

fence of the city when attacked by the Moors. The order no longer exists, but the women of Tortosa still enjoy several privileges granted to them at that time.

The order of Truxillo was founded about the year 1190, but it is not known by whom: Alphonso IX. incorporated it in 1196, with the order of Calatrava, and that of Alcantara now enjoys most of the property which it possessed.

The order of *Saint Mary of Spain*, instituted by Alphonso, surnamed the Wise, in 1270; this appears by two charters preserved at Ucles, amongst the archives of the order of Saint James, but no mention is made of it in the history of Spain. The knights enjoyed great revenues, and were to defend the kingdom of Seville against the Moors.

The order of the *Scarf*, perhaps, gave rise to all our blue, red, and green ribbons. Alphonso XII. king of Castile, founded it in the city of Vic-

Victoria in 1332, and gave it, as a distinguishing badge, a ribbon of the breadth of three fingers, which the knights wore over the right shoulder. The king and his sons became knights of this order. Ten years military service were a qualification to be admitted.

The order of the *Dove*, created in 1383, in the cathedral church of Segovia, by John I. king of Castile. The emblem was a white dove within a glory, suspended by a golden chain.

The same monarch founded the order of *Reason*, and, what is astonishing, proof of nobility was required as a qualification to be admitted. The distinguishing mark of the order was a folded little ensign, which was hung to the mantle by means of a chain.

The order of *Burgandy* is reckoned in the number of those which have existed in Spain, because Charles V. returning from his expedition to Tunis, instituted  
it

it in his states in memory of that conquest. The insignia of the order was a Cross of Burgundy, composed of two knotty staffs, above which was the word *Barbaria*. Spain still bears this cross in her flag.

The present orders of Spain are those of Alcantara, Calatrava, Santiago or Saint James, Montesa, the Golden Fleece, and that of Charles III. The order of Alcantara was called the Noble; that of Calatrava, the Gallant; and that of Santiago, the Rich.

The order of *Alcantara* was stiled, at its first institution, that of Saint Julian, and was founded in 1156, under the auspices of Don Suero Fernandes and Don Gomez Fernandes Banientos, two gentlemen of Salamanca. These two brothers resolved to take up arms, and to associate with themselves some nobles of their country in their project against the infidels. Ordone, bishop of Salamanca, confirmed their plan, got it approved of  
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by pope Alexander III. and enjoined the knights to the observance of the rules of Saint Benedict. It was not until the year 1219, that their principal house was transferred to Alcantara, when they gave that name to their order. Alphonso VII. promised them possession of every thing they should take from the infidels. This order is not by much so rich as formerly, but it still possesses thirty-three commanderies, four Alcaydies, and four priories, which annually produce eighty thousand ducats.

The order of Calatrava had its beginning in Castile, under the reign of Sanchez III. That king proclaimed to his court that he would give Calatrava, and its dependencies, to the person who should undertake to defend that city against the Moors, and that the property should descend by right to his heirs. No individual, whatever the editors of the chronological abridgment of the history of Spain may say to the contrary, thought himself sufficiently

ficiently rich and powerful for the undertaking. The knights templars, at that time very powerful, were the only persons who generously came and offered to defend the place. Sanchez at first refused them, but at length was prevailed upon to consent, and the templars, desirous of being aided in their enterprize by a considerable number of gentlemen, after having taken possession of the city, proposed to the king to found the military order of Calatrava. It was instituted the same year, that is, in 1158, with the sole intention of combating the Moors and opposing their conquests.

The popes, Alexander III. Gregory VIII. and Innocent III. approved of the order; the knights adopted the rule of Citeaux, assumed a uniform proper for military expeditions, and fulfilled their duty in an exemplary manner. The order at present is neither religious nor military, but has annexed to it thirty-four commanderies and eight priories, the revenue  
of

of which are estimated together at an hundred and twenty thousand ducats per annum. The cross differs from that of the order of Alcantara in colour only; the latter is green, and the former red.

The military order of Saint James had its origin in Galicia, in the year 1170, under the reign of Ferdinand II. king of Leon. There was in the environs of Santiago a convent of regular canons, of the order of Saint Augustin, governed by a prior elected by themselves. Several of the nobility, at the head of whom was Pedro Fernando de Fuente Encalada, having resolved to form a military order, under the title of the order of Saint James, were extremely anxious to execute their project, and imagined they should never be able to live in the orderly and decent manner worthy of knights, if they had not priests who should take the charge of their consciences. It seemed to them fitting, the better to succeed in their enterprize, that they should become united to the

prior and canons of the monastery of Loyo, because these led a very regular life, such as the knights themselves had proposed. They communicated their intentions to Don Celebruno, archbishop of Toledo, and to Don Pedro Martinez, archbishop of Santiago, by whom they were approved of. The pope's legate confirmed the assent of the two prelates, and the order was established under the rule of Saint Augustin. The knights wear a medal, upon which is a red sword, at the button hole of their coat. This order has eighty-seven commanderies in the kingdoms of Castile and Leon, which annually produce two hundred and seventy-two thousand ducats.

The order of the Golden Fleece was instituted by Philip II. duke of Burgundy, count of Flanders, and surnamed the Good. His desire to add to the splendor of his marriage with the Infanta Isabella, daughter of John I. king of Portugal, inspired him with the idea of this institution. The 10th of January,

1429, the day of his marriage, was that also of the foundation of the order: he fixed the number of knights at twenty-four, and named Saint Andrew for their patron. Charles V. afterward, increased the number to fifty-one. To be received a knight of the order, it is necessary either to be a prince, a grandee of Spain, or distinguished by great and signal services.

According to its constitution, the grand-master is to be the head of the house of Burgundy, so that since the marriage of the archduke Philip I. with the Infanta Jane, heiress to the catholic kings, and mother to Charles V. the kings of Spain have possessed the grand-mastership of the order, and perpetuated it in their states; and since the time of Charles V. they have also enjoyed the revenues and title of grand-master of Alcantara, Calatrava, and Santiago.

The royal order of Charles III. was instituted by that monarch the 19th of

September, 1771, to celebrate the birth of an infant, who is since dead. Charles III. placed his order under the protection of the Virgin, and the mystery of her immaculate conception. The principal rules of the constitution of the order are, that all the kings, his successors, shall be the grand-masters of it, and have the sole right of appointing the knights.

These are of two kinds : those of the Great Cross, and the Knights Pensioners : the number of the former is fixed at sixty, and that of the latter at two hundred. Persons who are received into the order of the Great Cross must be twenty-five years of age ; but those of the royal family and foreign princes are exempt from the rule.

## A G R I C U L T U R E .

THE causes of the depopulation of Spain, and the neglect of agriculture in that kingdom, are so well known as to make it unnecessary for me here to enumerate them. Government, better understanding its real interests, seems disposed to pay attention to every thing which regards political œconomy. The favour it shews to the different societies established under the name of *Amigos del Pais*, friends to their country, is a proof of this, since their end is to encourage industry, and animate and improve agriculture, but the progress they have hitherto made has been but very slow. A few years of vigilance, and encouragement, have not been sufficient to repair the evil caused by several centuries of indolence. Besides, one of the chief obstacles with which the zeal of the societies will meet for a long time to come, is less the want of population, for

it is proved that the population of Spain has encreased one third within these thirty years, than the too great distance between one village and another. Most travellers who have gone through the kingdom must have observed that but few lands, except those at the distance of a league or more from the cities and villiages, are cultivated, and it is not possible to clear such as are more remote, since, in some places, there is not a single habitation in the space of four, five, or six leagues. The intermediate lands seem to be sacred, and would be profaned by the plough or hoe, and some villages become poor and wretched, because they are too great and populous. The first care of government ought to be, to fix the limits of all the towns, villages, and hamlets; and instead of suffering them to extend, to oblige them to separate. Men would then cover a greater space, and the waste lands would obtain a value. Spain affords a proof of this in the kingdom of Valencia and the Sierra Morena.

In countries not peopled in proportion to their extent, the œconomy of men and cattle should be well understood; yet it is not uncommon, in Spain, to see, in a field of only an acre, ten or twelve pair of oxen, which one after the other follow the same furrow, and are guided by as many labourers; whilst in a neighbouring enclosure, ten or fifteen men, arranged in the same manner as the oxen, are provided with spades, and scarcely scrape the land. Many inconveniences arise from this mode of cultivation. The first is undoubtedly that of uselessly employing too many hands; but the most dangerous one is, that the earth, not being sufficiently opened, does not communicate to the plants and grain the vital principles they ought to receive from it. The fogs and dews, which are always abundant in Spain, not penetrating the earth, are too soon exhaled by the sun. The plants wither, and the rain, if it be heavy, roots them up; the winds alone are sufficient to make

considerable ravages in lands so cultivated. Yet notwithstanding the disadvantages of this very defective mode of cultivation, it has been remarked, that, upon an average, the harvest furnishes, in corn, the subsistence of a year and a half for all Spain. What would be the produce were all the lands well cultivated?

It may be supposed that in consequence of this abundance, were there a few public graneries, there ought never to be a want of corn in Spain: yet a scarcity frequently happens in some provinces, because exportation is there badly understood; bread is also much dearer there than in France. It is true the Spanish peasant is unacquainted with the black and disgusting bread which the French labourer frequently eats; the whitest bread made from the best wheat is eaten by every class of persons. The Castiles and Estramadura are the most fertile provinces in corn, and to these especially

cially government ought to turn its attention.

Several remedies might be applied to the great sterility complained of in Spain. The first, whence a double advantage must be derived, would be to plant trees. Travellers have the fatigue of crossing the immense plains of Castile without meeting with the smallest shrub. Most of the provinces are well supplied with springs, but these disappear in very hot weather. Were care taken to plant trees by the sides of rivers and rivulets, the effect of the sun would be considerably lessened; and were others planted in the country, rain water would remain longer upon the earth.

The soil of the country between Madrid and the Sierra Morena, and from Talavera to Badajos has a superficies of a foot and a half of sand, under which the earth is clayey and strong: thus nature herself has furnished upon the land what is proper to mix with it,  
and

and nothing remains to be done but to supply it with moisture; and this, as I have already observed, might be effected by properly sheltering the springs from the heat of the sun.

When we recollect that in Spain there are upwards of an hundred and fifty rivers, six of which are large ones, and numerous springs in the mountains, the want of moisture in the earth must appear to proceed from the indolence of the inhabitants; since the climate of Spain, notwithstanding the great heat, is so favourable to the natural fertility of the lands, that even those most exposed to the sun, sometimes produce an hundred fold.

One of the first reforms to be made for the benefit of agriculture in Spain, should be to prohibit the too general use of mules\*. The horse, considering  
his

\* A set of horses are seldom seen in that kingdom. Notwithstanding the prohibition, which has been several times renewed, of being drawn by  
mules,

his beauty only, undoubtedly deserves the preference; but while we grant to the mule all the superiority of strength and frugality supposed in him, his incapability of multiplying his species ought to be decisive for his exclusion. Ignorance of the art of agriculture and an ill judged luxury alone support the national prejudice in favour of mules, most of which are bought from other countries at an extravagant price. If in some parts of Spain the horse be not strong enough to support the climate in those places, let the use of mules be continued; but wherever horses can be safely employed they seem under every point of view to merit a preference.

The great number of bulls likewise, which are kept in indolence, and at a great expence to the public, to be destroyed for a cruel amusement ought to

mules, or making any use of them in travelling, none but women and ecclesiastics being exempt from the law, the old custom has constantly prevailed. These prohibitions were made because the breed of horses began to be lost.

be diminished. If the people be so attached to bull-fights as not to be satisfied without them, the number of victims might be reduced; and instead of twenty bulls, which in those butchering diversions are torn to pieces alive, the sacrifice of four should be sufficient. Agriculture would gain considerably by such a reform.

Mr. Bowles who, in his Introduction to the Natural History and Geography of Spain, gives the most satisfactory proofs that he has well examined the productions of that kingdom, assures us, that neither Belon or Rauwolf mention any plant in the environs of Jerufalem which he has not found in this country.

I do not think it altogether useless to give some idea of certain plants, trees, and shrubs found in Spain.

The turpentine tree is rather common; it is pricked by an insect to deposit

posit its eggs, and the puncture produces a gall nut, of the colour of coral; and as the nut, instead of becoming more round, lengthens out upwards of half an inch, and takes the form of the horn of a goat, this kind of turpentine tree is vulgarly called *Cornicabra*. The roots, frequently thicker than the trunk, produce a very hard wood, handsomely veined, and which takes, in the lathe, all the forms the artist wishes to give it. It is susceptible of a fine polish, and at Orihuela great quantities of it are made into snuff-boxes, known by the name of wood of Orihuela. But the workmen are not ingenious; very few of the boxes I saw made in the country had either elegance or neatness.

The Indian fig tree (*Opuntia*) is very common in the eastern and southern parts of Spain, and although this shrub be originally from the Indies, it grows every where without cultivation, in the openings of the rocks, even where it scarcely finds earth enough to take root.

Its

Its flower is almost the size of a common carnation, but more tufted, of a very red colour and without thorns, but the leaves, by which it is enveloped whilst yet in the bud, are armed with sharp prickles. The fruit which succeeds the flower resembles the common fig; it stains with red the urine of such as eat of it. It was by chance discovered in England, that the bones of a pig, kept in the house of a dyer, and which had been fed with madder, were stained with red. The experiment was repeated and confirmed by the academy of sciences at Paris.

The great palm tree grows in all the southern provinces of Spain; but is found in the greatest abundance in the kingdom of Valencia, in the environs of the Elche, where the plain is covered with it as far as the eye can reach. It is said there are upwards of fifty thousand trees, two-thirds of which are at least an hundred and twenty feet high, and form a magnificent forest. The dates they produce

duce hang in clusters of from fifteen to twenty-five pounds weight, at the top of the tree. They are less sweet and not so good as those of the Levant; but this I am of opinion depends in part on the preparation of the latter, which corrects the husk of the fruit, naturally rather four.

There are several kinds of oak in Spain. The *Ilex aculeata cocciglandifera* is that under the prickly leaves of which is found the *kermes*, or the worm known by the name of the Gall-insect, used in the dying of scarlet, and which was very valuable to the ancients: but the use of it is now less frequent on account of the abundance of the insect called *Cochineal*, brought from America. This kind of oak is called in Spanish *Coscoxa*.

The *Suber* or *Alcornoque* is the kind of oak which produces cork; its acorns are bitter. Every four years it is spoiled of its bark as far as the cuticle; were this injured the tree would decay.

After

After this operation the tree produces a kind of liquor which congeals in the air, and in four or five years forms the new cork.

The real oak, called in Spanish *Encina*, is a very high tree, with a thick foliage, and wood extremely hard: the roots are more porous and flexible. This oak produces very large acorns of an oblong shape, and so palatable, that they are eaten in the manner of chestnuts. There is a variety of this kind of oak, the leaves of which are smooth and glittering, but the acorns are neither so large nor so good as those of the former.

The northern mountains of Spain produce white oak, very fit for ship-building; the leaf is very broad and indented, and falls in winter. This tree produces bitter acorns.

The beech also grows in the northern provinces, upon the tops of the mountains, where the oak cannot support itself;

self; it grows in the plains likewise, and produces fruit of a triangular form.

The walnut tree is common enough in some parts of Spain. It is astonishing that this tree has not been planted in other parts of the kingdom, where it would thrive extremely well.

Most of the olive trees are, if I may so say, nothing but bark; this arises from the bad method of planting them, which consists in taking a branch from the tree, splitting it into four parts at one end, and putting it into the earth, so that the water and heat rot the inside. Spain produces, in general, an abundance of oil; but for the most part it has a bad smell, and is detestable to the taste, whilst it might be rendered as good as that of the southern provinces of France.

Andalusia abounds with olive trees; those of Lucena and the environs produce a round little olive of a good qua-

lity for making of oil. The olives of Seville are as large as a pigeon's egg, and are excellent for preserving.

The apple tree in Biscay seems to be in its natural climate; the species of it in this province are exceedingly numerous. The rennets are common, with a little variety amongst them: the cherry tree grows to the height of an elm: the peaches are delicious, and in the same province are found the four best kinds of pear.

The people of Valencia pretend that their silk is finer, lighter, and more smooth than that of Murcia, because they lop their mulberry trees every two years, and the Murcians lop theirs only once in three years, which makes the leaf stronger and more four. But to this may be opposed the example of the inhabitants of Granada, who never lop their trees, and may justly boast of producing the finest and smoothest silk in Spain. The cultivation of the mulberry

berry tree in the kingdom of Granada is indisputably the best.

The kingdom of Murcia contains forests of orange and lemon trees, and all other fruits of this kind are found there in the greatest abundance. The oranges of Murcia are in general larger and sweeter than those of the kingdom of Valencia, Catalonia and the rest of Spain.

The plant the Spaniards call the *Pita*, is the aloe of America. The kind of grass they call *Esparta* is very common, for it covers a great part of Spain. It serves to make ropes, mats, and several useful articles. Mr. Bowles says, he counted upwards of forty methods of employing it. A few years since the Spaniards found the means of spinning this plant like hemp or flax, and making it into very fine linen. Charles III. rewarded the person who made this truly valuable discovery, and granted him several privileges.

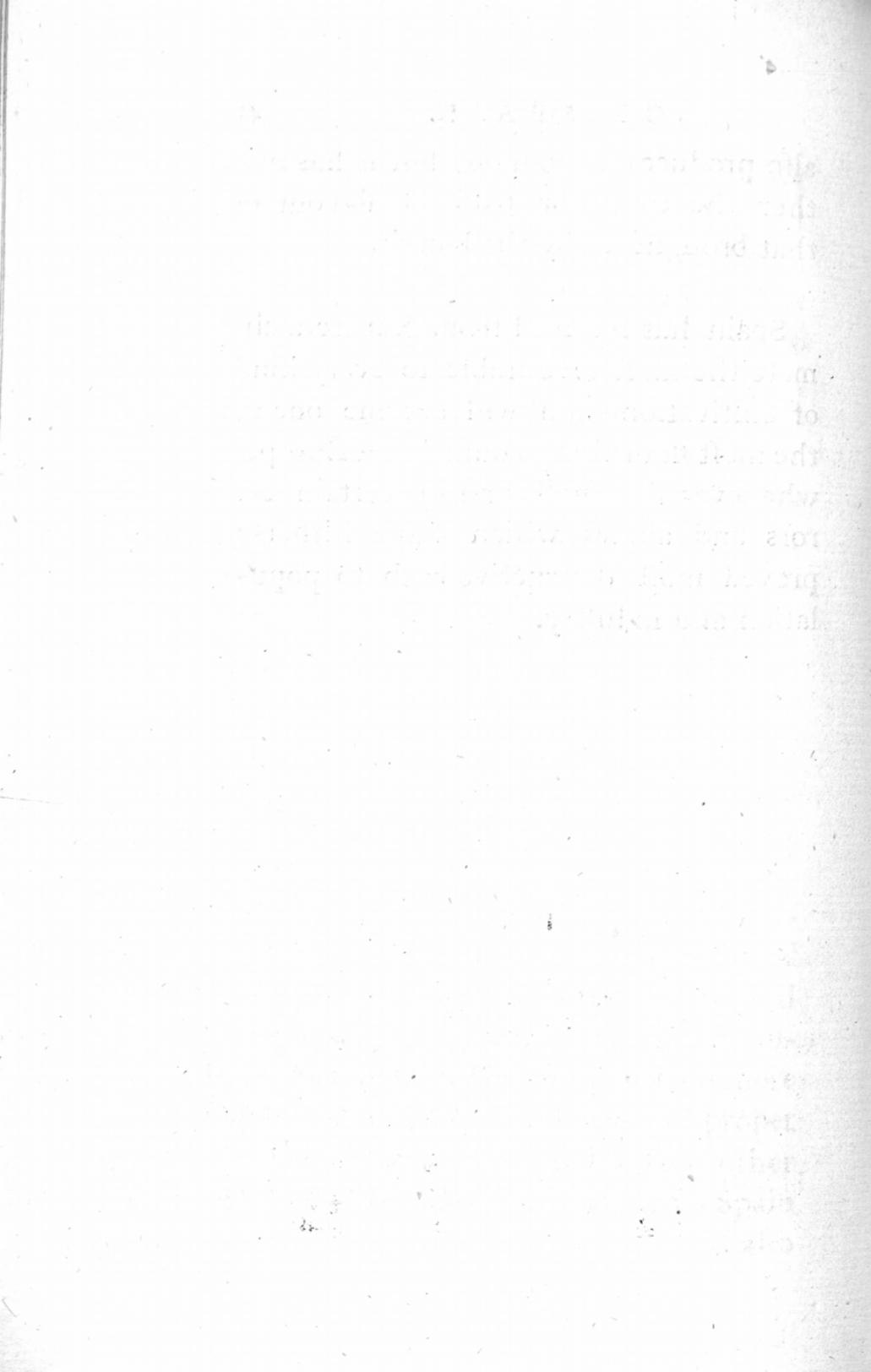
The Spaniards esteem the saffron which grows in La Mancha to be the best in Europe. All the provinces of Spain produce more or less hemp and flax: but there are districts more favourable to them than others; as Murcia to flax, and Arragon to hemp.

The cotton plant is not uncommon in Valencia, and it seems extremely surprising the inhabitants should now neglect it, as it was formerly cultivated there with great success.

Along the coast from Malaga to Gibraltar there are upwards of twelve manufactories of sugar: the little village of Motril contains four, which have existed from time immemorial, and, according to tradition, Spain is indebted to the Moors for the sugar-cane, and the manner of preparing it. This cultivation might in that kingdom be more extensive; the same districts are proper for the ananas also, and many other plants and fruit trees of America. Spain  
also

also produces cinnamon, but it has neither the taste nor balsamic flavour of that brought us by the Dutch.

Spain has received from Nature a climate the most favourable to every kind of cultivation, and will become one of the most flourishing countries of Europe, whenever she shall remedy certain errors and abuses which have hitherto proved most destructive both to population and industry.



## A P P E N D I X.

*Instructions for the Office of the Holy Inquisition, given at Toledo in 1561, and in which those of the Year 1484 are included\*.*

**W**E Don Ferdinand de Valdès, by the divine mercy, archbishop of Seville, apostolical inquisitor general for the extirpation of heretical perversity and apostacy throughout all the kingdoms and territories of his catholic majesty, &c.

By these presents notify to you the reverend apostolical inquisitors against heretical perversity and apostacy in all

\* This paper must appear the more valuable and curious, as copies of these instructions for the holy office were become exceedingly scarce, and thus the darkness which surrounded that dreadful tribunal became increased, on which account it would gladly have prevented the reprinting of them.—See Vol. I. page 344.

the said kingdoms, territories and domains, that we are informed, although it be provided and established by the instructions of the holy office of inquisition, that the same proceedings should be observed in all the inquisitions, there are some in which they are not so properly observed as they ought to be; and in order to provide that in future there may be no difference between them in this respect, after repeated discussions and conferences in the council of the inquisition general, it has been determined that the following orders shall be observed in all the inquisitions.

## I.

*Examination of the charge.*

When the inquisitors shall assemble to examine the evidence resulting from a visit, or from any other means whatsoever, if there be found persons sufficiently convicted of a crime of which the holy office has cognizance\*, learned and con-

\* The translator has not confined himself to a literal exactness; he has avoided repetitions, and contracted

scientific theologifts, and fuch as are provided with the requifite qualifications, fhall be confulted thereupon, and fhall give their advice in writing, figned with their names.

## II.

### *Information or impeachment.*

The inquisitors having been fatisfied by the decision of the theologifts, that the matter relates to the faith, that the ceremonies in ufe among the Jews or the Moors are in queftion, or herefy, or manifelt and incontestible adherence to herefy, the fifcal fhall impeach the perfon or perfons in queftion, requiring that they may be arrefted on the presen-

the diffufe ftyle of thefe instructions. *Note of the French translation from the Spanifh.*

The kieg, by a mandate published in 1770, ordered the inquisitor general to recommend to the inquisitors to confine themfelves to the cognizance of the crimes of herefy and apoftacy, without difhonouring the fubjects by imprifonment before they had previously obtained againft them the moft evident proofs. *Note of the Spanifh editor.*

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tation of the depositions, and the opinion which declares their crime.

### III.

#### *Decree of imprisonment.*

The inquisitors, after having together seen the information, if they be both present, shall order imprisonment. It seems that this decree would be more authentic were it concerted with the counsellors of the inquisition, were there no inconvenience in doing it, and that the inquisitors thought it necessary and proper; and that whatever these shall agree should form a record in the process.

### IV.

*A person against whom there are not sufficient depositions shall neither be summoned nor examined.*

In case the depositions against any person charged with the crime of heresy shall not be sufficient to justify his imprisonment, no other rigorous measures shall be taken against him; these would  
only