to. 1782; pp. 333—40.

a quarry of serpentine is worked, whence the pillars that adorn some parts of the cathedral have been taken. It is of a green colour, beautifully veined, and receives a very high polish. There are also numerous quarries of marble of various kinds, which are raised at little expense, and sold very cheap. Alabaster, equal in brilliancy and transparency to the finest white oriental cornelians, is likewise to be met with; but it is soft, and the weakest acids will dissolve it. They are called *piedras de aguas*, or petrifications, but are probably stalactites. They are beautifully veined, and some of them are of a straw colour, with undulations in them of exquisite beauty, and are evidently the substance of which the pulpits in the cathedral at Malaga are formed. One of the most remarkable circumstances in these mountains is, the immense masses of bones of men and other animals which have been discovered on their summits, none of which, however, equal those found at Concud, where a hill is entirely formed of them. After digging through a stratum of limestone, about five or six feet in depth, the bones are found under it, in a bed of red earth of similar thickness. Don Isidore de Antillon, who relates his observations made in 1806, says, that having dug at several parts of the hill remote from each other, he found, as soon as the pickaxe had penetrated through the stone, the bones of the arm and hand, and human teeth, with manifest remains of the medullary substance. Neither skeletons nor skulls were discovered; but the teeth of various animals were mixed with those of men. They were soft and slimy, but hardened on being exposed to the sun."

The copious streams formed by the melted snow of the *Sierra Nevada* in summer, contribute very mate-

rially to the productive powers of the soil of the Vega.* These streams are conveyed along the upper side of each field by means of embankments, in which sluices are cut, that convey the water into small trenches, so as to flood the whole field with ease in the hottest season. In farms where the proprietors have the right of water, very little attention beyond irrigation is paid to the soil. The average produce on these lands is as high as fifty bushels of wheat per acre. Considerable quantities of rice are cultivated on the lower lands subject to inundation, and sometimes, in these situations, hemp and flax are raised before the rice is sown. Though the corn-lands do not require manure, this important article is carefully collected for the gardens, melon-grounds, and extensive mulberry-plantations which are scattered over the plain. The wine produced in the immediate vicinity of the city, Mr. Jacob says, is very bad, and acquires a disagreeable taste from the sheep-skins with tarred seams, in which it is brought from the vineyards. But a few leagues off, excellent wine is produced, equal to any Burgundy. In this land of the cork-tree, however, it is deemed requisite to import English corks as well as English bottles, so ill is the trifling operation of cutting them here performed.

Near Santa Fé, is a valuable estate called Soto de Roma, about five miles in length by two in breadth, which originally belonged to the crown, and was kept up as a hunting seat by the Emperor Charles the Fifth. When Mr. Swinburne visited Spain, it had been granted by the king for life to Lieutenant-general

* The Dauro, which runs through Granada, is a mere mountain-torrent: it joins the Xenil near the city, and their united streams fall into the Guadalquivir.

Richard Wall, the ex-prime-minister of Spain, who laid out the grounds and cultivated the land in the English manner. "It was quite in ruins," says this Traveller, "when he came to live here. He has rebuilt part of it, cleaned it, and fitted up the house with elegant English furniture, in the style of one of our villas. The waters of four rivers meet here, and cause frequent inundations in winter. In summer, the air is very unwholesome, as the woods and ditches at that season abound with vermin and reptiles of all sorts. The forest round it contains about four thousand acres, and was reserved to the crown by Ferdinand the Catholic, when he divided the conquered country among his followers. Elm, poplar, and some oak are the kinds of trees that grow here in any quantity; they are cut down for repairs of the estate, and for the service of the royal arsenals. Mr. Wall has drained most of the woods, opened pleasant drives throughout, filled up the naked spots with plantations of useful timber trees, and thinned the old quarters with great judgement. This is almost the only place in Spain where pheasants thrive and multiply.* In the beginning of spring, at the end of autumn, and during the winter months, this is a very agreeable rural habitation. Mr. Wall resides at the *Soto* from October to May; he then goes to Aranjuez, to attend the court for a month, after which he comes for the summer to the city of Granada. The king has given up to him all the revenues arising from these demesnes, and they are laid out in improving and beautifying the place, which Mr. Wall seems perfectly to understand. He has every thing within himself. His own flocks, herds, and poultry supply his table; the

* This bird was introduced into Spain by the Emperor Charles V.

woods furnish it with game; the rivers with fish; and the kitchen garden with every kind of vegetable. He is now in his eighty-third year, of a spare, neat make, active and fond of exercise, of a fair complexion and engaging countenance. He rises betimes, walks several hours a day, superintends his workmen; and, though he sees but little company, takes the greatest care to have every thing that is excellent in its kind served up at his table, where his behaviour is as easy and cheerful as if he were only thirty years of age; not the smallest grain of ministerial reserve or affectation. He is free and communicative in his conversation, which he renders exceedingly agreeable by introducing a variety of lively anecdotes of events and persons, with which so long a life of public employment has furnished him in great abundance. He is fond of talking, and acquits himself so well of the task, that the most loquacious must listen with patience and pleasure to his discourse, always heightened by mirth and good humour. Courts and ministers he treats with the ridicule which they, for the most part, deserve. A man who has passed so many years behind the curtain, must often reflect with contempt on the futile, absurd springs that set in motion the grand political machine. It was with the greatest regret that we took leave of this most amiable statesman."

On the death of Mr. Wall, in 1778, the property reverted to the crown, and was granted, together with some other rich and extensive lands in this vicinity, to the notorious Godoy, Prince of the Peace. After his disgrace and flight, the game, which had been carefully preserved, was somewhat thinned by the unlicensed sportsmen of the neighbouring towns.

The road from Santa Fé continues over the *Vega* to a lonely *venta* on the bank of the Saladillo, which,

even at this distance from the springs of Almaha, retains its saltness. "We continued our route across the plain," continues Mr. Jacob, "which appeared so enclosed by lofty and almost perpendicular mountains, that we could scarcely conjecture by what avenue we were to get out of the valley. By following the course of the Xenil, however, we at last found an opening, but through a chasm so extremely narrow, that it hardly admitted of more than a passage for the stream. The mountains rise on both sides in terrific forms and tremendous heights throughout this pass, which, when the Moors possessed the plain of Granada, was considered as the most important of its defences. In the wider part of this fissure, the town of Loxa is situated, its streets rising one above the other on the side of the mountain; and still higher is a Moorish castle,* which gives the whole scene a most picturesque appearance. The town contains about 9,000 inhabitants, who are mostly occupied in agriculture; the principal produce is oil. The parish church is the worst religious building, and the most destitute of ornaments of any I had seen in Spain. We left Loxa as soon as it was light, and began to ascend the mountains, which are very steep and lofty. We continued ascending and descending till noon, sometimes above the clouds, sometimes below them, and frequently so completely enveloped by them, as to preclude the sight of objects at the distance of only a few yards. During these

* This castle, M. Peyron says, is now become the peaceful abode of a hermit. "The Moors did not foresee that most of their palaces and fortresses would one day serve as retreats to Christian cenobites: such, however, has been the fate of the edifices they have left. The castles of Murviedro, San Felipe, Granada, Loxa, &c. are inhabited by monks and hermits.' The spider weaving his toils in the despoiled hive!

changes of elevation, we experienced equal changes of climate, and felt every degree of temperature, from the biting frost of a winter's morning, to the warmth of a May-day noon. Though fifty miles from the *Sierra Nevada*, we felt that, when the wind from that quarter was not intercepted by the mountains, a very sensible alteration took place in the atmosphere, which varied in the different situations, from 46° to 68° Fahr. I reckoned the lowest part of our morning's journey to be about 1000 yards, and our highest about 2,500; for in no instance did we reach the snow, though it lay on the tops of some higher elevations near us. After travelling five hours, we came to a mountain presenting a height of about 600 yards, almost perpendicular, and apparently terminating in a single point; but, in passing round it, its appearance became somewhat like the pyramidal spires in the crowns of our ancient kings. On one of these points is a Moorish fortress, which, like the hill forts in India, must be unassailable, and can be reduced only by hunger. At the foot of this hill, we found the town of Chiuma, containing 7 or 8,000 inhabitants. The surrounding country consists chiefly of corn-land, intermixed with olive-grounds. There is very little water near it; in consequence of which, in some years, the fields are so unproductive, that the inhabitants, having no surplus commodities to send to more fruitful districts, in exchange for the first necessary of life, suffer severely from famine. From Chiuma, we descended into a plain, at the end of which we reached the river Guadalhorce, which winds round the mountains till it empties itself into the sea at Malaga. At this spot, it is merely a small though beautiful stream, and washes the foot of a lofty, perpendicular rock, of celebrity at the period when the Moors ruled Granada.

Mariana, the historian, tells a tragical story of two lovers, who fled from Granada, and being pursued by the Moors, precipitated themselves from this rock to avoid captivity.* An hour's ride from *La Peña de los Enamorados*, brought us through a fertile valley to Antequera. Like most other cities in this part of Spain, it is finely situated, surrounded with beautiful gardens and fertile fields, and adorned by the sublime mountains which rise in the back ground; but a nearer inspection creates the customary disgust. On the whole road from Loxa to Antequera, a distance of twenty-five miles, we did not meet a single traveller; and, excepting the town of Chiuma, did not see a single house."†

Antequera (Anticaria) is a very ancient city, and is still of considerable extent; and numerous Roman and Moorish edifices give it an appearance of grandeur.‡ The date of its foundation is unknown; but it is noticed in the Itinerary of Antoninus, and from inscriptions which have been preserved, it is ascertained to have been a *municipium* as early as A.D. 77. The population in 1810, was supposed to amount to 8,000 families, which, on the common calculation, would give 40,000 inhabitants. Eighty years before the conquest of Granada, this city was taken by Juan II. of Castile; and in the Moorish castle, the arms captured by the Christians are still preserved. "It appears from these remains," says Mr. Jacob, "that the Moors used defensive armour of great weight, and

* The tradition is, that the lovers were a handsome, young French knight and the daughter of the Moorish sovereign.

† Jacob, pp. 307—10.

‡ Mr. Swinburne dismisses it with the simple remark, that it is "a large, straggling town at the extremity of the plain, situated on several hillocks in a nook of the mountains."

employed short javelins, cross-bows, and oval shields, formed of two hides cemented together, so thick as to resist a musket-ball. The castle in which these war-like instruments are deposited, is in better preservation than any Moorish fortress I have seen ; and the entrance, called the Giant's Arch, is the finest specimen of their architecture." Within its enclosure, is the church of Santa Maria, formerly a mosque, and which has undergone no other alteration than the introduction of a profusion of bad pictures, bad statues, and tasteless ornaments. The Franciscan convent contains some pillars of the most beautiful veined, flesh-coloured marble : they are twenty-eight in number, and support the arches of the cloister. In several of the churches are some good paintings in fresco by Antonio Mohedano, who flourished about A.D. 1600, and was highly esteemed both as an artist and a poet. Antequera has produced several eminent men ; among others, Luis de Carvajal, the historian, and Pedro de Espinosa, one of the best Castilian poets of the sixteenth century ; and the numerous Roman inscriptions in this city and its vicinity, have kindled a taste in particular for the study of antiquities. " There are few places in Europe," according to Mr. Jacob, " in which the antiquary, the botanist, or the geologist would find so much worthy of attention as at Antequera." Coins of various dates are frequently found here ; and the number of ancient edifices in ruins is considerable. The rocks are covered with a lichen (*saxatilis tinctorius*), from which is obtained a purple dye. Among the other vegetable productions which are found here in great luxuriance, are the *anchusa* (alkanet) ; liquorice, here regarded as a weed ; the caper-tree ; jessamine ; periwinkle ; lavender ; numerous species of heaths, which are converted into char-

coal for fuel; anise and cumin, of which the inhabitants make great use by infusing them in brandy; the cistus (*cistus ladaniferus*) or rock-rose, producing a gum which is eaten by the common people; the aloe; the *pita* or agave; the *esparto*; the *opuntia*; and various species of palm. The rocks surrounding the city, are all of limestone or marble. At the distance of about half a league, is a solid rock of most beautiful flesh-coloured marble, from which issue various springs, forming a rivulet that turns several mills, and waters the plains below. There are two springs near the city, which have long been celebrated. The water of one, about two leagues distant, is considered as a specific for the stone; it is said to act as a solvent, and to be also beneficial in strengthening the stomach. An ancient votive altar was discovered near this spring, which is called *Fuente de la Piedra*, inscribed "to the Divine Fountain."* The water is remarkably cold, and has no peculiar taste, except that of the saxifrage, which grows in abundance within the spring. About a mile and a half from the *Fuente de la Piedra*, is another copious spring, which fills with salt water a lake four miles in length, and two in breadth. The water is saltier than sea-water, and royal salt-works have been formed on the side of the lake. No other salt is allowed to be sold in this district. The mountains in this neighbourhood present a rich and unexplored field to the mineralogist. The wine produced here is all of the sweet kind, "muddy and nauseous." Oil is exchanged with the more northern districts for wheat.

* FONTI DIVINO ARAM—L. POSTUMIUS STATYLIVS—EX VOTO D. D. D. (Bourgoing, vol. iv. p. 206.) Morales states, that the Romans built a small town near this spring for the reception of patients, and that when the water was sent to a distance, a notary, to guard against imposition, was employed to attest the day on which it was taken from the spring, and the vessel was sealed.

There are considerable baize-manufactories in the city, which supply the surrounding towns; and some linens, cloths, and hats are made for home consumption.

A fatiguing ride of seven hours over the mountains, brought Mr. Jacob to Alora, distant from Antequera four leagues.* To the left, on descending the mountain above the city, was seen the singular mountain *El Torcal*, which has already been referred to. In the course of between four and five hours, the rich vale of Alora opened on the Travellers, with the town seated on the steep declivity of the opposite mountain. In the valley, a charming stream is seen meandering through orange and lemon groves, and on a jutting eminence stands a monastery, in the midst of delightful gardens watered by crystal rivulets. Alora (Iluro) contains about 4,000 inhabitants. From several inscriptions found here, it is ascertained to have been a municipal town under the Romans. It now contributes to the commerce of Malaga, by supplying the productions of the plain and the surrounding mountains. On a conical hill, commanding the town, stands an ancient castle. It is very spacious; and the foundation and lower part of the walls, Mr. Jacob says, are of Roman brick, but the superstructure is evidently Moorish, as is proved by the horse-shoe form of the arch over the gate.† It has on two sides a precipice

* "In good roads," Mr. Jacob says, speaking of these mountainous districts, "it is possible to accomplish a league in an hour; but, in this country, half a league in an hour is deemed expeditious travelling."

† The crescent arch, one of the characteristic features of the Moorish architecture, is said to have been first adopted by the Arabs of Syria; and the edifices erected by them during the reign of the Ommiade dynasty, invariably displayed this sacred arch. "The khalifs of the house of Abbas, as if disliking an appendage characteristic of the family they had dethroned, introduced in their

of nearly 400 feet, which gives it much of the appearance of the hill forts in India. The next two leagues after leaving this town, employed five hours: "Many parts of the path were on the edge of a precipice, with the river from two to three hundred yards below on one side, and the towering *Sierra de Blanquilla*, with its perpendicular marble rocks, on the other. The hills are so steep, that, on the lower side of each olive-tree, a wall has been constructed, to prevent its slipping down the precipice." An opening in this mountain leads to another rich vale of a deep, clayey soil, overlooked by the town of Casarabonela. This place is very singularly situated "on the top of a hill, whence the descent to the valley is full 800 yards, and in some places almost perpendicular, so that it occupied two hours to ascend to the town by a winding road. It contains between 4 and 5,000 inhabitants. Some beautiful cascades pour down from the mountains, and turn several mills behind the town. The *sierra* rises in majestic grandeur, in some parts to nearly the perpendicular height of a mile, which gives a very impressive effect to the scene. A Moorish fortress in ruins overlooks the town. On leaving Casarabonela," continues Mr. Jacob, "we began immediately to ascend the highest and steepest mountains we had yet encountered. For a considerable part of the ascent, the mountain is composed of marble or limestone; but near the top we saw several veins of good coal, some of them three or four feet in thickness. This substance is used by some of the poorer classes for fuel. I remarked in one part of this mountain, a

buildings at Bagdadt, an arch resembling the section of an oval, taken below the transverse diameter; and the sovereigns of Granada adopted a similar arch in constructing the palace of the Alhambra."—*Hist. of the Mah. Empire in Spain*, p. 289.

stratum of schist, of a bluish-grey colour, but not very thick. We left the highest summit, called *Sierra de Junquera*, which was covered with snow, on our left hand, and travelled for four hours, ascending and descending along execrable roads. Except a convent of bare-footed Carmelites at half a league's distance on our left, which appeared surrounded with cultivated fields, good gardens, and vineyards, the country presented nothing but extensive woods of oaks and cork-trees, under which thousands of pigs were feeding on the acorns. We reached *El Burgo*, a town containing about 1,500 inhabitants, in five hours. We then ascended another mountain of prodigious height; and on the highest part that we passed, just reached the line of perpetual snow, which is about 10,000 feet above the level of the sea. On both sides, the still higher points rose majestically above our heads. From the top of this pass, we first saw the rich plain on which the city of Ronda stands; for, though on an elevation of 1,500 yards above the level of the sea, the higher mountains around it give it the appearance of a valley, richly adorned with corn-fields, fruit-trees, and transparent streams. Four of the highest peaks, which in a clear day are visible at Cadiz, retain the snow, which is preserved through the summer in caverns, and is sent, packed in chaff, for the supply of Cadiz, Seville, and Gibraltar. On descending into the plain, by tremendous roads, we got into a warmer climate, and were surrounded with trees of every variety of verdure. About a league from the city are situated the ruins of *Acinipo*, called Old Ronda. They are very extensive; and the vestiges of the wall which formerly surrounded the city, are easily traced. Within this wall is a pile, which was evidently a Roman amphitheatre, though there are only eight

rows of seats now entire. It must certainly have been much larger than that of Italica near Seville.* Another edifice may also be distinctly traced, supposed to have been a temple. It originally formed a square of 200 feet ; and the interior was divided into apartments of a quadrangular form; about twenty-two feet square. The marble pavement of this temple was taken up in 1650, by an antiquary named Don Rodrigo de Ovalle, and removed to Ronda at the expense of the Cabildo. The aqueduct is entire for a considerable distance. The whole of these ruins occupies fifty acres of land, exclusive of those without the walls, which are also very extensive, though but thinly scattered. From inscriptions and coins discovered here, it appears to have been a municipal town of the Romans, and to have had a mint ; for many of the coins have the name of the town between an ear of wheat and another of barley."

The city of Ronda (the ancient Arunda) contains three *paroquias*, or parish-churches, five convents with splendid churches, an ancient Moorish castle, and "abundance of Roman antiquities." The population is stated by Mr. Jacob at about 20,000,—a hardy race, with "much of the appearance of the natives of the north of Europe, the complexion of many approaching to ruddy." The air is esteemed remarkably salubrious ; and the longevity of the inhabitants has given rise to the proverb, "In Ronda, a man of eighty is a boy." Under the Romans, this also was a municipal town, as appears from several inscriptions and coins. The inhabitants depend almost wholly on the productions of their fields and gardens. There

* From a fragment of the outer wall, which, though thrown down, has been held together by the cement, Mr. Jacob calculates the height to have been nearly seventy feet.

are manufactories which partially supply the district with serges, baize, flannels, leather, and hats ; but none of these articles are sent beyond the neighbouring towns. “ The fertile fields and productive gardens that surround Ronda, afford the people abundant means of subsistence. Besides wine, oil, and corn, which they enjoy in common with other parts of the province, they have a profusion of all the fruits and vegetables of our more northern climate. The apples and pears with which the trees are loaded, equal or excel in flavour those of our own country ; and the cities of Cadiz and Seville, while they are supplied with oranges, lemons, grapes, and pomegranates from their immediate vicinity, are furnished from this quarter with the vegetable luxuries of northern Europe. The plains in this district abound with cattle, and the hills with game of all kinds. The roebuck and fallow-deer are found on the sides of the mountains, and the wild boar is common among the woods. Wolves are very numerous on these mountains, and are sometimes so fierce as to attack horses or mules while the riders are on their backs, but they are alarmed at fire-arms ; a peasant, therefore, never goes from home without carrying a gun.

“ About a league south-east of the city is the highest of the mountains, called *Cresta de Gallo* (the Cock’s Comb), from its very singular appearance ; it is frequently the first land seen on approaching Cadiz. It consists of two ridges parallel to each other, and joined at the bottom. One is quite red, and though it is rather the highest, the snow never lies upon it. The other is white, and its top is always covered with snow. No trees grow on the white ridge, except oak or cork ; and on the red ridge, none but pines. The former contains iron ore in great abundance ; and the

latter, almost every mineral except iron. The waters issuing from the white ridge are chalybeate or vitriolic; and those from the red, are sulphureous or alkaline. A mine of black lead (*molybdena*) in these mountains, was formerly worked, but within the last twenty years it has been totally neglected. Tin was also found here; but the manufactory for tinning iron plates having been so ill conducted as to make the plates cost more than those brought from England, both the mine and the manufactory have been suffered to decay. The great quantity of iron ore in these mountains, where it is found in small balls not much larger than shot, the plenty of excellent fuel, and the red earth of the soil, which, by its resistance to fire, makes very good furnaces, have induced several attempts to establish iron-foundries; but none of them have hitherto succeeded, and the projectors have desisted after considerable losses. The most abundant of all the mineral productions in these mountains is the amianthus or asbestos, from which the fossil-cloth was made by the ancients. It is related of the Emperor Charles the Fifth, that he had a complete service of linen made from this substance, and surprised the ladies of his court, who were unacquainted with its peculiar property, by ordering them all to be thrown into the fire by way of cleansing them. The amianthus is so very abundant that I have been assured there are large rocks entirely composed of it; it is, however, a matter more of curiosity than of benefit; and if the art of spinning it be now lost, it is only because it is an art not worth retaining.* The speci-

* "Several attempts to convert it into cloth were made in Italy towards the close of the seventeenth century, and with such success, that Ciampini, in a pamphlet published at Rome in 1699, describes the process for making both cloth and paper of it."

mens I have met with in this place, are soft and flexible, and the fibres from three to five inches in length. When burned, it does not appear to diminish in bulk, but it loses part of its weight every time that it is set on fire. Mines of lead (*plumbago*) were formerly worked about half a league from this city, and also a mine of silver, which is said to have been opened by the Phenicians; these mines, however, like those of iron, tin, and black lead, are now totally neglected."

Scarcely any thing which Mr. Jacob saw in Spain, excited so much his admiration, he says, as the singular situation of Ronda. This city, which is encircled by the river Guadiaro, and connected with its suburbs by bridges, is "placed on a rock, with cliffs either perpendicular and abrupt towards the river, or with broken crags, whose jutting prominences, having a little soil, are planted with orange and fig-trees. A fissure in this rock, of great depth, surrounds the city on three sides; and at the bottom of the fissure, the river rushes along with impetuous rapidity. Two bridges are constructed over this fissure: the first is a single arch resting on the rocks on the two sides, the height of which from the water is 120 feet. The river descends from this to the second bridge, while the rocks on each side as rapidly increase in height; so that from this second bridge to the water, there is the astonishing height of 280 feet. The highest tower in Spain, the *Giralda* in Seville, or the Monument near London bridge, might stand under this stupendous arch, without their tops reaching to it. The mode of constructing this bridge is not less surprising than the situation in which it is placed and its extraordinary elevation: it is a single arch of 110 feet in diameter, supported by solid pillars of masonry,

built from the bottom of the river, about fifteen feet in thickness, which are fixed into the solid rock on both sides, and on which the ends of the arch rest : other pillars are built to support these principal ones, which are connected with them by other small arches. A bridge was built on this spot in 1735, but, the key-stone not having been properly secured, it fell down in 1741, by which fifty persons were killed. The present bridge was finished in 1774, by Don Josef Martin Aldehuela, a celebrated architect of Malaga, and appears so well constructed as to bid defiance almost to time itself. It is impossible to convey an adequate idea of it. From below, it appears suspended in the air. From above, the river beneath appears no longer a mighty torrent, but resembles a rippling brook. To one looking from the bridge, the optical illusion is very singular : the torrent of water seems to run up a hill towards the bridge ; and the same phenomenon takes place when viewed in either direction. One of the streets of the city is built almost close to the edge of the precipice ; and stairs are hewn out of the solid rock, which lead to nooks in the lower precipices, in which gardens have been formed, where fig and orange-trees grow with considerable luxuriance, and greatly contribute to the beauty of the scenery. Stairs are constructed down to the river, by which means the inhabitants are supplied with water. We descended by a flight of 350 steps, and at the bottom, found a fine spring in a large cave, which, after turning a mill at its source, enters the Guadiaro. From this spot, our view of the lofty bridge was most striking and impressive ; and the houses and churches of the city, impending over our heads on both banks, had a most sublime effect. Beyond the bridge, the river takes a turn to the right, and passes under the

alameda, from which the precipice of 500 feet is very bold and abrupt, though interspersed with jutting prominences covered with shrubs and trees. The *alameda* of this city is by far the most beautiful public walk I have seen in Spain. The paths are paved with marble, the parterres are filled with evergreens, and over the paths, vines are trained on trellices, which in the warmest weather afford a grateful shade.

“Soon after the Guadiaro quits the rocks of Ronda, it receives the tributary streams of the Guadalevi, the Culebras, and the Alcobacen, and passes over the plain with this increase of water, till, at a league’s distance, it is precipitated over some lofty rocks, making a cascade of striking beauty, and is at length received into a cavern, where it disappears. The entrance to this cavern, which is called *Cueva del Gato*, is very lofty. I was informed by those who had explored it, that, after advancing about a mile, it extends itself into a large lake, on the banks of which are ruins of an ancient edifice; that beyond the lake, which is of unfathomable depth, the passage made by the water is too small to admit of further discovery; and that sometimes the difficulty of discharging all the water by this aperture, causes the lake to rise almost to the roof. The termination of this cave is about four miles from its commencement, where the Guadiaro again becomes visible, and continues its course by Algaucin, till it enters the Mediterranean Sea.

“In the Dominican convent at Ronda, there is a singular repository for water, consisting of a large cavern, nearly on a level with the river, which was supplied with water by means of an aqueduct that formerly passed over the old bridge. It is descended by means of about 350 steps, and on the walls are

shewn marks of the cross which the Christian captives are said to have worn with their fingers in passing up and down, while they were obliged by the Moors to bring the water in skins from this reservoir to supply the wants of the inhabitants. The cavern is hollowed into spacious saloons, the roofs of which are formed into domes of prodigious height ; and formerly, the whole was filled with water, but now the caverns are neglected, and are going so fast to decay, that in a few years they will be filled with the rubbish that falls from the roofs.

“ The inhabitants of Ronda have peculiarities common to themselves and the other people in the mountainous districts, and obviously differ from the people on the plains. The dress both of the males and the females varies as well in the colour and shape of the garments, as in the materials of which they are composed, and is peculiarly calculated for cold weather. Their countenances are very expressive, and, in my judgement, superior to those of any race of people I have ever seen. The men are remarkably well-formed, robust, and active, with a flexibility of well-turned limbs, which gives them that agility for which they are celebrated. The females in general are of short stature ; and the cumbersome dress which they wear, so conceals the figure, that it is difficult to determine whether they are well or ill formed ; but there is an expression of sensibility in their countenances, and a peculiar grace in all their movements, which are extremely fascinating. In walking the streets, the women wear, as a substitute for caps or hats, veils made of a pink or pale blue flannel, which, with a petticoat of black stuff, form their principal dress. The men wear the *montero* cap, made of black velvet, (something in the shape of a sugar-loaf,) adorned with tas-

sels and fringe ; and a short jacket with gold or silver buttons, and sometimes ornamented with embroidery, is worn just sufficiently open to display a very highly finished waistcoat ; they wear leather or velvet breeches, with gaiters ; so that the whole figure, which is generally good, is distinctly seen. There is a civility to strangers, and an easy style of behaviour, familiar to this class of Spanish society, very remote from the churlish and awkward manners of the English and German peasantry. Their sobriety and endurance of fatigue are very remarkable ; and there is a constant cheerfulness in their demeanour, which strongly prepossesses a stranger in their favour. A young peasant never sleeps on a bed till he is married, but rests on the floor in his clothes, which he never takes off but for the purposes of cleanliness ; and during the greater part of the year, it is a matter of indifference whether he sleep under a roof or in the open air. Though the Spanish peasantry treat every one they meet with politeness, they expect an equal return of civility ; and to pass them without the usual salutation of *Vayausted con Dios* (God be with you), or saluting them without bestowing on them the title of *Caballeros*, would be risking an insult from people not a little jealous of their claims to reciprocal attention. I have been informed, that most of the domestic virtues are strongly felt and practised by the peasantry, and that a degree of parental, filial, and fraternal affection is observed among them, which is exceeded in no other country. They are usually fair and honourable in their dealings, and a foreigner is less subject to imposition in Spain, than in any other country I have visited. Their generosity is great, as far as their means extend ; and many of our country-

men have experienced it in rather a singular way. I have been told that, after the Revolution, when Englishmen first began to travel in the Peninsula, many who had remained a few days at an inn, on asking for their bill at their departure, learned, to their great surprise, that some of the inhabitants had paid their reckoning, and forbidden the host to communicate to his guests the persons to whose civility they were indebted. It was common, if our countrymen went to a coffee-room or an ice-house, to discover, when they rose to depart, that their refreshment had been paid for by some one who had disappeared, and with whom they had not exchanged a word. I should be glad if I could with justice give as favourable a picture of the higher orders of society in this country. But, when we consider their wretched education and their early habits of indolence and dissipation, we ought not to wonder at the state of contempt and degradation to which they are reduced. Every accurate observer among our countrymen will concur with me in saying, that the figures and countenances of the higher orders are as much inferior to those of the peasantry, as their moral qualities are in the view I have given of them.

“ The mountains in this neighbourhood are filled with contrabandists, who convey tobacco and other goods from Gibraltar to the interior of the country. They are an athletic race of men, with all the hardiness and spirit of enterprise which their dangerous occupation requires. They reside in the towns which are situated in the most mountainous parts of the country, and are well acquainted with all the passes and hiding-places. They are excellent marksmen ; and though the habit of their lives has rendered them

disobedient to the revenue laws, yet, they are much attached to their native land." *

For the first hour and a half after leaving Ronda, the road ascends the hills southward of the city. From the summit, the view is extensive and delightful, stretching, to the west, towards Xeres and San Lucar, while to the south, is seen Gibraltar and the distant mountains of Africa. The rock of Gibraltar, from this eminence, appears a mere mole-hill when compared with Apes' Hill on the coast of Africa, though the latter is five or six leagues further distant. From this summit, the whole journey to Algaucin is a continual descent for nine hours. The road runs along the ridge of hills, which gradually become lower, with spacious and fertile valleys on both sides. These hills are covered to the tops with vines, but they are not much attended to by the proprietors. Very little wine is made in this district, though the vineyards are extensive, as their produce is generally appropriated to making either vinegar or brandy. "We observed," continues Mr. Jacob, "several towns in the most romantic situations, which appeared almost inaccessible; more especially one upon our right, the singularity of which, and the difficulty of reaching it, surpassed all the others. We passed on its eastern side, and some passengers informed us, that the only path to it was in the opposite direction, and accessible only to mules and asses. It was built by the Moors, and is called Zahara. The streets and houses are scooped out of the solid rock; and the descent down the precipices at the backs of the habitations, which are close to their edge, must be, on the sides from which we viewed it, at least 1,200 feet." The other

* Jacob, pp. 329-42.

towns, which are placed in positions of similar strength, are numerous, and give a peculiar character to the country.

Algaucin is finely situated on the ridge of a hill, whence a beautiful glacis, covered with orchards, vineyards, and corn-fields, extends to the valleys on either side. An ancient Moorish fort occupies the pinnacle of a rock above the town, while the river Guadiaro, flowing through the valley beneath, completes the beauty of the scene. It is the second city in the *Sierra de Ronda*, and contains about 10,000 inhabitants. There are some mineral springs in the neighbourhood, which are in high repute. Early the next morning, our Traveller was roused by his guide, who urged the necessity of instant departure, *because the rain fell in torrents*. There being neither bridges nor boats in this part of the route, there was no alternative but either to get the start of the mountain torrents, or to wait till the fords should again become passable. The necessity was still more obvious, when, after travelling at intervals, for considerable distances, along the bed of the Xucar, to its junction with the Guadiaro, they had to cross the united streams, already become deep and rapid. At the end of six hours, our Traveller halted for shelter under a wretched gipsy hut, the first habitation he had seen after leaving Algaucin. A barren country extends to the river Hogarganta, which he with difficulty crossed in a crazy ferry-boat, although, the day before, it had been nearly dry. In the evening, passing over the most wretched roads, through forests of cork-tree, he arrived at San Roque.

This is an ill-paved town of miserable appearance, although the environs are agreeable and highly cultivated. It boasts, however, of a *posada*, "equalling in comfort an English inn," being the resort of the

officers from Gibraltar, who make excursions into Spain. This place has derived an importance from being the site of the encampment and works of the besieging army which invested Gibraltar in the years 1779—82. The camp is now nothing but a heap of ruins ; but traces of the trenches and *epaulements* are still to be discovered, with the large stone tower, called the Tower of the Mill, the only object that escaped the ravages of the contending armies, and the site of the little gardens which the English had been permitted to make before their fortress, beyond the limits to which they were confined by the Peace of Utrecht. From Buena Vista, a large house on an eminence which formed the head-quarters of the French general Crillon, that celebrated rock is seen lifting its proud height, while beyond, the eye ranges over the two seas and the African coast.

GIBRALTAR.

HERE, where now the British standard streams, the terror and hope of Africa, and the safeguard of Spain, the Mussulman legions, led by the Moorish general Tarik, first landed on the Spanish soil.*

* “ Thou, Calpe, saw'st their coming ; ancient rock
Renown'd, no longer now shalt thou be called,
From gods and heroes of the years of yore,
Kronos, or hundred-handed Briareus,
Bacchus or Hercules ; but doom'd to bear
The name of thy new conqueror, and thenceforth
To stand his everlasting monument.”

SOUTHEY'S *Roderick*, vol. i. p. 2.

Such is the generally received derivation of Gibraltar, *Gebel al Tarik*, the mountain of Tarik (or Tarif), which is adopted even by Gibbon ; and Ben Hazel, a Granadan Moor, says expressly, we are told, that the mountain derived its name from that general. Other authorities, however, assign as a more probable etymology,

Here, too, in more remote times, according to Pomponius Mela, himself a native of Cadiz, the early navigators of the Mediterranean are said to have first embarked, and the two vast mountain pillars on either side of the strait, Calpe and Abila, received the name of the Phenician Hercules. The narrow outlet which unites the Mediterranean to the Atlantic, the ancient *Fretum Gaditaneum*, is about eight leagues in length,* and its breadth, in the narrowest part, is nearly five.

The promontory of Gibraltar is joined to the Spanish main by a neck of land so narrow, that from some aspects, it has the appearance of an island. It is about three miles in length from north to south, varying from one-half to three-fourths of a mile in width, and from 1,200 to 1,400 feet in height. The rock is steepest towards the Mediterranean, and gradually declines towards the bay; but here, "Nature, as if to render Gibraltar inaccessible on all sides, has placed between the foot of this fortress on the west and the Bay of Algeiras, a deep swamp, which extends to the land gate, leaving between them only space sufficient for a very narrow causeway, commanded by nearly one

Gebel al Tath, which is said to signify the mountain of the entrance, it being considered as the key of the straits. *Tauh*, in Hebrew, signifies *finis*, end or limit, which might not inappropriately have been given to Mount Calpe as the extreme point of Europe. *Gebel Tour*, in Arabic, signifies simply high mountain. The derivation of Calpe is unknown, or that might help to decide the question. Mr. Southey refers us, for the "former appellations" of this celebrated promontory, to a History of Gibraltar by D. Ignacio Lopez de Ayala. Not having access to the work of the learned Don, we regret that Mr. S. has not told us what they were, although we have a great distrust of the Spanish etymologists.

* Reckoning, however, from Gibraltar and Ceuta, to Cape Trafalgar and Cape Spartel, the Straits are above 100 miles in length. A strong current always sets from the ocean into the Mediterranean. The narrowest part is about eight miles westward of Gibraltar.

hundred pieces of cannon. Between this swamp and the bay, a small dike runs along by the sea-side to confine the water ; and within the enclosure of the fortress, the marsh is bordered by a palisade, which begins at the foot of the mountain, and terminates at the sea. From this point, you may distinctly see the old mole, a kind of narrow jetty, lined on either side with batteries. It entirely masks the new mole, which is half a league behind it." The northern front of the rock is almost perpendicular ; the eastern is full of frightful precipices ; the southern, being narrow and abrupt, presents hardly any possibility of approach even to an enemy in command of the sea. The western front, though almost as abrupt as the others, may be approached by shipping from the bay, and on this side, accordingly, the attacks of assailants have always been directed. The town stands at the foot of the promontory, on the north-western side. It is strongly fortified, but its chief protection is derived from the batteries on the neighbouring heights, which sweep both the isthmus and the approach by water. After the fortifications of Cadiz, these of Gibraltar appeared to Mr. Jacob deficient in beauty, and had even an air of meanness ; but this is amply compensated by the superiority of their construction. " The principal batteries are casemated ; and traverses are constructed to prevent the mischief which might arise from the explosion of shells. The principal strength of the place depends on the shortness of the line of defence, and the prodigious flanking fires which may annoy the enemy from the projecting parts of the rock on the north-east. The most extraordinary works are the galleries excavated from the solid rock, in which loop-holes are formed for the reception of cannon of large calibre. These guns are pointed to

the narrow causeway which alone gives a passage to the town. But the most striking part of the galleries is St. George's Chapel, scooped out of the solid rock about 400 feet above the level of the sea, and filled with cannon. Over this, Willis's Battery is situated, having its artillery pointed in the same direction. On a level with the entrance is placed another battery, called the Devil's Tongue, which flanks one entrance, and on which, it is said, 600 pieces of artillery might be brought to bear on an attacking enemy. The whole rock is lined with batteries to the water's edge, from the land gate to Europa Point. Yet this, being deemed the weakest part of the fortress, was that on which the attack was made in the last memorable siege. The Spaniards hoped to silence and level these forts by their floating batteries, and then, with an army of 30,000 men, which they had embarked on board small craft at Algeziras, to carry the fortress by storm."

"The court of Spain," says M. Bourgoing, "weary of the fruitless blockade of Gibraltar, which excited the ridicule of all Europe, and of the besieged themselves, seriously determined to take this fortress by some extraordinary expedient, against which its steepness, its formidable artillery, and all the skill of General Elliot should prove unavailing. Plans poured in from all quarters, some bold to extravagance, others so whimsical, that it was scarcely possible to look upon them as serious. Several of this kind I received myself.* One of those sent to the ministers, formally proposed to throw up, in front of the lines of San Roque, a prodigious mount, higher than Gibraltar,

* M. Bourgoing was minister plenipotentiary from France to the Court of Madrid.

which would consequently deprive that fortress of its principal means of defence. The projector had calculated the quantity of cubic fathoms of earth, the number of hands, and the time that would be required by this enormous undertaking, and proved that it would be less expensive and less destructive than the prolongation of the siege upon the plan upon which it had been begun. Another proposed to fill the bombs with a substance so strongly mephitic, that, on bursting in the fortress, they would either put to flight or poison the besieged with their exhalations. The plan of D'Arçon was at length presented, and engaged the more serious attention of the Spanish Government. Scarcely any thing is known respecting it, except what relates to the ten floating batteries, which, on the 13th of September, 1782, foolishly exposed themselves to the fire of Gibraltar, and were reduced to ashes by the red-hot balls of the English batteries..... The ten batteries had been so constructed as to present to the fire of the fortress one side covered with blinds three feet thick, and kept continually wet by a very ingenious contrivance. The red-hot balls were thus expected to be extinguished on the spot where they penetrated ; but this first measure proved incomplete. The awkwardness of the caulkers prevented the working of the pumps which were designed to keep up the humidity. But this was not all. Though the place where they were to take their stations had been but very slightly sounded, they had received instructions what course they were to pursue, in order to avoid striking, and to place themselves at a proper distance. This precaution likewise proved unavailing. Don Ventura Moreno, stung to the quick by a letter from General Crillon, containing these words : ' If you do not make an attack, you are a man without honour'—

hastened the departure of the batteries, and placed them in an order contrary to the plan which had been agreed on. In consequence of this mistake, not more than two could station themselves at the concerted distance of 200 fathoms. These were the *Pastora*, commanded by Moreno himself, and the *Talla-piedra*, on board of which were the Prince of Nassau and D'Arçon. But they were exposed to the fire of the most formidable battery, that of the Royal Bastion, instead of all ten being drawn up around the old mole, and receiving only sideways the fire of that battery. The only two batteries which occupied this dangerous post, made great havoc, and sustained dreadful loss. The *Talla-piedra* received a fatal shot. In spite of all precautions, a red-hot ball penetrated to the dry part of the vessel. Its effect was very slow. The *Talla-piedra* had opened her fire about ten in the morning; the ball struck her between three and five, but the mischief did not appear irremediable till midnight. The San Juan, one of her next neighbours, shared the same fate. It appears certain, that the eight others remained untouched. But what was still more distressing, every thing was wanting at once,—cables to tow off the batteries in case of accident, and boats to receive the wounded. The attack was to have been supported by ten ships and upwards of sixty gun-boats. Neither boats, gun-boats, nor ships made their appearance. Lastly, according to the projected position, the gun-boats were to have been seconded by the 180 pieces of cannon at the lines of San Roque: this co-operation was rendered impracticable. Nearly 400 pieces of artillery were to have opened at once upon North Bastion, Montagu Bastion, and Orange Bastion. With a superiority of nearly 300 pieces, D'Arçon flattered himself that he should be able to silence the

artillery of the fortress. What was his consternation, when he found that the besiegers had not more than sixty or seventy pieces to oppose to above 230 belonging to the besieged! The combined squadron remained quiet spectators of this tremendous scene. Guichen, who commanded the French ships, sent to offer assistance to Moreno, who replied that he had not occasion for any. Matters continued to grow worse, and no remedy could be devised. Eight of the ten batteries were at too great a distance to do or to sustain much injury: the other two bore in their bosom the elements of destruction. Moreno, despairing of being able to save any of them, and resolving that they should not fall into the hands of the English, directed that those which were already in flames should be suffered to burn, and that all the others should be set on fire. I have seen the original order to this effect. Such was the result of that day, on which were annihilated ten vessels, the master-pieces of human ingenuity, the building of which had cost 3,000,000 of livres, and whose artillery, anchors, cables, rigging, &c., amounted to nearly 2,500,000 more.*

Such is the French account, evidently a very partial and unsatisfactory one, of the "fatal termination of the grand enterprise which had engaged the attention of all Europe." The whole power of the French and

* M. Bourgoing states in a note, that he had for a considerable time in his possession the original of the short but emphatic letter which D'Arçon addressed to Montmorin, the ambassador, from the shore of Algeziras, amid the dying sound of the artillery, and by the light of the burning batteries. It was as follows: "I have burned the temple of Ephesus; every thing is lost, and through my fault. What comforts me under my misfortune is, that the glory of the two kings remains untarnished." On recovering, however, from the shock, D'Arçon drew up a learned memoir, in which he took great pains to modify the confession which had escaped him.—BOURGOING, vol. iii. pp. 209—215.

Spanish monarchies had been exerted on this occasion. The preparations both by sea and land were immense, and the quantities of artillery and every description of military stores and provision which had been collected, were unprecedented. There are said to have been not less than 83,000 barrels of gunpowder. The combined fleets of France and Spain, amounting to about fifty sail of the line, were to cover and support the attack, together with forty gun-boats with heavy artillery, as many bomb-vessels with twelve-inch mortars, almost all the frigates and smaller vessels that could be assembled, and 300 large boats. In the besieging army were 12,000 French soldiers, headed by the Count d'Artois and the Duke de Bourbon, who came with a brilliant retinue to witness the reduction of the place,—so confident were the besiegers of success. When the bombardment and cannonade were opened, the effect is represented as having been tremendous beyond all conception. The number of red-hot balls which the battering ships alone received from the English furnaces, was estimated in their own accounts at not less than 4,000. For some time, the fire was so nearly equal on both sides, that the issue of the contest seemed doubtful, till, about three o'clock, the effect of the red-hot shot upon the floating batteries began to be discovered by the smoke which broke forth from two of those tremendous engines, followed at length by volumes of flame, which announced the dreadful explosion that shortly terminated the terrific conflict. That Moreno set fire to the eight remaining batteries, as asserted by M. Bourgoing, is not only at variance with all other testimony, but with probability and common sense. That he ever gave such an order, is not less questionable than his supposed directions that the two already in flames

should be suffered to burn, when the flames could not be got under ! No boats, we are told, had appeared to receive the wounded ; and yet, without the means of escape, it is pretended, that the Spanish admiral, regardless alike of the lives of his men, and the value of the vessels, ordered eight battering ships which remained untouched to be set on fire, because *two* had been destroyed ! M. Bourgoing does not tell the sequel. The light of morning disclosed a dreadful spectacle. Numbers of men were seen in the midst of the burning ships, crying out for pity and aid, and others, floating on pieces of timber, were seen exposed to equal peril of an opposite kind. The fire from the garrison immediately ceased, and every possible endeavour was made by the British marines to rescue the now defenceless enemy from destruction. By these generous efforts, about 400 men were saved from the flames and the waves.* The loss of the besieged is said to have been small, and the damage done to the works bore no proportion to the weight of fire they had sustained. In whatever degree the failure may be attributable to the evident want of concert and co-operation among the assailants,† never was defeat more signal and decisive in its issue ; and

* Capt. Curtis of the Brilliant frigate is said to have distinguished himself in particular by his exertions, at the imminent risk of his personal safety ; for his pinnace being close to one of the burning ships when she blew up, not only several of his men were killed, but a large hole was made in the bottom of the boat by the falling timber, which was with difficulty stopped till other boats could arrive to their assistance.

† M. Bourgoing pathetically adverts to, “ French impatience, national jealousy, intrigues of rivalry, impetuous colleagues, perfidious plots, and suspicious alarms of authority,” as all conspiring to frustrate M. d’Arçon’s admirable but unsuccessful plan. It is certain, that the French and the Spaniards never act cordially together.

the glory which the defence shed on the British garrison, was only eclipsed by the nobler triumph of humanity, when our sailors were seen venturing their own lives to save the vanquished.

Gibraltar was taken by the English during the Succession war, in 1704; since which time it has repeatedly been besieged, but always without success. The garrison in 1779 varied from 5,000 to 7,000 men. It had at that period no regular communication with England, and could be relieved only by a powerful fleet. This was effected, successively, by Admiral Rodney and Admiral Darby, and a third time, a month after the last formidable assault, by Admiral Lord Howe.* The siege was definitively relinquished on the signature of a treaty of peace in February 1783. In this last siege, the town was almost destroyed, but it has been rebuilt on an improved plan. The principal street, which is full of shops, traverses nearly the whole town, being half a mile in length. All the houses are built in the English style, with small doors, flat roofs, and "enormous bow-windows," behind which goods of all sorts are exposed to sale. M. Laborde is all astonishment how so much merchandise can be disposed of in so small a place, insulated on all sides, and without any open communication with Spain. The greater part of the inhabitants are mili-

* "Scarcely had Gibraltar foiled this formidable attempt," says M. Bourgoing, "when, in sight of our armies and our squadrons, the place was re-victualled by Admiral Howe, who afterwards with his thirty-six ships boldly entered the Mediterranean. He was seen from Buena Vista passing from one sea to the other; and every spectator supposed that he was running into the jaws of destruction. The fifty-two ships that were in the bay, weighed anchor and pursued him. But Howe baffled our manœuvres, and returned through the straits in the same security as he had entered them."

tary; the rest chiefly merchants; and besides the British, there are Spaniards, Italians, Moors, and Jews.* The principal buildings are, the marine hospital, the victualling office, the barracks, and the convent, now the governor's house. The places of worship are, an English church, a Roman Catholic chapel, a Wesleyan Methodist chapel, and four synagogues. There is a small but elegant theatre. A public library instituted by Mr. Pitt, is attached to the garrison. "This institution," says Mr. Jacob, "together with the sensible and polite conversation of the engineer and artillery officers, most of whom are men of education and liberal minds, gives an agreeable tone to the society and manners. Nothing, however, can be more miserable than the appearance of the civil inhabitants of the town, whether Moors, Jews, or Christians. They live crowded together in habitations resembling barracks rather than houses, which are as filthy as their persons." Owing to this circumstance, the plague, when introduced here from Cadiz in 1804, swept off thousands. The place is otherwise esteemed healthy, the climate being less sultry than might be expected in such a latitude. The population is about

* Mr. Wolf, the missionary to the Jews, who visited Gibraltar in 1821, was informed by Gabay, a learned Jew, that the number of Jews there is between three and four thousand, all Talmudists and observing the Spanish rites, and that they have four synagogues. By the presidents of the three chief synagogues, however, he was afterwards assured, that there are not more than 1,600 Jews at Gibraltar,—families were probably meant. Many of them are Moorish Jews, refugees from Barbary, where they are held in extreme degradation. "The Jews," remarks M. Laborde, "live more securely here than in any other part of Europe; and so great a number of them assemble from all parts, that, in process of time, this famous rock will be a colony of Jews." The principal synagogue is handsome, "having three aisles separated by pillars of the Doric order," with a pulpit towards the centre for the rabbi.

12,000, inclusive of the garrison. "To a person coming direct from England," says Mr. Jacob, "Gibraltar will not appear a very pleasing place of residence; but after passing a few months in the best cities of Spain, it appears a paradise"—owing, he means, to its restoring the traveller to "English society and English comforts."

The upper part of the rock of Gibraltar consists of excellent limestone, resting on a base of granite, and containing a number of caverns. The most remarkable is St. Michael's cave, about half way up on the south-western side. The entrance is about twenty-five feet in height, and about thirty in breadth. It is full of stalactites of a large size, reaching from the roof to the floor, and having the appearance of pillars. A gradual descent of 400 feet leads through apartments of natural arches in various directions, supported by similar columns. Besides these natural excavations, others have been effected by the force of gunpowder in the centre of the mountain, and form vaults of such height and extent, that, in case of a siege, they would contain the whole garrison. These caverns, the most considerable of which is the Hall of St. George, communicate with the batteries established all along the mountain by a winding road passable throughout on horseback. "It is impossible," says Laborde, "to do justice to the taste and magnificence of the English, on seeing the care with which they have embellished the rock. They have spared nothing to cover it with trees and flowers, to support the earth with walls and other props, to cut a number of roads through the solid rock, and make them passable on horseback and in carriages up to the very top. They have even sown some artificial meadows for their flocks; an excellent example to the Spaniards, who

could obtain with much more facility the same advantages in their fertile country. From the grotto of St. Michael, you discover the magazines, the batteries, the new town ; on the south, the marine hospital, a handsome and commodious building. The view extends over a number of country-houses, to some of which beautiful gardens are attached. In time, these new buildings will form a town as considerable as that of Gibraltar. Near it, there are eight magnificent cisterns, large enough to contain 40,000 tuns of water. These cisterns are bomb-proof ; they receive all the water that flows down the side of the mountain, previously purified in coppers erected for that purpose. The English have formed a project for building over these cisterns an edifice for keeping every thing necessary for victualling ships ; and the hospital as well as the artillery park being near, they could then instantly refit a squadron with every thing it might want. From Europa Point to the gate on the land side, are several moles, which facilitate the unlading of ships, and enable them to cast anchor in greater security ; yet, they are constantly at work upon them, as well as upon the fortifications, to which they are adding something every day." The small plain on the southern side, which terminates in Europa Point, is somewhat elevated above the sea, towards which it is bounded on all sides by rocks. On the steep eastern side, several winding passages, defended by batteries, are constructed along the face of the mountain, which conduct to the Mediterranean Stairs,—a long flight of steps cut in the rock, by which you may reach the summit. The whole of the rest of this side is perfectly inaccessible, except one or two spots near the base, where fishermen sometimes land. The view from the summit is extremely interesting and exten-

sive. From its bare ridge, on which we stand with a kind of dread, we see to the southward, on the opposite side of the straits, Ape's-Hill, the Abyla of the ancients, generally capped with clouds, the African shore tapering down from it, and shutting in, with the coast of Spain, the entrance of the Straits, and the distant waters of the Atlantic.* To the east, the Mediterranean stretches out in boundless prospect. On its northern side, rise the mountains of Granada, the Alpuxarras, and the *Sierra Nevada*, their lofty summits covered with snow, or buried in thick clouds. Lastly, to the west, the Bay of Gibraltar lies beneath our feet; on the opposite side, stands the town of Algeziras, and behind it rise the mountains which form a petty branch of the Granada chain, and terminate at the Straits, where they open towards the Atlantic. A tower has been built at the highest point, about 1,300 feet above the sea, which was intended by General O'Hara to overlook the high lands which intercept the distant view of the Atlantic towards the N.W., so as to enable him to watch the motions of any fleet in the Bay of Cadiz. But it was never used; and having, from its height, been frequently struck by lightning, is now a heap of ruins, serving only to add another impressive feature to the scene. The crevices of the rock are the resort of African apes of a large size: here they hide themselves when the east wind blows; but at other times, they make their appearance in considerable numbers, and sometimes greatly incommode passengers by rolling down broken fragments of rock. No one is permitted to shoot them, the strictest orders being

* Laborde asserts, that the three kingdoms of Barbary, Fez, and Morocco may be seen from this point.

issued, that no gun shall be fired on the rock, which, says Mr. Jacob, as the place abounds with game, proves to sportsmen a great mortification.

Gibraltar derives its chief importance from its bay, which is about ten miles in length from S.S.E. to N.N.W. and eight in breadth, and being protected from the more dangerous winds, is an important naval station. It is formed, to the eastward, by the promontory of Gibraltar, with its isthmus of sand, and to the westward, by the bases of the mountains behind Algeiras, which terminate in the sea near Tariffa. A flat coast, backed by several small heights, forms the head of the bay. On one of these heights is placed the small town of San Roque, "so called from a solitary hermit who died here, and whose cell and chapel are still shewn." On another height are the ruins, now scarcely distinguishable, of the ancient Carteia, once a celebrated city, occupying great part of the ground between Gibraltar and the Guadarranca.* "On the top of this hill," Mr. Semple states, "the Queen of Spain took her station during the great siege of Gibraltar, in order to behold the English colours lowered. She was disappointed, but the hill still retains the name of the Queen of Spain's Chair." Between these heights and the rock are the Spanish

* "Scarcely a vestige now remains of that celebrated city, which is known to have flourished when the Phenicians first traded with Spain, 900 years B.C. It was conquered by the Carthaginians 280 years B.C., continued a naval station of great importance during the civil wars between Cæsar and the Pompeys, and was the place from which, after the fatal battle of Munda, Cneius Pompey escaped, to meet his untimely death on the shore of Alicant. A large farm-house is constructed from the ruins of Carteia, and several Roman inscriptions have been discovered, which clearly ascertain its site."—JACOB, p. 213. Numerous coins also have been, and still continue to be dug up, generally marked with a tunny-fish.

lines drawn across the isthmus, from the head of the bay to the Mediterranean. The port of Gibraltar is not natural, but is formed by moles: it is of considerable extent, but is not secure against every wind. Gibraltar is situated in lat. $36^{\circ} 6' 42''$ N., long. $5^{\circ} 19' 4''$ W.

A few miles westward of San Roque, we cross the Guadaranca, a stream of considerable depth, in a ferry-boat moved by a rope. A flat of about two miles, intersected by ditches and causeways, brings us to the river Palmones, near its mouth. This stream runs past the town of Los Barrios, situated inland from the head of the Bay, and near which a neat bridge is thrown over it. It is here crossed in a ferry. If the tide be low, we may continue our route along the sands, till we climb a low ridge, presenting to the sea sometimes a cliff of dark rocks, and sometimes of light sandstone, along the summit of which Algeiras is partly built. This forms the first ascent towards the mountains. Gibraltar, which is now opposite, is clearly descried across the bay. Descending from these small heights, we now coast the head of a small bay, passing along the sands till we arrive on the opposite side, when we again climb the hills, and soon fall into the miserable rocky path which leads to Tariffa. To this town belongs the distinction, erroneously assigned to Gibraltar, of being placed on the most southern point of Europe. It is situated in the Straits, several miles to the westward of the low, rocky point which bounds on that side the Bay of Gibraltar, and is in all probability the spot at which the Moorish general whose name it bears effected his landing. Like Algeiras, the town is of Moorish foundation. All along the shores of the bay, from the northern base of Gibraltar to the western

point, are a chain of towers, some still standing, and others in ruins.

“ Algeziras, situated on the western side of the Bay of Gibraltar, was, at the commencement of the last century, a place of little importance, and consisted chiefly of fishermen’s huts. But the capture and continued possession of Gibraltar by the English, renders a counterpoint in the bay necessary to Spain ; and from that moment it has continued to increase. Its chief trade, in time of peace, is a contraband one with the English ; but it flourishes mostly in war, from the great resort of gun-boats and privateers, which find here a commodious situation for observing and capturing enemies’ vessels in the narrow entrance of the Mediterranean. It is built partly on a flat along the beach, and partly on the slope of small heights, which form the first elevation from the sea towards the mountains behind the town. These mountains appear in general to be about two thousand feet in height, extending in a north-easterly direction from the borders of the Straits near Tariffa, towards the mountains of Granada, of which they probably form an appendage. They are considerably steep towards the Bay, but still more so on the western side, where they present bare summits, apparently inaccessible, and valleys of great depth. From them flow several small streams which fall into the Bay. The mouth of one of them, named *El Miel*, forms a creek, the banks on one side of which are steep, but flat on the other, and on this flat stands the lower part of Algeziras. In this part is the market-place, ornamented with a fountain, where the water brought by the aqueduct from the hills is discharged, and serves to supply the whole town and shipping, very little rain being collected in cisterns. The general appearance of the town by no means

belies the first impressions made on descending into it from the mountains, being poorly built, except a few houses belonging to the principal inhabitants; and even these are unworthy of notice, the residence of the governor being inferior in appearance to an ordinary gentleman's house in England. The streets, however, are not inconveniently narrow, and the houses, being generally built of stone, have a better look than the mud-walled and straw-thatched houses so common in the western provinces. The inhabitants make great use of flat, grey stones to roof their houses. This stone is found in quarries in a bay to the southward of the town, and separates naturally into large *laminæ* or plates, and is therefore well adapted for the purpose, not being apt to break, nor to loosen and blow off in heavy winds like slates. The only ornament of the town is the quadrangular tower of the new church, from the top of which the signals made along the coast are answered and repeated. It is partly built out of the ruins of a very ancient tower which stood on the same spot: the old mortar had become as hard as stone, and has been worked in a similar manner in the new building. The church, in its interior regulations, partakes in a very faint degree of the magnificence of the churches in the principal towns of Spain, and shews from this material distinction, the recent rise of Algeziras. The fortifications and batteries are as contemptible as the town itself; but what renders it chiefly notorious, is the shelter it affords to the numerous gun-boats and small privateers which infest the entrance of the Mediterranean..... Some ruins still remain of the old town, founded by the Moors, which stood a little to the south of the present town, on the opposite side of the creek. They consist principally of the solid bases of square

towers at regular intervals, the slight remains of walls, and in some places the form of the ditch. One old tower is entire, close upon the water, and is still used by the Spaniards.*.....Like all the towns along the coast of Spain till we cross the Guadalaviar, and even till we approach the Ebro, Algeziras retains, in the manners of the inhabitants, strong traces of the Moors. The principal part of the inhabitants are drawn from the provinces of Andalusia, and in general from the lowest classes ; but there are great numbers of adventurers and desperadoes from every climate and country, who have come hither in search of fortune, and to man the gun-boats and privateers. Those who at present (1805) are the richest inhabitants, were, a few years ago, men of no credit or respectability even among the banditti of Algeziras. As their riches have all been acquired from the capture of British property or of neutral property condemned as British, they are naturally eager for the continuance of war. Add to these, the swarm of privateers and gun-vessels which harbour here, and it will not be wondered at that Algeziras exceeds every town in Spain in animosity towards the English. Even here, however, this spirit is daily softening. Besides this, the manners are here more depraved and profligate, mixed with a kind of ferocity, than I had observed any where else in this country. Assassinations are frequent ; and in most of the streets, the houses are marked with a cross, as a sign of murder having been committed near the spot.

* The works formed an oblong upon a height, defended on one side by a small brook, on the other, by the creek, while the end towards the sea rested on a cliff thirty feet in height ; it thus occupied a sort of peninsula, whence its name, *al jezeira*, applied by the Arabs to either an island or a peninsula. Mr. Semple supposed the name to be a corruption of *al kasr* (or *alcazar*), the castle.

I had been accustomed," adds Mr. Semple, "to observe these melancholy memorials along the road side, on barren heaths or in the bosom of deep forests; but, till I reached Algeziras, I had never seen them thickly planted in the streets of a populous town." *

This Traveller reached Algeziras over land from Cadiz, crossing the high mountain of *La Trocha* by a track impassable by any sort of carriage. The whole country, he says, is well deserving the attention of the naturalist. A place called Benalia, about six leagues from the Isle of Leon, affords the only decent *posada* on the route, which is wild and rugged in the extreme. Mr. Jacob passed from Cadiz to Gibraltar by sea.† Unfortunately, it was dark when the vessel was near Cape Trafalgar; that proud spot which may be considered as our Nelson's appropriate monument, — a pillar of England's greatness, towering at one end of the Strait, as Gibraltar stands sentinel at the other. It is about thirty miles S.E. of Cadiz; lat. $36^{\circ} 10' N.$, long. $6^{\circ} 8' W.$ Before, however, we land the reader at that city, we shall take up the narrative of the English Travellers from whom we parted at Antequera, and pursue the direct route from that city.‡

* Semple's Observations on a Journey through Spain and Italy, &c. vol. i. pp. 170—188. Similar memorials of atrocity are to be seen, however, in the city of Valencia. See p. 161.

† He subsequently returned from Gibraltar to Cadiz, by way of Dos Barrios, crossing a *sierra* not so high, though not less wild than *La Trocha*. The only town on this route is Vegel, seated on the summit of a mountain, and containing 7,000 inhabitants.

‡ This may be a proper place briefly to notice Mr. Jacob's route from San Roque to Malaga, which lay along the coast. After crossing a barren mountain and fording the Guadiaro, he travelled at the foot of the lofty *Sierra de Gaucin* (or *Vermeja*) to the small fishing-town of Estepona, containing nearly 1,000 families. Between the Guadiaro and this place, he crossed fourteen *arroyos*, or channels of torrents, which occasionally rush down from the mountains

FROM ANTEQUERA TO CADIZ.

FROM Antequera to Pedrera, the country is "champaign and pleasant:" some large lakes appearing be-

with irresistible force, suspending all communication. The ruins of several Roman towns mentioned in the Itinerary are still visible between the foot of the mountains and the beach, and numerous inscriptions and coins have been found in various places. The country is sandy and barren, with no shrubs but the palmito. The mountains appeared to be either marble or quartz superposed on granite. The *Sierra Vermieja* takes its name from a reddish marble, which prevails in this formation. After crossing the *Rio Verde*, about nine leagues from *San Roque*, a striking change appears in the aspect of the country: the plain becomes broader and enriched with every tropical production. For a considerable distance on both sides of the road, fields of sugar-canes, nine or ten feet high, are intermixed with rice-grounds; and several sugar-mills are seen, transporting the traveller in imagination to Jamaica. A considerable quantity of cotton and some coffee are also cultivated in this plain. The day's journey terminated at Marvella, a town containing three monasteries, a handsome parish-church and town-house, and about 8,000 inhabitants. The streets are narrow, but are well lighted at night. The vineyards and plantations belong to merchants of Malaga, who have their agents here. About half way up the neighbouring *sierra*, and half a mile perpendicular height above the sea, stands the town of Mija, overlooking the plain. Three hours from Marvella, the road leaves the beach, and ascends a small mountain, on the edge of which stands a castle of Roman foundation and Moorish superstructure, which must formerly have been impregnable. The view which bursts on the traveller through a chasm, on nearly reaching the summit, is incomparably fine. A rugged road, through verdant shrubs mingled with cork-trees, leads to the beautiful valley of Fuengerola, from which the mountains rise in cultivated terraces, covered with the vine, the olive, and the fig-tree, and backed by the snow-capped summits of a loftier range. A fissure in the marble rock, worn by the rains, affords the only road by which the traveller has now to climb the steep side of a mountain, to Benalmeida, beautifully situated in the midst of a cultivated tract. The descent from this place to Torre Molinos is by a road not less rugged, and for two hours through a most dreary country, with the lofty *sierra* on one hand, and a barren, rocky soil on the other, rendered yet more gloomy by the crucifixes erected

tween the road and the mountains, and now and then some forest-land and olive-plantations serve to enliven the prospect. "I never saw trees with so much pleasure," says M. Peyron, "as the first I met with after passing through Pedrera, so melancholy had I become in the dreary plains of Antequera." The country is then well cultivated as far as Ossuna, described by Swinburne as "a large, stinking town," but with pleasant environs. This is an ancient place, and was besieged by Cæsar, who was compelled to bring his provisions and even water from a distance, the fountain within the walls being the only water within eight miles. From Ossuna to Pueblo de Cazolla, nothing is to be seen but uncultivated plains, and "the road is a league wide." That village is pleasantly situated, but beyond it, marshy plains again succeed, and extend to the small town of El Harrahal: in the whole distance, there occurs not even a cottage. Four leagues further over the same uncultivated level country, is Utrera, a "considerable town;" and marshes, which become dangerous in the rainy season, extend between that town and Cabezas, where the traveller again

here and there in this savage wilderness. Near Torre Molinos, there are several large caverns, well calculated for concealment, in one of which Marcus Crassus lay hid for eight months, when he fled from the proscription of Cinna and Marius, till, on the death of the tyrant, he made his appearance, collected a small army, and seized the city of Malaga. The story is told by Plutarch. This village is delightfully situated near the entrance of the plain of Malaga, and abounds with beautiful streams that serve to irrigate the adjoining sugar-plantations and rice-fields. Near it stands a large government manufactory of playing-cards, by which this part of Spain and Spanish America were formerly supplied. During the whole journey from Gibraltar to Malaga, a distance of nearly a hundred miles, Mr. Jacob met but one traveller on horseback. There are no bridges, no roads, and every article of traffic is carried on the back of asses.

finds himself at the foot of a chain of mountains. Mr. Swinburne describes his first day's journey after leaving Ossuna, as lying through "a beautiful park-like country, where the swells are covered with forests of pines and cork-trees, and the intermediate valleys afford pasture to herds of brood mares." In the afternoon, he came to a flat heath covered with rushes and palmitos, where he saw large flights of vultures, storks, and plovers. The next day, the road lay over boundless heaths, where innumerable herds of cattle were pastured, and arable grounds. In one field, he noticed no fewer than twenty-four ploughs, each drawn by a pair of oxen. "We had now," he says, "fairly entered the rich plains of Andalusia, where we found the roads cruelly spoiled by the wet weather, and our wheels almost buried in the stiff clay." Cabezas appears, from the scattered ruins, to have been formerly a place of some consideration: it is built on a hill, at the beginning of a chain of mountains. A little further on is the *venta* of Alcantarilla; and not far from the inn, is a bridge of two arches over a deep, marshy channel, guarded at each end by an old Moorish tower. The lower part of the bridge is Roman, and the words *AVGVST...PONTEM*, Swinburne says, are still legible between the arches. It was formerly ornamented, also, with some magnificent columns of green jasper, now in the cathedral at Seville. This bridge derives its importance from being the pass over the marshes formed by the Guadalquivir. Two leagues beyond Alcantarilla, the marshes disappear, and the remainder of the road to Xeres lies through a fertile and well-cultivated country. "Were this province properly peopled," remarks this Traveller, "there would be no bounds to its productiveness, for the soil is inexhaustible. The crops in

Andalusia, however, are very precarious ; for, if a sudden glare of sunshine succeeds too rapidly to a morning fog, the whole country is blighted." The fallow lands were covered in some places with a strong growth of French honeysuckle. The lake of Lebrixa, on the road to Xeres, is surrounded with sloping grounds covered with olive-plantations.

Xeres de la Frontera is a considerable city, situated on the bank of the Guadalete, which is here seen winding its narrow course to the sea through an immense marshy flat, in which " not a stick of wood is to be seen," and the river, Swinburne says, much resembles those in the Lincolnshire fens. Within two miles of the city, it is not navigable even by boats. Inconsiderable as it is, however, it is fatally celebrated in Spanish history, on account of the battle fought on its banks between the Last of the Goths and the Moorish invaders in 712, which decided the fate of Spain. To this circumstance it is said to owe its name, " the river of joy."*

Xeres is believed to occupy the site of the ancient *Asta Regia*. The approach on the Cadiz side is striking, and it is entered by a well-shaded *alameda*. The town is well built ; the streets, though winding, are wider than those of Cadiz, and have a good paved foot-path ; they are also well lighted. Some of the houses, Mr. Jacob says, are splendid. The parish-church of Santiago, built in the year 1603, is a fine pile of Gothic architecture ; the churches of *San Mateo* and *San Marco* are also handsome ; but the finest eccle-

* See Southey's *Roderick*, vol. i. p. 4, and *note*. Its ancient name, we know not on what authority, is stated to have been *Chrysus*. Some of the early writers assert, that the Romans gave it the classic name of *Lethe*. It is more probable that the name is altogether Arabic.

siastical edifice is that of *San Miguel*, the tower of which is "an excellent specimen of the Greco-Roman," and the altar is peculiarly beautiful. There are no pictures or statues deserving of notice. The Roman walls are in good preservation; they divide the new from the old city, and are so thick that the wine-merchants have excavated cellars in them. The population of the city, including the *pueblo* or township, is stated by Mr. Jacob, in 1809, at 40,000 souls. The *pueblo* is very extensive, but thinly inhabited, consisting chiefly of scattered farms and vineyards, the owners of which, for the most part, reside in the city. It includes a tract of country forty-five miles in length and eighteen in breadth; yet, though as large as some counties in England, it contains (exclusively of the city) only 101 large farm-houses, 77 smaller ones, 555 houses attached to vineyards, 23 situated in olive-grounds, and 55 in orchards. "Such," remarks Mr. Jacob, "is the state of population in one of the best-peopled districts of Andalusia, and perhaps in the finest climate and the richest soil in Europe. Every thing has been done by nature; but the institutions of the Government and the indolence of the inhabitants have effected nothing to improve the advantages she has bestowed." M. Bourgoing, who, in 1793, travelled from Cadiz to Algeziras, speaks in similar terms of the depopulated state of this fine district. "The distance from Chiclana to Algeziras," he says, "is fourteen leagues. I performed the journey on the same horse in one long summer's day, and found the country more thinly inhabited than perhaps any region which is not entirely uncultivated. I went, it is true, across the plains, avoiding circuitous roads which would have led through some villages. But the reader will scarcely believe me when I assure him, that, with

the exception of Vejer, which I perceived on my right, and Medina Sidonia, on my left, the only habitations I met with in this whole journey, were four or five groupes of the miserable huts called *cortijos*, in which labouring people reside during part of the year. For ten leagues out of these fourteen, the road leads through the domains of the Duke of Medina Sidonia, consisting entirely of corn-fields and pasturage. In no part of these is there the least vestige of a human habitation; not an orchard, a kitchen-garden, a ditch, or a stile. The great proprietor seems to reign there like the lion in the forest, by driving away all who would otherwise approach him. Instead of human inhabitants, I met with seven or eight numerous colonies of horned cattle and some troops of mares. On seeing them, unshackled by yoke or bridle, roving at pleasure over a space unbounded, as far as the eye can reach, by enclosure or barrier, the traveller is disposed to fancy himself in the first ages of the world, when the animals, in a state of independence, divided with man the empire of the earth, found every where their own property, and were not themselves the property of any person. Andalusia is thus deserted in almost all the districts devoted exclusively to the cultivation of corn and pasturage. It has been divided into immense possessions ever since the period of its conquest from the Moors. The principal Castilian noblemen who accompanied the victorious monarch, obtained grants of prodigious tracts in perpetuity, according to the fatal custom introduced throughout almost the whole monarchy. The extinction of male heirs in many families is continually aggravating this inconvenience. Rich heiresses transfer their ample portions into families not less opulent; so that, in time, the greater part of the

landed property in Spain may devolve to the few families that shall survive the others. As a single individual cannot manage such vast estates, they are let to different persons for the short term of three, or at most of five years. Another circumstance concurs with these pernicious customs to prevent the improvement of agriculture in Andalusia. The land is divided into three portions : one is cultivated, another remains fallow, and the third, which is set apart to feed the cattle of the farmer, is augmented by him as much as possible, that he may reap all the advantage he can from his short lease. This it is that gives an appearance of depopulation to extensive districts, susceptible of the highest cultivation. The first improvement to be made in the agriculture of Andalusia would be, therefore, to grant longer leases. The example of Catalonia, Galicia, and the Asturias should serve as a lesson.”*

The immediate neighbourhood of Xeres is famous for its vineyards. The reader may not be aware that, under the disguise of the Spanish orthography, this is no other than the city of *Sherry*, which gives name to the well-known white-wine, the rival, at English

* Bourgoing, vol. iii. pp. 199—202. See also pp. 11—13 of this volume, and, for an account of the leases peculiar to Catalonia, p. 130. The same pernicious and ever-growing monopoly has contributed to the depopulation of the fertile plains of Lombardy and Tuscany. See Sismondi's *Tableau de l'Agriculture Toscane*, p. 289, and Chateauxvieux's "Italy, its Agriculture," translated by Dr. Rigby, p. 79. Nothing can more strikingly illustrate the present state of agriculture and population in Spain, than the fact, that Andalusia, the granary of Spain, which exported wheat under the Romans, now furnishes an insufficient supply for its own consumption. In 1787, the wheat imported was little less than 1,500,000 *fanegas* (each nearly a cwt.) of which half came from Africa, 85,000 *fanegas* from America, and the rest from Naples, Sicily, and Sardinia.—TOWNSEND, vol. ii. p. 421.

tables, of that of Madeira. The quantity annually made in this place, Mr. Jacob informs us, was about 40,000 pipes, of which only 15,000 were exported, and about half of this quantity (between 7 and 8,000 pipes) were sent to England. The wine, when new, sells at from ten to twelve pounds a pipe, but increases in value by age; and that which is sent to England is always mixed with brandy, which occasions a further augmentation of the price. Some sweet wines are also made in this neighbourhood, which are much valued by the natives, especially what is known here under the name of Tent. As neither staves nor iron hoops are manufactured in this part of Spain, the latter are sent from England, and the former are supplied by the United States of America.

About two miles from Xeres stands the most celebrated Carthusian monastery in Spain. The brotherhood are of noble families. The rule is so severe as to enjoin perpetual silence. The edifice is very magnificent, in the Gothic style, and the church is decorated with some fine sculptures and paintings: it was built in 1571. The gardens are very beautiful. Xeres has a collegiate chapter attached to it, and is the residence of a vicar-general of the archbishop of Seville. At a short distance from the monastery, the traveller passes the Guadalete by a bridge of nine arches, and enters the plain in which the Moors overthrew the Gothic monarchy. At four leagues from Xeres, in which space there does not occur a single hamlet, the bridge of Zuarzo joins the Isle of Leon to the mainland. This bridge is said to have been built by the Romans, but derives its present name from a Dr. Sanchez Zuarzo, by whom the modern bridge was erected or repaired, and who died in 1437. It is flanked with batteries, and defended by gun-boats,

being the only point connecting the island on which Cadiz stands with the Continent. Instead of going round by this bridge, the traveller may hire a bark, and descend the Guadalete to Puerto Santa Maria (*Menestei Portus*), pleasantly situated at the mouth of the river.* This town, which is the residence of the captain-general of Andalusia and of a vicar-general, is described by M. Peyron as one of the handsomest towns in Spain. The streets are wide, well paved, and clean, and contain some splendid-looking houses. The *Calle Ancha* (Broad Street) is a mile long, and full of shops of all kinds. The churches are remarkable only for a profusion of rich ornaments, distributed without taste. The town contains one parish church and eight convents. The average population is stated by Mr. Jacob at 12,000 inhabitants. There is a very beautiful *alameda* on the banks of the river, planted with orange-trees, interspersed with flowers and all sorts of fragrant shrubs. The springs of Puerto S. Maria are excellent and of great importance, as they furnish Cadiz with the only water fit to drink, which is sent across in boats; and the shipping in the bay depend upon them for their supply of fresh water. The distance is only between two and three leagues, but the bar at the mouth of the river is often very dangerous, and boats are frequently lost in passing. When the north wind prevails, they seldom venture out. The sailors, on reaching the bar, never fail to put up prayers on behalf of the souls in purgatory, which is followed by a collection for their

* The Guadalete, a little below where the road to Cadiz turns off, divides itself into two branches, one of which discharges itself into the bay at P. Santa Maria: the other, which is distinguished by the name of the Santi Petri, proceeds to Puerto Real.

benefit.* The view from the mole, of the bay, the shipping, and the city stretching into the ocean, Swinburne pronounces one of the most beautiful in the world. The first view of Cadiz is gained on reaching the top of a hill about half way between Xeres and Puerto S. Maria. It embraces the whole circumference of the bay, as if delineated on a map. The two points which form the entrance are clearly distinguishable, Fort San Sebastian on one side, and the town of Rota on the other.

“Fair Cadiz, rising on the dark blue sea,”

is right before you, and the narrow neck of land is seen, which connects the city with the Island of Leon, together with the irregular contour of the bay to La Caracca, Puerto Real, and Santa Maria.

CADIZ.

CADIZ occupies a small peninsula or promontory at the extremity of the long sandy isthmus which joins it to the Isle of Leon. Its form is nearly a square of a mile and a half. It seems designed for a place of strength. On the south side, the height and steepness of the shore render it inaccessible by sea. On the land side it is defended by two strong bastions.† To the north and east, several sand-

* M. Bourgoing says, that “the boatmen, whose interest it is to keep passengers in terror, for the purpose of laying them under contribution, never fail to exaggerate the danger, and at the moment when it is most imminent, repeat a prayer, which is afterwards made a pretext for begging something.” The passage is generally performed in less than an hour.

† In 1762, to render the works which defend the city on the land side more difficult of access, “all the gardens and little villas on the beach were cleared away, and a dreary, sandy glacis was left in their room. They had expected an attack from the English during the late war; but,” adds Swinburne, “it would be madness

banks and some very dangerous rocks prevent the approach of shipping; and it is protected on the east by the castle of San Felipe. The point which runs out toward the west, and which was called the World's End, is defended by Fort San Sebastian. No ground is left unoccupied, and as there is little room to spare, the houses are lofty, and the streets confined and gloomy. The *Plaza de San Antonio* is the only square that deserves that name, and this is very small; but, being surrounded with magnificent houses, and contrasted with the streets, all of which, except the *Calle Ancha*, are narrow, it has a handsome appearance, and is the principal resort of the inhabitants. "To the ladies it is the mall, to the merchants the exchange, and to the officers the parade." There is, however, a pleasant *alameda* close by the sea, where the inhabitants repair in the evening to enjoy the breeze; but the sea-air prevents the trees from thriving. The whole of the ramparts indeed, by which this "compact city" is surrounded, form a series of agreeable promenades, commanding a fine prospect of the bay and the country beyond. The sea breaking over the rocks in the stormy weather, has a very grand effect. "If the prospect to the ocean is solemn," says Swinburne, "that towards the main-land is animated in the highest degree. The men of war ride in the

in an enemy to attempt it on this side; and one is apt to think an immense sum has been lavished on these fortifications without any apparent necessity. The Spaniards are, however, warranted in their caution by the authority of history, for the Earl of Essex stormed Cadiz in 1596, by an assault on the land quarter." In 1626, an expedition was sent against Cadiz under Lord Wimbledon, but it terminated unsuccessfully, as did a subsequent attempt made by Sir George Rooke to seize it in 1702, for the Archduke Charles. It was bombarded in 1800 by the British, but was never taken till the late French invasion, when it was the ministry, rather than the garrison, that capitulated.

eastern bosom of the bay ; lower down, the merchant-men are spread far and near ; and close to the town, an incredible number of barks, of various shapes and sizes, cover the surface of the water, some moored and others in motion, carrying goods to and fro. The opposite shore is studded with white houses, and enlivened by the towns of Santa Maria, Puerto Real, and others ; behind which, eastward, on a ridge of hills, stands Medina Sidonia, and further back rise the mountains of Granada. Westward, Rota closes the horizon, near which was anciently the island and city of Tartessus,* now covered by the sea ; but at low water, some parts of the ruins are still to be discerned." The view on entering the bay also is extremely fine.

The peninsula, which is occupied by the city, appears to have been formerly much larger ; and fragments of ruins are visible off the town, when the sea is smooth and the tide low, which are supposed to be the remains of the ancient city, or, according to some, of the celebrated temple of Hercules. That the sea in this quarter has, in the course of ages, gained considerably, while it has lost on the coast of Granada and Murcia, is indicated by the general appearance of the shore. At the time of the earthquake which demolished Lisbon, Nov. 1, 1775, the sea rose here in an extraordinary manner, and overflowed the country about Cadiz to a great extent.† Laborde supposes,

* Supposed to be the Tarshish of the Old Testament. See Calmet's Dict. Michaelis also places Tarshish in Spain ; and an old writer (Festus Avienus) says that Cadiz bore that name :

" *Hic Gadir urbs est, dicta Tartessus prius :*

Hic sunt columnæ pertinacis Herculis,

Abila atque Culpe."

† The round tower at the extremity of the western point on which Fort San Sebastian is built, is believed to have saved the city, in the great earthquake of 1755, from being swept away by

that the imaginary remains of the temple or city are the wrecks left behind by that inundation. The origin of Cadiz is, of course, ascribed to the Phenicians, and under the Romans, Gades was a municipal city; but where the ancient city stood, is extremely doubtful. The temple of Hercules is placed by some at Conil, a small town within the Straits of Gibraltar, and by others at Puerto Real. The modern town has within comparatively a recent date attained its present importance. It was first made an episcopal city in the year 1264, in the reign of Alfonso the Wise, the see of Asidonia being transferred to this place: the diocese is small, containing only twenty-eight parishes. The Franciscans first settled themselves here in 1608. The mercantile wealth and consideration of Cadiz date from the year 1720. Prior to that period, the commerce of America had been for two centuries confined to Seville; but, in that year, this source of wealth was transferred to Cadiz, and at the same time, the duties on exports were lowered. Up to the year 1748, the whole trade was carried on by twenty-seven gal-

the fury of the waves. "The building proved sufficiently solid to withstand the shock, and break the immense volume of water that threatened destruction to the whole island. In the narrow part of the isthmus, the surge beat over with amazing impetuosity, and bore down all before it. Among others, the grandson of the famous tragic poet Racine strove in vain to escape by urging his horse to the utmost of his speed."—SWINBURNE, vol. i. p. 340. In the seventeenth century, it was found necessary to erect a rampart to protect the city from the force of the waves, but every year this dike required to be repaired. At length, in 1788, an artificial beach was planned, resting on large coffers, and sloping to the sea, against which the waves should spend their force. The work was finished in three years, and the benefit was sensibly felt; but in 1801, this embankment sustained considerable damage. The sea has receded on the contrary side, so that certain parts of the beach, over which ships formerly sailed, are now nearly dry.—See BOURGOING, vol. iii. pp. 155—7.

leons, and *flotas* to the number of about twenty-three; the former sailing annually to Porto Bello, the latter once in three years to Vera Cruz. As long as the court confined the trade of Peru to galleons, it gradually decreased, insomuch that, from employing 15,000 tons, it had sunk, in the year 1740, to less than 2,000. But no sooner had the Marquis de la Ensenada substituted register-ships in the place of galleons, to proceed directly by Cape Horn to the place of their destination, than the trade revived. In the year 1765, a further reduction of duties was made, and the trade to Yucatan and the windward islands was partially thrown open to all the provinces of Spain, except Biscay; and in 1778, at the remonstrances of Count Campomanes, the Government reluctantly abolished the remaining restrictions with the same exception. The inhabitants of Biscay, not being bound by the general laws of the Peninsula, could not, it was thought, be safely admitted to the enjoyment of this privilege, for which they possessed an ample compensation in the freedom of their ports. Cadiz, however, continued to be the chief emporium. The Guipuzcoa Company, chartered by Philip V. in 1728, used the ports of Cadiz and San Sebastian for their exclusive trade; and from 1770 to 1774, they imported 179,156 *fanegas* of cacao. In the year 1784, when the total value of exports to America was 4,348,078*l.*, Cadiz supplied 3,621,443*l.*, or more than three-fourths; and of the total imports from the colonies, amounting to 12,635,173*l.*, the proportion was still larger, being 11,287,921*l.** In 1776, the number of vessels that

* Of the exports, more than one half consisted of foreign produce. Next to Cadiz, the largest exports were from Malaga; then, from Barcelona, Santander, Corunna, Seville; but the imports of Corunna were eight times the value of the exports, and larger

entered the port was 949, of which 265 were French. In 1786, Mr. Townsend states the number of vessels engaged in the Cadiz trade at about 1,000, of which nearly a tenth were Spanish. In 1791, the number which entered the port was 1,010; viz. 180 English, 176 from Spanish America, 162 from other parts of Spain, 116 French, 104 Portuguese, 90 American, 80 Dutch, 41 Danish, 25 Swedish, 22 Ragusan, 6 Genoese, 2 Venetian, 1 Hamburgher, 1 Russian, 1 Imperial, and 1 from Manilla. In the course of the same year 105 vessels sailed for the colonies.* The foreign nations who had the greatest number of houses at Cadiz, were the Irish, the Flemings, the Genoese, and the Hamburghers: the latter were peculiarly favoured by their very ancient treaties with Spain. "Of all the commercial nations," says Bourgoing, "the English and the French have the fewest houses in Cadiz, but they nevertheless take a considerable share in the commerce of that city. Twenty years ago, there were at Cadiz upwards of fifty great French houses, divided into classes according to their estimated capital, among which were some of the first importance. Besides these great French mercantile houses, there were about thirty firms in the retail trade, who formed with the others a national society, which was always an object of jealousy to the Spaniards, and often of the persecutions of the agents of Government. This society had its funds, its meetings, and privileges, and sometimes assembled to consider

than those of all the other ports, except Cadiz. Not quite a fourth of the total imports was merchandise, and the rest consisted of specie and jewels.—See TOWNSEND'S *Spain*, vol. ii. pp. 415, 16.

* In 1792, the exports to the Indies from Cadiz, amounted to 276 millions of reals, and the imports exceeded 700 millions.—BOURGOING, vol. iii. p. 193.

the interests of its commerce under the auspices of the consul-general of its nation. Cadiz contained nearly the same number of French milliners, and at least one hundred French mechanics of different professions. At the present time (1795), there are not more than four or five French houses in that city." The expulsion of the French had been occasioned by the political revolutions. The general commerce of Cadiz had not, however, sensibly diminished. "Cadiz," continues M. Bourgoing, "is so advantageously situated, so opulent, in such complete possession of the direct trade with Spanish America, that it has no occasion for a long time to fear the competition of any of the other ports. Those of Catalonia and Valencia, however, derived, especially in 1789, a great advantage from their situation. The Government had recently directed that at least one-third of the cargo of every vessel bound to America should consist of national commodities. The above-mentioned ports, having an opportunity of exporting wine, brandy, silks, and printed cottons, seemed for some time to obtain a superiority over Cadiz in this respect. But, as the manufacturers of Catalonia and Valencia could not continue to furnish such large supplies, or give such long credit, the merchants of Cadiz have regained their former advantages.*.....A proof that its mercantile prosperity had not fallen off (in 1802),

* One of the most extensive and least hazardous branches of speculation, was the exportation of foreign linens to America: these consisted of those of Britany, Silesia, and Ireland. In the years 1792 and 1793, out of 164 millions of reals, the total amount of foreign commodities exported, the foreign silks amounted to eight or nine millions, woollens to twenty-two or three, and linens to upwards of one hundred millions. The total amount of native commodities was about one hundred and twenty millions, of which silks were one half.

is, that this city then contained upwards of 300 mercantile houses, among which were much fewer foreign houses than formerly."* To this monopoly, Cadiz was indebted for its political ascendancy. "The American settlements," says Mr. Jacob, "may be more properly considered as colonies belonging to this city, than to the kingdom of Spain. Almost every thing from America centres here; and the principal imports from the other ports of Europe are only brought to this place to be shipped afterwards to the transatlantic ports. The merchants of Cadiz may therefore be properly considered as the factors of the manufacturers of England, Germany, and France, on the one hand, and of the consumers of their manufactures on the other. In the same manner, they are factors for the growers of colonial produce in America, and for the consumers of it in Europe."†

* In 1795, however, M. Bourgoing states, that Cadiz contained more than 110 proprietors of ships, and about 670 commercial houses, exclusive of retail dealers and shopkeepers, and of the French who had been obliged by the war to leave the place.

† The war with England, the battle of Trafalgar in 1805, and the subsequent blockade of the port, occasioned a total suspension of the trade of Cadiz for a time; but in 1809, when Mr. Jacob visited Spain, things were recovering their former aspect. Mr. Semple passed through Cadiz in October 1805, a few days after the battle of Trafalgar had thrown an air of sadness over the whole town. In the bay, a Spanish seventy-four, the *San Rafael*, was lying broadside, bilged, on the rocks, the waves breaking over her; a large French ship was stranded, with all her masts gone; and in the centre, towards Cadiz, lay a groupe of five or six vessels, bored with cannot-shot, and more or less dismasted. "Ten days after the battle, they were still employed in bringing ashore the wounded; and spectacles were hourly displayed at the wharfs and through the streets, sufficient to shock every heart not hardened to scenes of human suffering. When by the carelessness of the boatmen and the surging of the sea, the boats struck against the stone piers, a horrid cry, which pierced the soul, arose from the mangled

This brief sketch of the history of Cadiz, up to the period of the revolution, will throw light on the selfish and arbitrary proceedings of the Junta of Cadiz (who for a short period assumed the reins of power on the dispersion of the Central Junta) in respect to the colonies, and for the fatal policy which was subsequently persisted in under the same influence by the Constitutional Government. "The Junta of Cadiz," says Mr. Jacob, "with a cunning regard to its monopoly, detained every vessel bound to the western world, till they supposed their own representation of the occurrences would be made public there. Their precautions, however, were unavailing; the intelligence reached America in its real colours; and the inhabitants, from one end of that vast continent to the other, saw the necessity of providing for themselves the means of government, and not depending on those whom chance, rather than merit, had placed

wretches on board. On the top of the pier, the scene was affecting. The wounded were being carried away to the hospitals in every shape of human misery, while crowds of Spaniards either assisted or looked on with signs of horror. Meanwhile, their companions who had escaped unhurt, walked up and down with folded arms and downcast eyes, while women sat upon heaps of arms, broken furniture, and baggage, with their heads bent beneath their knees. I learned that every hospital in Cadiz was already full, and that convents and churches were forced to be appropriated to the reception of the remainder. If, leaving the harbour, I passed through the town to the point, I still beheld the terrible effects of the battle. As far as the eye could reach, the sandy side of the isthmus bordering on the Atlantic, was covered with masts and yards, the wrecks of ships, and here and there the bodies of the dead. The portions of floating wreck were visible from the ramparts; yet, not a boat durst venture out to examine or endeavour to tow them in, such were the apprehensions of the enemy that still filled their minds. . . . *Mais, après tout, (said some French officers at the public table,) leur feu étoit terrible.*"—*SEMPLE'S Journey through Spain*, vol. i. pp. 154—60.

at the head of affairs. The Regency, though acknowledged as the supreme power by the people of Spain, by their British allies, and even by the Junta of Cadiz, was soon taught that it was subordinate to that corporation of monopolists. A law was decreed by the Regents, granting to America the privileges to which it was justly entitled : the decree was ordered to be printed previously to its promulgation, and the jealousy of the Junta was thereby kindled to fury. The threats they held out so operated on the Regents, that the decree was disavowed, and the secretary who, by their order, had delivered it to the printer, was given up to the vengeance of the Junta, who immured him in a prison. Having thus subdued the Regents to their authority on the subject which occupied their principal views, they were disposed to leave them in possession of the shadow of power, lest, if the Cortes should assemble and succeed them, they might be found a less tractable body. Every obstacle was thrown in the way of assembling the Cortes, both by the Regents and the Junta of Cadiz ; and when such a number of deputies had collected as was sufficient to form a quorum, they were afraid to assemble, till the assurance of support from the British minister, and of protection from the British garrison, convinced them that they might meet without fear of molestation. When they did assemble, they talked in a tone of high authority, displaced the Regents, appointed others in their place, debated and issued proclamations in favour of the freedom of the press and the liberty of America, and affected to display a superiority to the narrow views and selfish prejudices of the city of Cadiz. But, as the Convention of France yielded to the Commune of Paris, so did the Cortes of Spain submit to the

Junta of Cadiz. The decree in favour of the liberty of the press terminated in appointing licensers from their own body ; and that for giving freedom to America, was so frittered away by subsequent regulations, as to produce no effect beyond that of convincing the Americans, that no relief would be afforded them by any government under the influence of the city of Cadiz.”* To the imbecility of the Central Junta, the selfish and narrow views of the Junta of Cadiz, and the timid conduct of the Cortes, this writer correctly attributes the commencement of the revolutionary struggle in the western hemisphere, which has so happily terminated in the independence of the Spanish colonies. The prevalence of the same illiberal views in the Constitutional Government, by disgusting and alienating their best ally, has led to the ruin of the cause of freedom in Spain.

The commencement of the patriotic insurrection at Cadiz, in 1808, was stained by the murder of Solano, the governor, who was suspected of favouring the French cause. This was the act of an infuriated populace.† But in 1820, this ill-fated city was made the scene of a still more sanguinary and atrocious transaction. On the day that the constitution was to be proclaimed at Cadiz, when the square of San Antonio was thronged with thousands who had crowded into the city to witness the spectacle, all animated with the patriotic enthusiasm, the troops under Generals Freyre and Campana, who formed the garrison, were marched

* Jacob, pp. 403, 4.

† Solano appears to have been a high-minded man, and had honourably acquitted himself as governor ; but his conduct on this occasion was equivocal, if not traitorous.—See JACOB'S *Travels*, p. 25. SOUTHEY'S *Pen. War*, vol. i. p. 275.

out, and ordered to fire on the people. In the massacre that ensued, neither age nor sex was spared; those who could not escape, were butchered on the spot; and the whole of the night and part of the next day were devoted to plunder. The number of killed and wounded exceeded 500. On the following day (March 11), Campana, in a general order, returned thanks to the brave and loyal troops for their brilliant military conduct; and Freyre transmitted to the ministry an account of the massacre, in which he expressed his high satisfaction, in similar terms, at the affectionate proof which the troops had given of their fidelity to their king.*

Neither the limits nor the design of this work will admit of our pursuing the narrative of the events of the ensuing five years; but the circumstances of the last investment of Cadiz by the French army, claim to be briefly adverted to. The whole of the forces of the invading army had united at Truxillo on the 11th of June, 1823, and were marching towards Merida, when the Cortes deemed it necessary to retreat to Cadiz, carrying with them the reluctant king. At this time, Cadiz was not provisioned for a month, the fortifications were by no means in complete repair, and the navy by which it might have been defended, was reduced almost to nothing; but a short time sufficed to secure the whole Isle of Leon against an immediate attack. The first measure on the part of the French was, to establish a land-blockade by a chain

* Blaquiére's Historical Review of the Span. Revol. pp. 318—28. It is believed, that a battalion made up of deserters and liberated galley-slaves were the loyal instruments employed on this occasion, and that they were liberally supplied with brandy to fit them for their business. The number killed would, it is said, have been much greater, but for the drunken state of the perpetrators.

of posts along the winding coast, from San Lucar to Chiclana. On the 16th of August, the Duke d'Angouleme arrived before Cadiz, and took up his headquarters at Puerto Santa Maria. Immense preparations had been made for prosecuting the siege, and the army was raised to 30,000 men, the flower of the French troops. On the 18th, a flag of truce was sent by the Duke d'Angouleme, inviting Ferdinand to repair to the French camp. This attempt at negotiation failed, and the enemy immediately commenced their operations, directing their first attack against the small peninsula nearly opposite Cadiz, called, from a fort erected on it, the Trocadero, and forming, with the opposite promontory, called the Puntales, the narrow strait which affords an entrance into the inner harbour. This point, therefore, commands the naval approaches to the city; and the Spaniards, aware of its importance, had made the greatest exertion to put it in a state of defence. A cut of 200 feet broad and four feet deep had been formed across the isthmus, by which it was completely insulated; and the interior was fortified by a chain of strong redoubts, garrisoned by about 2,000 of their best troops, and flanked by gun-boats. On the 19th, the trenches were opened by the French; and on the 24th, the second parallel was commenced, notwithstanding the uninterrupted fire and occasional sallies of the besieged. On the 29th, the parallels were completed; and on the next day, at day-break, the French made an unsuccessful assault. On the night of the 31st, fourteen columns, the *elite* of the guards, advanced under cover of complete darkness, passed the trenches, and had formed in front of the canal before the alarm was given. A heavy fire was then opened upon them, but the French troops pushed across the canal, charged, and in fifteen

minutes were masters of the nearest batteries. The Spanish artillerymen stood to their guns, and were almost entirely cut to pieces. The position on the canal being thus turned, and the rest of the French army rapidly following, the Spaniards were obliged to abandon the whole line of their batteries, and to betake themselves to an entrenched position round the mill of Guerra. At day-break, this post was attacked by the French, and carried,—a great part of the Spaniards being made prisoners. The loss of the garrison and of a large quantity of the cannon and military stores, was not the worst effect of the capture of the Trocadero. The dismay which it spread among both the soldiers and the people, and the impression to which it gave rise, that the French were irresistible, contributed to hasten the fall of Cadiz.*

As soon as the French had obtained full possession of the Trocadero, they lost no time in erecting batteries, and in commencing a fire against the opposite shore. The flames caught a magazine on the Puntales, and caused some injury; but at Cadiz, being two miles distant, this occasioned no alarm. It was, however, deemed expedient to make another overture for negotiation on the 5th of September; but the stern determination was announced, on the part of the duke, that no armistice or negotiation could take place on any other basis than the liberation of the king. A pause now ensued in offensive operations till the 17th, when, on the arrival of a new admiral, Duperre, a maritime bombardment, which had been for some time in preparation, was opened on Fort Santi Petri,

* Campbell has embalmed the memory of the brave patriots who fell in this engagement, in his noble ode:

“ Brave men, who at the Trocadero fell
Beside your cannon, conquer'd not, though slain.”

situated on a little island at the southern extremity of the Isle of Leon; this soon capitulated. On the 23d, the French admiral succeeded in bombarding Cadiz by a flotilla consisting of six bomb-vessels and five gun-boats, stationed nearly a mile from the place. About two hundred bombs are supposed to have reached the city, but without doing any serious damage, or producing any decisive result. After the bombardment had lasted two hours and a half, a change of wind, it is said, obliged the French to quit their position. It was now made a chief object to effect a landing on the Isle of Leon, at its southern point, opposite to Chiclana, and the head-quarters were transferred thither. Cadiz, however, might yet have held out; and had any of the true Catalonian spirit animated the garrison, which exhibited itself at Barcelona in 1714, and at Gerona in 1808, the French would have found it no easy conquest. But symptoms of panic and mutiny began to display themselves among the troops; and the commander-in-chief, on the 24th, submitted a memorial to the ministry, in which he announced the desperate posture of affairs, recommending that all the Spanish troops should be withdrawn within the fortification of the Cortadura. A secret sitting of the Extraordinary Cortes was now summoned, at which no decision was come to, that august body being agreed in nothing but the determination not to commit themselves. At length, an oblique and equivocal permission was given to ministers, to follow the course they found themselves reduced to the necessity of proposing; viz. that Ferdinand, with the royal family, should quit Cadiz, and transport himself whither it might seem best to him. A last attempt was made to stipulate with the French, that the Cortes should hold Cadiz for a certain time;

but this, as might have been anticipated, was peremptorily refused ; and on the 1st of October, Ferdinand landed at the French camp. On the same day, he issued a decree, retracting every pledge he had given, and annulling all the acts of the constitutional government from March 7 preceding to that day. This was followed by a series of decrees breathing the most unbounded and almost insane fury against all who had been in any way connected with the subverted system. Nevertheless, the mandate of the king to deliver up Cadiz to the French, was immediately obeyed ; and on the 4th, all the forts were in the hands of the foreign garrison. The members of the Cortes and of the former government had, in the mean time, eluded the vengeance of the absolute king, by escaping to Gibraltar, and thence to England.

Throughout this brief and inglorious campaign, inglorious alike to both parties, we look in vain, unless in the conduct of the unfortunate Riego, for any indication of the national feeling and spirit similar to what was manifested in the peninsular war. To French gold, rather than to French valour, has been ascribed, probably with some justice, the facility with which a whole nation was thus conquered in six months. But it is, at the same time, obvious, that the grand charm which had united this most loyal of nations as one man against Napoleon, on his depriving them of their idiot king, was now broken. The French entered Spain professedly as the deliverers of the captive monarch from a sacrilegious faction. In the mind of a Spaniard, the words king and country are synonymous ; nor had they, as a nation, any idea of patriotism but as identified with loyalty. It is evident, too, that the military leaders never cordially submitted to the democratic government, nor did the

Cortes command the confidence of the nation. The temporary appointment of a Regency was a bold and necessary measure, but it shocked every hereditary prejudice in the mind of a Spaniard. The weakness of the executive, hampered and fettered by a punctilious and untractable senate, was, no doubt, one grand cause of the subversion of the constitutional government. The presence of the king contributed to paralyse the decisions of the ministry; and it is to their honour, that no considerations of personal safety could tempt them to violate the sacred person of majesty, or to visit upon their sovereign the punishment of a traitor. They had the most perfidious and vindictive of tyrants in their power, and they acted as good Spaniards in letting him loose again upon the nation whose best blood he had shed. But, above all, the alienation and withdrawal of England, the consequence, at least in part, of the adoption, on the part of the constitutional government, of the politics of Cadiz, left the ministry without consideration in the eyes of foreign powers, and deprived them, in the crisis, at once of resources, hope, and energy.

We return from this digression to the accounts which modern travellers have furnished of the former state of this once flourishing city. Swinburne, who visited Cadiz in 1776, gives by no means a pleasing description of the place. Its population, he says, was then estimated at 144,000 inhabitants, of whom 12,000 were French, and at least as many more, Italians. Every commercial nation had a consul resident here, and those of England and France were the only ones not allowed to have any concern in trade. Foreigners were not permitted to export goods to America; but the prohibition was notoriously evaded by shipping the articles in the names of

Spanish houses. The stir during the last months of the stay of the *flota* was prodigious. The streets of Cadiz, at this period, were ill-paved, insufferably filthy and offensive, and overrun with countless swarms of rats. "This small, populous, and well-enclosed city," says this Traveller, "has the misfortune of being under worse regulations of police than any place in Europe. All the winter, street robberies and burglaries have been frequent, and no effectual steps have been taken to prevent the disorder." Such was the state of the administration of the laws, that when a native was apprehended for the most enormous offence, it was next to impossible to procure a sentence against him: as long as he had a groat to spend in prison, or a friend to intercede on his behalf, the *alcalde* would never bring him to trial. The state of society was by no means "brilliant:" the different nations kept much to themselves, and even during the carnival, neither balls nor masquerades were allowed.

When Mr. Townsend visited Cadiz, ten years after, it had declined in population, but considerable improvements had taken place in other respects. He states the number of inhabitants at not more than 65,987; "although ten years ago," he adds, "it is said to have contained 85,000, besides above 20,000 people who entered daily from the sea and from the adjacent country." This, however, is not less than 40000 below Swinburne's estimate. "For their pavements," says Mr. Townsend, "for the cleanliness of their streets, for a well-regulated police, for some of their best edifices, and for many wise institutions, they have been indebted to their late governor, Count O'Reilly. Previously to his appointment, the city was remarkable for filth and nastiness; and, from the mistaken clemency of

Bucarelli, the former governor,* robberies were frequently committed, murders were not uncommon, and such was the insolence of thieves, that they gave public warning to the inhabitants not to make a noise when they should be stopped." At the period of Mr. Townsend's visit, the commercial prosperity of the city had received a severe shock in consequence of the withdrawal of the monopoly of the colonial trade, which had led to extensive speculations, and the necessary result, a glutted market and mercantile failures. "For the pleasures of social intercourse," this Traveller says, "I did not meet with any city more agreeable than this. As all nations are here assembled within narrow limits, by their mutual intercourse they soften each others' manners; and as, notwithstanding the late shock, commerce flourishes in a degree, with its never-failing attendants, wealth and hospitality, a stranger may pass away his time with the highest satisfaction." M. Bourgoing bears the same honourable testimony to the public-spirited and successful exertions of this enlightened governor, with this exception, that in 1785, when he first visited Cadiz, assassinations continued to be very frequent; and he adds, "they have not since become less common." "Under the active administration of O'Reilly,"

* The Conde de Xerena Bucarelli was governor at the time of Swinburne's visit. He was said to have made a vow to shed no blood during his regency; and this "cruel clemency" had emboldened the robbers to take the singularly audacious step, referred to by Mr. Townsend, of posting up an advertisement cautioning all persons whatever to refrain from resistance, that their plunderers might not be reduced to the disagreeable necessity of using the poniard. The striking change which had taken place only ten years after, shews the absolute power of the governor, as well as the immense importance of a well-regulated police. See p. 174 for an account of a similar revolution at Alicant.

he says, " the old houses were pulled down, and gave place to new houses regularly built. The streets were paved, made straighter, and constantly kept clean. The vacant places were covered with habitations: he may even be reproached with excess of economy in respect to ground. He endeavoured also to extend the city by gaining land from the sea. The space occupied by the custom-house and the adjacent buildings was obtained from that element, but at a period anterior to his administration. He extended the cultivation of the isthmus on the side of the high-road to the Isle of Leon; he even formed a garden as agreeable as the soil, which is wholly sandy, would permit; and his example being imitated, the road, for a quarter of a league from the land gate, was bordered by similar enclosures. It was probable that in time these environs would form a kind of suburb; and at the distance of a full quarter of a league from the city, a church had already been erected for those who resided in that neighbourhood. But this creation did not long survive the administration of its author, and the sand has partly resumed its empire in this tract, although the desert, which before his time disgraced the approach to Cadiz, has receded to the distance of half a league from the land gate. Cadiz is further indebted to him for the repair of the road leading to the Isle of Leon.* He had also formed a plan for bringing fresh water to Cadiz from the heights of

* This work was committed to the superintendence of M. du Bournial, a French engineer, whom O'Reilly invited from France, to employ him in his military school at Santa Maria. " This road which, on leaving Cadiz, is a quarter of a league in width, gradually grows narrower, till, at the distance of a league, the sea at flood-tide washes the foot of the causeway, which resembles a mole thrown by the hand of man across the abysses of the ocean. Du Bournial raised this road, and made it shorter and more solid."

Medina Sidonia, a distance of eleven leagues ; he had calculated that the expense would not exceed two millions of piastres, and in August 1785, had received subscriptions to the amount of more than half that sum. Du Bournial, the engineer, had surveyed and taken the levels of the whole distance, and had finished all the plans. He had discovered the track of an ancient canal constructed by the Romans for the same purpose, the bed of which would have been rendered useful for the new project. This splendid design met, at the time, with great opposition. The work was nevertheless begun, but not more than half a league was completed, when a stop was put to it by the disgrace of O'Reilly ; and the inhabitants are still obliged to procure their water from Puerto Santa Maria."*

In 1799, Cadiz contained, according to M. Bourgoing, a population of 75,000 souls,—an increase, apparently, of 9,000, or not quite a seventh, upon Mr. Townsend's estimate. In the following year, however, a virulent epidemic, the true yellow fever, made its appearance, being imported by the Dauphin corvette ; and between the 12th of August and the 31st of October, it attacked 47,350 persons, of whom 7,195 died, exclusive of the troops who had recently arrived for the defence of the coast, and who lost 3000

* The only water in Cadiz is that of a few wells, which is brackish and unwholesome, and the rain-water collected in cisterns. The only water drinkable is that which is brought from Santa Maria, for which the inhabitants pay, on the average, 96,000 piastres annually, or 20,000*l.* sterling. In dry seasons, the quantity is not sufficient to supply their wants. This serious inconvenience materially affects the strength of the place, as recent events have proved ; and even had O'Reilly's plan been realised, it would have been in the power of an invading army to cut off the supply of fresh water.

men.* In the months of September and October, when the fever was at its height, from 140 to 170 persons died at Cadiz every day; and it committed dreadful ravages at Santa Maria, Isla de Leon, and Rota. The contagion extended to Chiclana, Puerto Real, and San Lucar; it even spread to Xeres and Seville, and by degrees over the whole province. A cordon was placed along the foot of the Sierra Morena, which it was not deemed safe to withdraw till the following spring. No symptoms of contagious fever were again observed till towards the end of the summer of 1804, when the yellow-fever (here called *vomito negro*) again broke out at Malaga, and extended its ravages westward as far as this city. It was here much less destructive, however, and of shorter duration, than the pestilence of 1800. The greatest mortality amounted for a few days only to 70 or 72 per day.† “ These two calamities following so closely upon each other, together with the considerable emigration which they occasioned, at first seemed to have produced a great diminution in the population of Cadiz; it appeared to be reduced to 50,000 souls. But, on

* Foreigners and persons recently arrived, were those to whom this epidemic proved most fatal, and it attacked men with greater virulence than women; a fact which has been observed with regard to the *vomito prieto* at Vera Cruz.

† At Gibraltar, in the month of October, 120 persons died daily; and out of a population of 16,000 civil and military, the mortality was 6,000. At Malaga, it swept off above a fourth of the population; in other places, above a third—(See pp. 267, 271, of this volume). It extended its ravages along the coast of the Mediterranean, to Carthage, Alicante, the vicinity of Barcelona, and even to Leghorn, in lat. 43° 33'. Of those to whom it proved fatal at Cadiz, M. Bourgoing was informed, that the men were in proportion to the females as 48 to 1. See for an account of the *vomito prieto*, or endemic fever of Vera Cruz, and the *calentura amarilla*, or epidemic yellow fever, MOD. TRAV. Colombia, pp. 102—111; and Mexico, vol. i. pp. 221—4.

the cessation of the alarm, the return of the emigrants and other causes rapidly raised it to nearly the same point at which it stood in 1799 ; and so early as the end of 1804, it was estimated at the lowest at 70,000 souls."

In 1813 and 1815, this terrible disease again made its appearance on this coast. It has visited Cadiz, in all, not fewer than ten times.* Both in 1810 and in 1813, it appeared in a slight degree at Gibraltar, but was checked in its progress by vigilant measures of police. In 1821, however, it broke out at Barcelona, soon after the arrival of some ships from the Havannah ; and more than 20,000 inhabitants of that city fell victims to it in the course of four months, owing chiefly to the neglect of precautionary measures, occasioned by the absurd speculations of certain anti-contagionists.† It appeared at the same time in several parts of the Mediterranean, among other places at Marseilles, but in none in which it could not be traced to the Havannah infection.

Political events, however, have since had a far more disastrous effect on the prosperity of this city. Since the separation of the colonies from the mother country, its commerce has declined, and its population has been constantly diminishing, many of the inhabitants transferring their establishments to Santa Maria, Puerto Real, San Lucar, and other small towns on the coast. At one period, indeed, during the siege by the French, it is said to have con-

* Sir G. Blane's Select Dissertations, (Lond. 1822) p. 284. Its first introduction into Europe was at Lisbon in 1723, probably from Brazil, and it has never since appeared there. It next shewed itself at Cadiz in 1732, three years after its first appearance in the Spanish colonies. It returned in 1733, again in 1744, 1746, and 1764, and not again till 1800 ; nor was it known in all that interval, in any other part of Europe, except once at Malaga in 1741.

† Ibid. p. 293.

tained within its walls, reckoning the refugees and foreign and domestic troops, upwards of 300,000 souls. But this arose from circumstances altogether extraordinary. Deprived of that commerce from which it derived its wealth, it is not likely ever to regain its former importance. No longer the emporium of the Indies, this once proud city, that for a short interval ruled the Peninsula,

“ First to be free, and last to be subdued,”

is probably doomed to add its name to the long list of maritime cities which have risen into greatness on the changeful shores of the Mediterranean, and then, deserted by that fickle tide of prosperity, of which the shifting waters are so striking an emblem, have sunk into insignificance and comparative desolation.*

The public buildings of Cadiz have few claims to attention. There are two cathedrals. The old one is remarkable only for its rich furniture and treasures. The new one, commenced in 1722, and which had cost, in 1769, upwards of four millions and a half of reals, raised by a per centage on colonial imports, still remains unfinished. It is described by Mr. Townsend as a vast pile, with large and lofty domes and many well-proportioned pillars; yet, the whole effect is heavy and disgusting, owing to its being loaded with a very projecting cornice. “All who view this building,” he adds, “are struck with the absurdity of these

* The state of things in April 1823, is thus described by an intelligent observer. “Since the separation of the American colonies from the mother country, the commerce of Cadiz has declined very materially; indeed, speaking in comparison with its former activity, it may be said to have perished. I saw no more than fifty vessels in the bay, which, in the days of her commercial greatness, was seldom beheld without a thousand or fifteen hundred. The population is lessening every day.”—QUIN’S *Visit to Spain*, p. 328.

preposterous ornaments; yet, the architect wants resolution to retract them. It is not, however, impossible, that the waves may wipe away this disgrace to taste, as they have begun their devastations on that side, and not more than ten feet are interposed between that building and the sea." Swinburne describes the top of this church when seen at sea, as resembling "the carcass of some huge monster cast upon its side, rearing its gigantic blanched ribs high above the buildings of the city." Beneath the cathedral is a "subterraneous temple" of the same extent, in which, during the siege, numbers of the inhabitants took shelter from the bombs. The church of San Antonio, "designed as an ornament to the beautiful square of that name, serves only to disfigure it." It was built out of gratitude for the services rendered by the statue of the saint in the plague of 1648. In the church of the Capuchins is an *Ecce Homo* by Murillo, and some other good paintings, as also in that of the Augustins. The garden of the Franciscan monastery is famed for possessing a great vegetable curiosity, the dragon's-blood tree, the only one in Europe. Adjoining the cathedral, is the *Plaza de Toros*, for the bull-feasts,—a mean, wooden building, but commodious within. There is also a neat theatre. "A foreigner, on his arrival at Cadiz," remarks Bourgoing, "never fails to inquire for the *Lonja* or exchange, and learns with astonishment that it has none." It has already been mentioned, that the *plaza* is made to answer this purpose. The new custom-house is an extensive and handsome edifice: Swinburne styles it "a vile piece of architecture."* The old Italian opera-house

* Here the regency, and latterly the king resided during his detention at Cadiz.

has been converted into a suite of coffee-rooms, called the *Camorra*. The only other public buildings deserving notice are, three hospitals; an alms-house for forty-seven widows, founded by a Turkey merchant, born at Damascus, and resident at Cadiz, where he died in 1756; and the *hospicio* or general workhouse,—an admirably conducted institution, by means of which O'Reilly succeeded in effectually suppressing mendicity at Cadiz, as Pacheco did at Alicant.* The barracks are described as a superb edifice for strength and convenience. The private dwelling-houses are built with their windows looking into a court, beneath which is generally a cistern; and each dwelling is capable of military defence. The best houses have brick floors, and stone or marble stairs. The roofs are flat, and covered with cement. The ground-floor is generally occupied with warehouses, and no attention is paid to the vestibule, which consequently becomes a receptacle for every description of nuisance. Neither coaches nor carts are much in use, most of the streets being too narrow to admit of them: the *gallegos* (porters) move the heaviest articles by the help of poles. At their tables, and in the furniture of their houses, the Spanish inhabitants are generally characterised by frugality: it is in their dress chiefly, that their wealth displays itself in the form of luxury.

As to the state of society in Cadiz in a moral point of view, it appears from all accounts to have corresponded but too faithfully to the description given of it by Childe Harold as the modern Paphos:

“ From morn till night, from night still startled morn
Peeps blushing on the revel's laughing crew,

* See, for some interesting details, Townsend, vol. ii. p. 374; and Bourgoing, vol. iii. p. 149.

The song is heard, the rosy garland worn ;
 Devices quaint, and frolics ever new
 Tread on each other's kibes. A long adieu
 He bids to sober joy that here sojourns :
 Nought interrupts the riot, though, in lieu
 Of true devotion, monkish incense burns,
 And love and prayer unite, or rule the hour by turns." *

" Those enjoyments, however," says Bourgoing, " which result from intellectual cultivation, would here be sought in vain. Pleasure, in the strictest sense of the word, absorbs all the physical faculties, and commercial calculations, all the powers of the mind. The one is accounted for and excused by the climate : the other is the result of a concurrence of circumstances to which Cadiz principally owes its importance." The climate is generally delightful, and few places are deemed more healthy. But when the *solano* blows, an easterly wind which comes over the scorched plains of Africa, " all the passions are inflamed, and during its prevalence, the inhabitants, who are most irritable, commit every species of excess."† Laborde is lavish of his epithets on the beauty, grace, and bewitching manners of the ladies of Cadiz, who are famed to excel, in gait and gesture, even the proud dames of Madrid. The Andalusian women, generally, are by all Spaniards acknowledged to excel in engaging manners ; and

" None through their cold disdain are doom'd to die."

" The women here," says Mr. Jacob, " possess nearly as much liberty as Mary Wolstonecraft would have desired ; but I believe the cause of morals and domestic happiness derives no great advantage from this independence of the female sex. So far as I can

* Childe Harold, canto i. st. 76, &c.

† Townsend, vol. ii. p. 439.

learn, the state of education here is intolerably bad, and that of the women is, if possible, more defective than that of the men.”*

The bay of Cadiz, reckoned one of the finest in the world, is a basin of from ten to twelve leagues in circumference, open to the sea towards the north-east, and every where else protected by mountains. The entrance is about 560 fathoms in breadth. Cadiz is in lat. $36^{\circ} 32' N.$, long. $6^{\circ} 17' 22'' W.$, 60 miles S.W. of Seville, and 45 N.W. of Gibraltar. At a distance, says Sir John Carr, the city, from the whiteness of the houses, not a little resembles a fleet of vessels drying their sails; and on a nearer approach, it has a dazzling appearance, “like a city built of ivory.” The bay being of such extent, different places have been assigned to vessels according to their destination. Facing the city, at a certain distance, is the anchorage for ships coming from European ports. More to the eastward, in the channel of the Trocadero, the Indiamen are laid up and unrigged. At the extremity of this channel, stands the handsome village of Puerta Real, and on its banks are the magazines, arsenals,

* The author of Doblado's Letters, himself a Sevillian (the Rev. J. Blanco White), thus speaks of the manners of the Gaditanians: “Cadiz, though fast declining from the wealth and splendour to which she had reached during her exclusive privilege to trade with the colonies, is still one of the few towns in Spain, which, for refinement, can be compared with some of the second-rate in England. The people are hospitable and cheerful. The women, without being at all beautiful, are really fascinating. Some of the *tertulias*, or evening parties, which a simple introduction to the lady of the house entitles any one to attend daily, are very lively and agreeable. No stiffness of etiquette prevails: you may drop in when you like, and leave the room when it suits you. Singing to the guitar or the piano, is a very common resource at these meetings; but the musical acquirements of the Spanish ladies cannot bear the most distant comparison with those of the female amateurs in London.” (p. 14.)

and dock-yards for merchantmen. The entrance of the Trocadero is defended by two forts, one called Matagordo, on the continent, and the other, Fort Luis, on an islet which is covered at high water. The line of fire of these two forts is crossed by that of one of the *Puntales* on the opposite shores. All vessels, therefore, are obliged to sail within reach of these batteries in passing from the great bay into that of the *Puntales*, at the bottom of which, near the magazines, are moored the unrigged ships of the royal navy. The vast space upon which these magazines are erected, and the possession of which the sea appears to dispute with the land, is washed to the west by the river Santi Petri (or San Pedro), and distinguished by the appellation of *La Carraca*.* “To gain access to this place,” M. Bourgoing says, “you must go to Isla de Leon,—a town nearly quite new, having been built about the middle of the last century, and which has rapidly grown to a prodigious size. In 1790, it contained 40,000 communicants. Its principal street is two miles long, and makes a handsome appearance, though the houses are decorated in bad taste. Isla de Leon has an air of cleanliness and opulence, a market abundantly supplied, and a spacious square. The Naval Academy has been removed hither from Cadiz, till the completion of the new edifice erecting in the new town of San Carlos, contiguous to La Carraca. The Island of Leon is separated from La Carraca by a basin 900 feet long and 600 broad, from which are cut two canals, the one running to La

* A *cárraca* is a large and slow-sailing ship of burthen: how this name came to be given to the royal dock-yard, is not mentioned. Caracas, the name of the capital of Venezuela, and of some islands off the coast of Cumana, is derived from that of the aborigines.—See MOD. TRAV., *Colombia*, p. 102.

Carraca, and the other to the sea." The end of the island towards the continent is remarkably strong, both by nature and art, and may be considered as one of the principal defences of Cadiz. It is here that the *Santi Petri* is crossed by the *Puente de Zuarzo*, which is flanked with batteries, and defended by gun-boats. Isla de Leon has acquired interest from having since become for a short period the seat of government. In Dec. 1809, when Mr. Jacob visited it, it was inhabited chiefly by officers of the navy, and persons employed in the dock-yard; but the expected convocation of the Cortes had already raised the price of houses. It then contained between 40 and 50,000 inhabitants, and, from its extent, including San Carlos, seemed capable of holding double that number. "The streets," says this Traveller, "are wide, the houses large, and, like other Spanish towns, it displays a mixture of grandeur and poverty, quite characteristic of the nation. I visited the principal church, which is as elegantly decorated as the religious edifices in Spain usually are; but what principally attracted my attention was the repository for the dead, called the Pantheon. It is an open court, of an oval form, with a corridor built on arches, and supported by pillars; and in the walls, which are of a competent thickness, are receptacles for the remains of the clergy. These niches, which resemble the mouths of ovens, are, after the interment, closed with brick-work. I counted 500, all of which were filled; and I was told, that when a priest died, the body which had been longest deposited, was removed to make room for the new occupier."

The arsenal at Carracas contains some fine magazines for naval stores, and every convenience for careening and fitting ships. The cordage and cables are excellent. The first dock was begun in 1785:

there are now four. Cadiz also contains a school of navigation and a commodious observatory, so that no place is provided with a more complete naval establishment. It must always form, therefore, an important station, although the sun of its mercantile glory has probably set.

It is a ride of two hours from the *Puente de Zuarzo* to the delightful village of Chiclana, where many of the Cadiz merchants have their country-houses.* The road beyond the bridge is a causeway through marshes filled with salt-pits. The manufacture of salt is one of the most productive branches of industry in the environs of Cadiz. The salt-pits border all that part of the bay between the Puntal and Santa Maria. The quantity collected is prodigious. Bay salt is permitted to be exported on the payment of a trifling duty,† but all that is appropriated for interior consumption becomes subject to a royal monopoly. The heaps of salt at a distance give the morass on which it is collected, the appearance of a plain covered with pyramidal stone buildings. The entrance to Chiclana is

* The usual mode of reaching Chiclana is by water. "The inhabitants of Cadiz, being confined to the rock on which their city is built, have made the towns of Chiclana, Puerto Real, and Puerto Sta. Maria their places of resort, especially in the summer. The passage by water to the latter is, on an average, of about an hour and a half; and the intercourse between the two places is nearly as constant as between a large city and its suburbs. Boats filled with passengers are incessantly crossing from day-break till sunset."—DOBLADO'S *Letters*, p. 15.

† A preference has been given to this salt (Mr. Jacob says, owing to an unfounded prejudice) by the curers of Irish provisions, over that of Cheshire. The Portuguese carry large cargoes of it to the coasts of Galicia and the Asturias. It is imported also by the Swedes, the Danes, and the Dutch; and the French fishermen of St. Malo, Dieppe, and Grandville sometimes go to the bay of Cadiz for salt. Laborde states the quantity annually obtained from the salt-pits, at 21,300,000 cwt.

very beautiful, with the alameda, adjoining some gardens, on one side, and a wood of pines on the other. Chiclana contains about 8,000 inhabitants, exclusive of the occasional residents. In the two seasons of spring and autumn, it is crowded with the "beauty and fashion" of Cadiz; and for a few weeks, all the pleasures of the city, "splendid entertainments, balls, concerts, all the display of opulence, all the efforts of the toilet, are transferred hither by the amiable *Gaditanas*." From the top of a conical hill near the town, surmounted by the beautiful church of Santa Ana, is obtained a fine view of the surrounding country as far as the mountains of Ronda. Near Chiclana is a sulphureous mineral spring, which is held in repute throughout Andalusia for the cure of cutaneous complaints; and all the hills in the vicinity are said to abound with mineral springs of various kinds, which are little known, and have never been analysed.

About half way from Cadiz to Puerto Santa Maria, is Puerto Real, situated also on the bay. At the close of the seventeenth century, this was a village with only 1,500 inhabitants: it now contains upwards of 10,000. When the French troops marched down to form the ineffectual siege of Cadiz in 1810, they experienced the fiercest opposition in this place: the inhabitants fired upon them in the streets from their household battlements, and the invaders in revenge blew down those from which they received the greatest annoyance, the ruins of which still remained in 1823, to attest the horrors of that sanguinary war. From Puerta Real, a fine road leads to Santa Maria. This town has already been described. Here Mr. Jacob witnessed a bull-fight, given in honour of Lord Wellington in November 1809; and as this diversion,

though now falling into disuse, is strictly national, and was once the favourite amusement of all classes, his description of it deserves a place in our account of the manners of the Gaditanians.

“ The *Plaza de Toros* is a large amphitheatre, capable of holding 14,000 persons. On this occasion it was not full, and I suppose that not more than 10,000 people were present. The appearance of the assembly was striking, and a degree of interest was excited in every countenance, which I should previously have thought a much more important contest would scarcely have called forth. I entered the place at the moment when the first bull was killed, and horses gaily decorated were dragging him from the circle, amid the sounds of music and the applauding shouts of the people. Preparations were made for a fresh conflict. Three men were posted behind each other, about ten yards asunder, mounted on small but active horses, and armed with each a spear about fifteen feet long; and five or six men on foot, dressed in scarlet cloaks, were placed in other parts of the arena. The gates were thrown open, and the bull rushed in. He made towards the first horseman, who received him on the point of his spear, and wounded him between the shoulders. This turned him, and he attacked the second horseman with great fury; but, from the want either of dexterity in the rider, or of agility in the animal, the horse was dreadfully gored in the body, and his bowels fell on the ground. The combatants were soon disentangled, and the bull attacked the third horseman, who received him like the first, and wounded him severely. He now became furious, and galloped round the circle; but either from the loss of blood, or the pain he endured, he was fearful of facing the horsemen. The men on foot then began to irri-

tate him, by sticking small darts in his body; and, whenever he made a push at them, threw the cloak over his eyes, and with great dexterity avoided his thrust. This irritation was continued some time, till the animal, streaming with blood, became exhausted. The matador, or principal actor, then made his appearance, provided with a small sword and cloak: he advanced towards the bull, which ran and pushed at him, but the man received the thrust on his cloak, and stepping nimbly aside, withheld his blow, because the animal did not present himself in the exact attitude which the matador required for despatching him with grace. He then made a second advance towards the animal, and, while he was in the act of pushing at him, plunged the sword up to the hilt between his shoulders. The bull ran a few paces, staggered, and dropped dead. The trumpets sounded a flourish; horses galloped in, and being fastened to the carcass, dragged it away amid the applauding shouts of the spectators. Six or seven other bulls were then despatched in a similar manner, with only such variations as were occasioned by the different degrees of courage which the animals possessed. When the last bull was fighting, the matador so contrived it, that he gave him the *coup de grace* immediately under the box in which Lord Wellington and the English party were seated. Before this operation, he addressed himself to his lordship, and said with much dignity, that he should kill that bull to the health of King George the Third, which was quickly performed. His lordship threw him some money, and the entertainment closed.

“ This bull-fight was represented to me as a very inferior exhibition, owing to the coolness of the

weather; the bulls having much more courage during the intense heat of summer, than at the present season (November). It is certainly an amusement attended with great cruelty both to the bulls and the horses, though not involving much danger to the men. From this they were partly secured by their own agility, and by the dexterous application of their cloaks when the animal charged them, and partly by the barriers placed round the circle, behind which they retired when pressed by the bull. How repugnant soever this diversion may appear to every delicate and feeling mind, it is more frequented and admired by the ladies than by the gentlemen. They attend these exhibitions in their gayest dresses, applaud the address of the inhuman combatants, and feel the greatest solicitude at the different critical turns of the fight. Many of the young country gentlemen may trace their ruin to these spectacles, as decidedly as Englishmen of the same class may trace theirs to Newmarket. In fact, it is the great object which engages the attention of that description of men distinguished by the term *majos*.”*

* Jacob's Travels, pp. 172—5. Sir John Carr witnessed a bull-fight given a few months before at Puerto S. Maria, the only place then in Spain at which they were allowed, and there only by connivance. The day usually selected for this brutal sport, was Sunday; and the poorest persons, it is said, would sell their very beds to raise money to attend the popular spectacle. One of the most inhuman parts of the game is, that the horses are frequently lacerated in so dreadful a manner, that their bowels trail on the ground; and even in that condition they are urged on by the rider till they drop; because the *piccadores* who are dismounted, are paid less. With equal barbarity, the dying horse is, by a “proud custom,” denied the *coup de grace* which terminates the sufferings of the lordly bull. Unless several horses are killed, the fight is not deemed a good one. Sir John Carr saw an Andalusian bull gore

At Santa Maria, we are on the road to Seville, which we have already traced as far as Utrera, where

five horses to death. After the fight, the dead horses are given to the dogs; the bulls are the perquisite of the *matador*; and after all the performers are paid, and the proprietor of the amphitheatre remunerated, the surplus is devoted to some charitable institution! In a room adjoining the theatre, are a bier, a crucifix, and surgical instruments in case of accidents.—See CARR'S *Spain*, pp. 53—65. The best description of a bull-fight, perhaps, that has been given, is furnished by Childe Harold, and it deserves a place in this note.

“ The Sabbath comes, a day of blessed rest;
What hallows it upon this Christian shore?
Lo! it is sacred to a solemn feast:
Hark! heard you not the forest monarch's roar?
Crashing the lance, he snuffs the spouting gore
Of man and steed, o'erthrown beneath his horn:
The throng'd arena shakes with shouts for more:
Yells the mad crowd o'er entrails freshly torn,
Nor shrinks the female eye, nor ev'n affects to mourn.

“ Thrice sounds the clarion; lo! the signal falls,
The den expands, and expectation mute
Gapes round the silent circle's peopled walls.
Bounds with one lashing spring the mighty brute,
And, wildly staring, spurns with sounding foot
The sand, nor blindly rushes on his foe:
Here, there, he points his threatening front, to suit
His first attack, wide waving to and fro
His angry tail; red rolls his eye's dilated glow.

“ Sudden he stops; his eye is fix'd; away,
Away, thou heedless boy! prepare the spear:
Now is thy time to perish, or display
The skill that yet may check his mad career.
With well-timed croupe the nimble coursers veer;
On foams the bull, but not unscathed he goes;
Streams from his flank the crimson torrent clear:
He flies, he wheels, distracted with his throes;
Dart follows dart; lance, lance; loud bellowings speak his woes.

“ Again he comes; nor dart nor lance avail,
Nor the wild plunging of the tortured horse;
Though man, and man's avenging arms assail,
Vain are his weapons, vainer is his force.

it falls into the road to Antequera. Mr. Jacob took a shorter route from Xeres by way of Lebrixa, passing by a dusty track through fields recently covered with corn, but at that time converted, from the want of rain, into barren plains, — leaving the high mountains of Borno on the right, and the Guadalquivir at a considerable distance on the left. The first view of Lebrixa is very impressive. Near the town is a

One gallant steed is stretch'd, a mangled corse;
 Another, hideous sight ! unseam'd appears :
 His gory chest unveils life's panting source ;
 Though death-struck, still his feeble frame he hears ;
 Staggering, but, stemming all, his lord unharm'd he bears.

“ Foil'd, bleeding, breathless, furious to the last,
 Full in the centre stands the bull at bay,
 Mid wounds, and clinging darts, and lances brast,
 And foes disabled in the brutal fray.
 And now the matadores around him play,
 Shake the red cloak, and poise the ready brand :
 Once more through all he bursts his thundering way—
 Vain rage ! the mantle quits the conynge hand,
 Wraps his fierce eye—'tis past—he sinks upon the sand !

“ Where his vast neck just mingles with the spine,
 Sheathed in his form the deadly weapon lies.
 He stops—he starts—disdaining to decline :
 Slowly he falls, amidst triumphant cries,
 Without a groan, without a struggle dies.
 The decorated car appears—on high
 The corse is piled—sweet sight for vulgar eyes—
 Four steeds that spurn the rein, as swift as shy,
 Hurl the dark bulk along, scarce seen in dashing by.”

Childe Harold, canto i.

The common opinion assigns to bull-feasts a Moorish origin ; but there is some reason to believe that they were previously introduced into Spain by the Roman conquerors, who are said to have derived them from the Greeks. The practice was prohibited by Pius V. under pain of excommunication incurred *ipso facto* ; but his successors granted several mitigations on behalf of the *toreadors*. They were formally abolished in Spain by Charles IV. in 1805 ; but, to the disgrace of the Supreme Junta, were revived in 1809, at Santa Maria, for the amusement of the enlightened people of Cadiz, and in honour of Lord Wellesley.

Roman camp, situated on an eminence, from the centre of which rises a once magnificent castle, now partly in ruins and partly converted into a monastery. The lower part of the walls is built of Roman bricks : the upper part is evidently of Moorish construction. The Roman part, which is in some places thirty feet high, gradually diminishes in thickness, each tier of bricks standing further in than the one below, so that the wall resembles a flight of steps : at the bottom it is so thick, that cells for the monks, nine feet in length, have been excavated in the walls. The remains of an ancient fosse are still visible. The town is by no means well built, but some of the public buildings have an imposing appearance : the *parroquia* is a very large and handsome structure, splendidly decorated, and containing some fine sculptures and paintings by Alonzo Cano, the prince of Spanish artists. By the side of an archway leading to the castle, is a marble female statue in tolerable preservation, except that it is headless. Mr. Jacob considers it to be undoubtedly Roman. Lebrixa is a town of high antiquity, having had for its founder no less illustrious a personage than Bacchus. In times somewhat less remote, it was made the head-quarters of the Pompeys, a short time before the decisive battle of Munda. The country in the immediate vicinity is undulating and very rich, abounding in olives, vines, and corn ; but a few miles beyond it, Mr. Jacob entered on the Maresma, the vast marshy tract of rich pasture-land traversed, and in winter inundated, by the Guadalquivir. It extends, in this direction, almost to Seville, a distance of eight Spanish leagues, or above thirty miles. A single day's rain makes such an impression on the deep alluvial soil, that a horse can scarcely pass it without going many

leagues about by the *Camino Real* (royal road) through Utrera and Alcala. One wretched, filthy *venta*, having no neighbour within ten miles, was the only habitation that presented itself on this plain, which is abandoned to herds of cattle and troops of horses. Mr. Jacob reached Seville soon after sunset.

The high road from Cadiz to Seville leads from Utrera to Alcala de Guadaira, a distance of four leagues. This is a small town in the midst of a district fertilised by the Guadaira, the inhabitants of which are chiefly employed in making bread for the consumption of Seville, which is ten leagues distant. A fine road leads from Alcala for five leagues to Carmona. The high road from Cadiz to Madrid, which formerly led through Seville, turns off above Alcala. Carmona is a large town, standing boldly on a high hill. The castle, which is in ruins, covers a vast extent of ground, and contains many buildings that served as a palace and fortress to Don Pedro the Cruel. Like almost every town in this province, Carmona figures as a place of importance in Roman story; and remains of walls and inscriptions still remain to attest its ancient splendour. Two of the gates are Roman structures: the Cordova gate is a noble monument, apparently, M. Bourgoing says, of the time of Trajan; it has been, in some parts, absurdly retouched in the modern style. The town is pleasant and lively. From Carmona to Seville, a distance of five leagues, the road leads through vineyards, olive-grounds, and hedge-rows of aloes; yet, this beautiful country is almost without an inhabitant. Who would imagine that he was approaching a city which ranks as the second in the kingdom?—that famous and most ancient capital of Andalusia, of which Hercules was

the founder, which Julius Cæsar rebuilt and fortified, and Ferdinand III., *el rey santo*, worthy of completing the triumvirate, restored to Christendom; in fact, a city respecting which it has long been a proverb among the Andalusians, “the Gascons of Spain,”—

“*Quien no ha visto Sevilla,
No ha visto maravilla.*”!

He who has ne’er in Seville been,
Has never yet a wonder seen.

But the description of this wonder must begin a new volume.

END OF THE FIRST VOLUME.