I cannot help doing justice to this officer of whom so unfavourable an opinion was entertained by his contemporaries. Among other talents, he particularly possessed the art of rendering every circumstance and every passion subservient to his designs. His despotism was dreaded. The expression of one of his wishes was equivalent to a command; and by his insinuating manners, he prevailed on such of the inhabitants of Cadiz as were least attached to him, to devote their time, their carts, waggons, and horses to works undertaken, as he pretended, for the public benefit, but which were sometimes nothing but the offspring of his caprice.

Cadiz is farther indebted to him for the repair of the road leading to the island of Leon. This work he committed to the superintendance of M. du Bournial, a French engineer, whom he had invited from France, in order to employ him in his military school at Port St. Mary. This road, which, on leaving Cadiz, is a full 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 bold hand of man across the abysses of ocean. Du Bournial raised this road, made it shorter and more solid, and thus entitled himself to the gratitude of the inhabitants of Cadiz.

O'Reilly proposed to employ him in the execution of a plan, if not of greater magnitude, at least more ostentatious. It is well known that Cadiz is totally destitute of fresh water. The deficiency is very imperfectly supplied by wells, the water of which is brackish and unwholesome, and into which runs the rain-water that falls in the inner courts of the houses. The rest of this water is collected on the *azoteas*. These are flat roofs in the form of a terrace, with which almost all the houses of Cadiz are furnished, or we may even say adorned, and which serve the double purpose of a walk and observatory for the inhabitants, who are extremely solicitous to discover at a distance the fond object of their anxious hopes.

From these azoteas the rain-water is conducted by pipes to the cistern which occupies the open space in the interior of the house, and is thence drawn into another reservoir in one corner of the court; for the identity of wants, arising from local circumstances, has produced in this city a perfect uniformity in the figure and arrangement of almost all its buildings.

Such, then, are the only resources of the inhabitants of Cadiz, for procuring the supply of water necessary for domestic uses. With respect to that for drinking, they are obliged

to bring it from the springs of Port St. Mary, and in dry seasons, the quantity is not sufficient for their wants, though they pay, one year with another, ninety-six thousand piastres for this precarious supply—a serious inconvenience for such a populous city, for a port frequented by so many merchantmen and ships of war. In order to obviate it, O'Reilly had formed a plan for bringing fresh water to Cadiz from the heights of Medina Sidonia, a distance of eleven leagues. He had already calculated with du Bournial, the engineer, that the expence of the intended canal would not exceed two millions of piastres; and in August, 1785, he had received subscriptions to the amount of more than half that sum. Du Bournial 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, and the bed of which would, in a great measure, have been rendered useful for this new project.

This splendid design met, at the same time, with great opposition. The work was nevertheless begun, but not more than half a league was completed. A stop was put to it by the disgrace of O'Reilly, and the inhabitants are still obliged to procure their water from Port St. Mary.

To make amends, however, another project not less brilliant, and still more useful, has recently been carried into complete execution. I allude to the work designed to protect from the impetuosity of the sea, that part of Cadiz extending from Fort Sebastian to the Matadero. It was doubtless the force of the waves which in ancient times washed away a great part of the island on which that city is built. In the seventeenth century they carried away large portions of houses, and occasioned the formation of a design which is, at length accomplished. At the beginning of the last century a kind of rampart was raised in the form of a dyke to restrain their ravages; but in time this dyke was so undermined, that in tempestuous weather and high tides, this part of Cadiz was exposed to very imminent danger. Every year it was necessary to repair the devastations caused by the billows, and it was not the interest of the engineers engaged in these repairs to cut off this source of lucrative employment. Towards the end of the reign of Charles III. the government at length began to think of securing the city of Cadiz, in a durable manner, from the danger with which it was threatened. Out of several plans, the preference was given in 1786, to that of the engineer of the navy, Don Thomas Muñoz, a distinguished officer, who deserves a place among men of

genius and the benefactors of their country. His plan consisted in forming, along the walls, a kind of solid beach, sloping towards the sea, against which the waves would expend their first fury, and then subside without violence at the foot of this rampart. Enormous piles were first driven in front to break their force. Behind these begins the artificial beach. It rests upon large coffers, which it was found extremely difficult to fix upon the spot, and which were filled with a kind of stone that grows hard in water. This undertaking was begun in 1788, and finished in three years, though the works could only be continued during the ebb-tides, from the beginning of May to the end of September. The benefit derived from it is sensibly felt. The waves either no longer reach the summit of the wall, or approach it in the gentlest manner; whereas formerly they broke over it with such violence as to shake and inundate the neighbouring houses, and even sometimes to advance beyond the cathedral. The work is said to have cost fourteen millions of piastres; but the Spanish government could not have expended the money more usefully, or in a manner more honourable to itself.*

The sea on the contrary side to that which

* We learn with regret, that the works at the port of Cadiz have not proved so durable as was hoped. In 1801, the embankment of Don Thomas Muñoz sustained considerable damage from the violence of the waves.

was thus threatened, has receded in the same proportion as that to the south has advanced; so that certain parts of the beach over which ships formerly sailed, are now nearly dry.

The bay of Cadiz is of such extent, that places are assigned to the different vessels according to their destination. Facing the city but 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 Puerto Real, and on its banks are the magazines, arsenals and dock-yards for merchant vessels. The entrance of the Trocadero is defended by two forts, the one, called Matagordo, situated on the continent, the other, Fort Louis, erected by Duguay Trouin, upon an islet which is left dry at low water. The line of fire of these two forts is crossed by that of one of the *Puntales* on the opposite shore. All vessels are therefore obliged to sail within reach of these batteries to pass from the great bay into that of the Puntales or Puntal, 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 and distinguished by the appellation of La Carraca. All access to this place is strictly forbidden by government to the inquisitive stranger, who is informed by the naval commandant, that he cannot be gratified with a sight of it, unless by the express command of the king. There are means, however, of accomplishing this object without it. You must go to the Island of Leon, a town nearly quite new, having been built only about the middle of the last century; and which in that short interval has grown to a prodigious size. In 1790 it contained forty thousand communicants, a *datum* from which an accurate calculation may be formed of the population of any town in Spain. Its principal street is a full quarter of a league in length, and makes a handsome appearance, though its houses are uniformly decorated and surcharged with ornaments in a bad style. The Island of Leon bears, in other respects, but little resemblance to the rest of the towns of Spain. It has an air of cleanliness and opulence, a market abundantly supplied, and a spacious and regular public square. The college of the marines has been removed from Cadiz to the Island of Leon, till the completion of the new edifice erecting for them in the new village of San Carlos, contiguous to La Carraca, where it is intended to comprise in

one building all that belongs to a complete establishment for military marine.

The Island of Leon is separated from La Carraca, by a basin nine hundred feet long and six hundred broad, from which are cut two canals, the one running to La Carraca, and the other to the sea.

From this town it is a short quarter of a league to the channel, which you must cross to go to La Carraca. You are admitted without much difficulty if you are accompanied by some privileged conductor, and are shewn all that the arsenals contain. The spectator cannot forbear admiring in particular the habitation of the galley-slaves and the rope-walk, which is six hundred paces in length and has as good an appearance as that of Brest. Those who have compared the cordage and cables of the principal dock-yards in Europe, assert that, in this particular, the Spanish navy is not inferior to any; that its cordage is better made and more durable, because in heckling the hemp, all the knotty parts are picked out and made use of in caulking, which produces the two-fold advantage of stronger cordage and the better caulking of vessels. It is not long since the Spaniards imported almost all their hemp from the north, but they will soon be able to dispense with these foreign supplies.

The kingdom of Grenada, has, for several years furnished them with great part of the hemp required for home consumption. They likewise receive some from Arragon and Navarre; and a few cargoes still continue to be imported from Riga.

The arsenals contain a great quantity of sheets of copper; but they are all brought either from Sweden or Trieste. The Spaniards are not yet sufficiently acquainted with the art of refining and preparing copper, to use that of Mexico for sheathing their ships; a practice which they began to adopt at the commencement of the American war. A few years since, however, the government ordered a flatting mill to be erected at Ferrol, which is very actively employed under the superintendence of Don Eugenio Izquierdo. Still more recently, a hammer for the preparation of sheathing, has been set up at Puerto Real, and another at Algesiras.

The reader will perhaps be surprised, that so useful an invention should not have been long ago adopted in a country which possesses a navy, manufactures of every kind, and at least the rudiments of all the arts. The reason is, because in Spain, the progress of almost every thing is yet extremely slow; because the most advantageous improvements, being almost always but feebly patronized, are frequently opposed

with all the obstinacy of prejudice, and all the acrimony of envy; because the government itself finds its power circumscribed by the passions of those by whom its confidence is usurped and betrayed.

In spite of these obstacles, however, modern times have exhibited more than one instance of brilliant success, resulting from the perseverance of the authors of inventions, and the despotic power of necessity. A proof of this is exhibited in the work of Don Thomas Muñoz at Cadiz; and a second example is to be seen in the same port. Twenty or thirty years ago, ships of war could neither be built nor refitted at that place, and in order to careen them, it was necessary to lay them upon hulks. M. de Valdez, at that time sub-inspector of La Carraca, prevailed upon government to adopt the plan of forming a dock there; and after his promotion to the administration of the naval department, he successfully exerted himself to carry this project into execution. From the nature of the ground it would have been deemed impracticable: it is a kind of clay, which soon sinks in, and seems to partake of the instability of the element with which it is surrounded and saturated. It was in the most elevated part that a beginning was made to dig the first dock in the month of August 1785. I saw the labourers driving in the forest of

piles, on which was afterwards laid a bed of stone, to give the bason a solidity against which every circumstance seemed to conspire. The engineers who directed the work scarcely durst venture to promise success. New obstacles were continually arising; but skill and perseverance at length triumphed over every difficulty. In the year 1787, instead of one there were two docks at La Carraca, for the building of sixty-four gun ships. At present there are three, two of which are actively employed; and a fourth is constructing at the Trocadero.

We must not forget to mention that Cadiz contains a school of navigation, a naval academy, and a commodious observatory provided with excellent instruments. It was for a considerable time under the direction of Don Vicente Tofiño, who has not been dead long, and who there observed the transit of Venus over the sun's disk in 1769.

It would therefore be difficult to find in any country in Europe a more complete establishment for a military navy than that of Cadiz.

CHAP. VII.

Commerce of Cadiz—Treatment of the French at that Port—Privileges enjoyed by Foreigners—New Tarif—Smuggling.

But what chiefly confers importance on Cadiz, and assimilates it with the largest cities in the world, is its prodigious commerce. In 1795 it contained more than one hundred and ten proprietors of ships, and about six hundred and seventy commercial houses, exclusive of retail dealers and shopkeepers, and of the French who had been obliged by the war to leave that place. An idea may be formed of the extent of its commerce from the number of vessels of all descriptions which enter its port. In 1776 it amounted to nine hundred and forty nine, of which two hundred and sixty five were French.

The war which soon afterwards broke out, relaxed for some time the activity of our intercourse with Cadiz; but on the return of peace, it appeared to have rather increased than diminished. Formerly no French ship arrived at Cadiz from any port of Europe to the northward of Calais. Of late years we have

made ourselves somewhat more familiar with the seas of the north; so that many of our vessels have been dispatched from that port to Hamburgh and Amsterdam, and afterwards freighted again for Cadiz.

The extent of the intercourse of this port with the rest of Europe in 1791 may be collected from the following particulars. The number of ships which entered it was one thousand and ten. Of these one hundred and eighty were English; one hundred and seventy six from the Spanish dominions in America; one hundred and sixty two from the Spanish dominions in Europe; one hundred and sixteen French; one hundred and four Portuguese; ninety from the United States; eighty Dutch; forty-one Danish; twenty-five Swedish; twenty-two Ragusan; six Genoese; two Venetian; one Hamburgher; one Russian; one Imperial; and one Spanish ship from Manilla.

The one hundred and seventy seven Spanish ships from the colonies, including that from Manilla brought gold and silver, coined, wrought and in bullion, to the amount of 25,788,175 piastres.

Cadiz had at that time an extensive direct commerce with the Spanish Indies. In the course of the same year, 1791, thirty five vessels sailed from that port for the Windward

Islands; twenty for La Vera Cruz; sixteen for Monte Video; seven for Lima; eight for Honduras; five for Carthagena; making a total of one hundred and five.

The ports of France which have commercial connections with Cadiz are, Marseilles, Havre, Rouen, Morlaix, St. Malo, Bayonne, Bordeaux, Nantes, and St. Valery. I have named them in succession, according to the extent of their intercourse with that port. Prior to the French revolution, which has produced more than one alteration in the commercial relations between France and Spain, Marseilles annually sent thither commodities to the amount of nearly twelve million of livres (half a million sterling) principally consisting of silks and gilding: the greatest part of the cargoes from Havre and Rouen were composed of woollens; and those from Morlaix and St. Malo of linens, which were likewise a principal article in the few shipments from Nantes. Bordeaux and Bayonne sent scarcely any thing but flour and bacon, and the woollens of Amiens were the chief contributions of St. Valery.

The foreign nations who have the greatest number of houses established at Cadiz, are the Irish, the Flemings, the Genoese, and the Germans. The latter are chiefly Hamburghers, who are peculiarly favoured by their very ancient

treaties with Spain, and who, quiet in appearance, but bold and persevering in reality, engage in every branch of commerce. They make, however, a good use of their profits. They form a kind of association, and have established a fund for the relief of their indigent countrymen.

Of all the commercial nations the English and French have the fewest houses at 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 the real, or at least the acknowledged capital of each. Among these houses were some of the first importance, the members of which might consider Cadiz, as their second country; but who, so far from forgetting their native land, doubly enriched it by promoting the sale of its productions, and afterwards returning thither with the fruits of their profitable speculations: a valuable kind of colonists, who cannot be bound by too many ties to the mother country, but who seem of late years to be rather discouraged, as well by the treatment they have experienced, and the traces of which the treaty of 1795 has not yet effaced, as by the competition of the native merchants, whose eyes are daily more and more opened to their true interests, and who have at length resolved to follow the sue-

cessful examples which have been too long set them by foreigners.*

Besides these great French mercantile houses, there were at Cadiz 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 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.

All the French settled at Cadiz, as well as in other parts of Spain, felt the indignation which our revolution, at its very commencement, ex-

* This same treaty, that of Basle, seems in some measure to have cut off that source of prosperity for the French mercantile houses, which, however, was an inexhaustible subject of disputes between the two governments; since it stipulates, in Art. XI. That all French merchants are at liberty to resume their commercial establishments in Spain, and to form new ones if they think fit, *provided they submit, like all other individuals, to the laws and customs of the country*: a clause which seems incompatible with the continuation of the French national privileges, of which we were so tenacious, and which rendered a residence at Cadiz so profitable to mercantile men. Accordingly, there are at the present time not more than four or five French houses established in that city.

cited at the court of Madrid. In the month of July 1791, it enjoined all foreigners, without expressly mentioning the French, to take an oath of exclusive allegiance to the sovereign of the country, which amounted to the same thing as a renunciation of their country. The formula of this oath required them to abjure all the privileges of foreigners, "all relation and union with and dependence on the country in which they were born, upon pain of the galleys, absolute expulsion from the kingdoms of Spain, and confiscation of property, according to the condition of the persons, and the nature of the offence." This related to foreigners considered as domiciliated in Spain. With respect to those known by the denomination of *transeuntes*, they were enjoined to quit the royal residences, and forbidden to carry on any trade or profession in any part of the kingdom, without a special permission from the court.

There are few examples of the adoption of so rigid a measure by any power of Europe towards civilized nations. It might have been supposed, that the throne of Morocco and its barbarous principles were all at once transported to Madrid. Charles IV. is nevertheless a just and generous monarch; and notwithstanding what people have said on the subject, he is not inimical to the French. But Charles IV. gave

the sanction of his name to the measures of an irascible minister.

The schedule of this oath produced warm remonstrances from all quarters. Most foreigners, and in particular the English (who were then favoured, or rather feared, whereas we had not yet begun to appear formidable) easily obtained exceptions, or a favourable interpretation of the ordinance. Government was severe only with the real enemies, against whom it was directed. Its execution, however, was attended with so many difficulties, that various modifications were made, even in favour of the French. Many were sufferers by its operation. Some shrunk from the fury of the storm; but the majority hesitated not between their interest and their country, and France hailed the return of a considerable number of these respectable refugees to her maternal bosom. The French who remained in Spain, either because they were considered as *transeuntes,* or because they actually belonged to that class, were subjected to a more rigorous superintendence than ever. The government suffered treaties to be violated to their prejudice with impunity; perhaps encouraged these infractions, and was guilty of others itself. The French were abridged of most of their privileges. In many places, especially at Cadiz, their meetings were suspended; they were afterwards permitted again, but on condi-

tion that they should be held in the presence of the governor of the place. This amounted to a prohibition under a new form. In this precarious situation the French merchants lived in Spain, when the progress of the revolution began to alarm the neighbouring states. The throne was overturned, and the republic proclaimed. The horizon of Europe became more and more overcast, and the storm of war already began to burst over Spain. The Count d'Aranda, who was then prime minister, made some dignified, perhaps we ought to say haughty efforts to dispel it. His youthful successor, without professing the same principles, manifested, from the very commencement of his administration, pacific dispositions. In a few weeks I obtained a proof of their sincerity. An engagement of mutual neutrality was drawn up and reciprocally agreed to. It was on the point of being signed, when, in spite of the intercession of the court of Madrid, the blood of one who could not but be dear to it, was shed upon the scaffold. All negociation was now at an end. I departed, without taking leave; but before I set off, I recommended those French whom I left behind me in Spain, if not to the favour at least to the justice of the Spanish monarch, and I received a most satisfactory answer.

Little could I have supposed that as soon as I had crossed the Pyrenees, my countrymen

would be exposed to one of the most violent persecutions that national animosity ever engendered. It is well known that, even before the war broke out, they received orders to evacuate Spain without delay; that they were not allowed time to settle their affairs; that many of them were not permitted to take away their effects; that all their property, moveable and immoveable, and warehouses, were sequestrated; and that for several weeks the ports of Spain were crowded, and its roads covered, with proscribed Frenchmen, persecuted by orders which a sovereign, otherwise equitable and humane, was prevailed upon to issue.

By the title of *Junta de Represalias,* a council was appointed for the sole purpose of taking cognizance of every thing relative to the sequestration of the property of the expelled Frenchmen, and the indemnities claimed out of that property by subjects of the king of Spain. In the ordinance by which this council was constituted, in order to palliate at least the singularity of its object, an allusion was made to the practice which had been several times adopted during the past century on similar occasions. But let us draw a veil over the temporary injustice of misguided anger and fanaticism. I will not say that it was expiated by defeat, but shall merely observe, that the return of sincere harmony ought to cause it to be forgotten. Now

that Spain is acquainted with her true interests, and her necessary friends, she will not merely restore to the latter the property of which they were despoiled. Let us hope, that without waiting till a treaty of commerce, so frequently demanded, so long expected, and recently promised by our last treaty of alliance, shall at length be concluded, the French will be treated in that country, not with the jealousy and malevolence of a rival, but with the respect due to a close ally, and that they will be again put into the peaceful possession of their former privileges. The reader may perhaps inquire: And what were those privileges?

They are ancient and formal; they were confirmed and extended by the famous family compact, which, by means of our revolution, we have converted into a national compact. They have nevertheless, (be it remarked without irritation, if possible,) been scandalously infringed in almost every circumstance.

For the rest, the majority of them have not been granted exclusively to the French. They originated so far back as the period when the indolence of Spain laid her under the necessity of inviting foreigners to assist her with their capitals and their industry, and attaching them to her ports by treaties which were at that time reciprocally favourable, but which she finds

burdensome, since she has begun to awake from her lethargy.

The most ancient of these treaties is that concluded with the Hanse towns in 1647. It served as a model for those which she has subsequently entered into with the English, the Dutch, and the French. They grant to the merchants of those respective nations, the liberty of establishing commercial houses in the ports of Spain; of residing there under the protection of their consuls, in a kind of independence on the sovereign; of forming a national association; of erecting a particular tribunal for the decision of disputes relative to commerce, &c.

To these privileges the family compact, concluded at a period when the monarchs of France and Spain, without ever having seen each other, felt themselves animated by a strong reciprocal attachment, and when, above all, political motives urged them to a still closer connection of their interests—the family compact, I say, added some, which were granted exclusively to the French. It stipulated, among other conditions, that the French and Spaniards should not only be treated by each other as the most favoured nations, but likewise that the subjects of each of the two monarchs, should in the territory of the other be upon the same footing with his own subjects, in respect to

the duties on importation and exportation, should enjoy the same facilities to trade, &c. &c.

In practice, however, these privileges, common to most foreigners, were often infringed; but even before the revolution, they were not more frequently violated in regard to any other nation than the French, because in general the latter have more, than any other foreigners, of that kind of industry which irritates, and of that kind of success which excites jealousy; because Spain, since her attention has been turned to the revival of her manufactures, looks upon them as formidable rivals; because the French possess an irresistible predilection and uncommon aptitude for smuggling, the everlasting bugbear of the exchequer; because, finally, governments, like individuals, often vent their spleen upon their best friends, while their civilities are reserved for indifferent powers whom they dread, or to whom they think it their interest to shew indulgence.

Thus, while English ships, which, according to the terms of the treaties, ought to be searched on their arrival in Spanish ports, often eluded this formality, or escaped with a slight inspection, it was rigorously enforced in our vessels; and it was often repeated at their expense, on the slightest suspicion of their having contraband goods on board.

Thus, though, according to the same treaties, this search was only to take place in the presence of the consul of our nation, the ships were often inspected before his arrival, and sometimes even before he had been sent for.

Thus, though the family compact expressly stipulates, that with respect to the facilities of carrying on trade, the French shall be upon the same footing with the Spaniards, it has been almost invariably appealed to without success, when the captains of our merchantmen have attempted to sail with cargoes of wine or corn from one port of Spain to another. Certain conventions posterior to this compact, intended to elucidate its obscure passages, have given occasion for new cavils. Of these the smuggling of piastres in particular proved a fertile source. From an ambiguous passage in the convention of 1774, it was argued, that such of our captains of ships as were detected in exporting contraband piastres ought to be treated like natives convicted of the same fraud; that is to say, not only the piastres should be seized, but the ship with the rest of her cargo should be confiscated, and the captain imprisoned: so that, in the rigorous application only of these conventions, were we assimilated with the Spaniards.

The two governments were, at length, sensible of the necessity of elucidating some of the

stipulations relative to our commerce; and on the 24th of December 1786, they entered into a new convention, in which every thing relative to smuggling is clearly expressed, and which, in all cases, limits the confiscation to the contraband articles alone.

As this convention relates only to cases of contraband, the search of ships, and some other objects of inferior importance, there is still reason to wish for the speedy conclusion of a treaty of commerce, which may be one of the principal elements of our future prosperity.

This treaty is so much the more necessary, as, during the last thirty years, the Spanish government, either with a view to increase the revenue, or to encourage the native commerce and industry, has made some violent attacks upon ours. Of these it may not be amiss to enumerate the principal.

In the first place, as early as the reign of Philip V. our privileges were refused to a great number of Frenchmen, under the pretext that they were not mere visitors, *transeuntes*, but that they were to be considered as domiciliated, and consequently treated as Spanish subjects. An ordinance was even issued in 1720, circumscribing by all sorts of restrictions the quality of *transeuntes*, the only one that Spain, weary of the privileges granted to foreigners, was now determined to admit. Numerous remon-

strances, arbitrary and often contradictory decisions, and uncertainty in the existence of most foreigners were the results of this ambiguity.

In 1779, in consequence of the remonstrances of several corporations, animated with the laudable desire of reviving the national industry and banishing indolence and poverty from their country, government renewed, to the great injury of our manufactures at Lyons, an obsolete ordinance issued in the reign of Philip IV. prohibiting the importation of all *manufactured goods:* a vague expression to which the officers of the customs soon gave a most vexatious latitude. In 1782, upon the pretext of consulting the prosperity of the native manufactures, and those of silk in particular, Spain composed a new tarif *(arancel)* which raised considerably the duties on most of the luxuries of French manufacture, and decreed the absolute prohibition of a great number. This tarif and these prohibitions were so loosely worded, as to leave a prodigious range for the malevolent caprice of the officers of the customs. Hence the risks that were incurred by our manufacturers who sent, and of our merchants resident in Spain who ordered goods, which, on their arrival at the Spanish custom-houses, were either detained till the procrastinated decisions of government should be known, or were sent back as comprehended in the prohibition.

Hence the failure of so many speculations, and numberless remonstrances, to whose authors the Spanish government scarcely ever did justice.

A few comparisons between the old tarif of 1770 and that of 1782, will be sufficient to shew the enormous increase in the duties established by the latter.

On ribbons, whether plain, striped, or flowered, there was a duty of 240 maravedis per pound,* which was raised to 1530. Gauzes with gold flowers paid 48 maravedis per *vara*, and those with silver flowers 102. The tarif of 1782 fixed the lowest duty on those articles at 153, and raised it on some to 612 maravedis.

Different kinds of stuffs, bordered with spangles, which cost at Lyons about 30 livres tournois per *vara*, were subjected by the same tarif to a duty of 96 reals, or 24 livres. Was not this tantamount to a prohibition, or rather an encouragement to the fraudulent importation of these articles?

I could mention twenty such like examples of malevolence, or fiscal rapacity.

Spain, however, did not even stop here. She seemed to have rather conspired to crush our manufactures, than to have afforded encouragement to her own. In consequence of a particular arrangement concluded in 1698 with

* Thirty-four maravedis, make a real which is equal to about 2½d. English.

Eminente, who then farmed the customs at Cadiz, we paid but a moderate duty for our linens of Bretagne, which enabled them to maintain a competition with those of Silesia, inferior in quality, but likewise cheaper than ours, and of course more tempting to the consumer. The result was, that some of our linens paid only five parts and a quarter of their value, while the Silesian linens of the same quality paid from ten to twelve. We continued in the unmolested enjoyment of this indulgence, precarious enough it is true, since we had neglected to convert it into a right, by requiring its insertion in our different treaties with Spain. It could not have been supposed that, at the conclusion of a war, which was carried on in conjunction with her, and which ought to have attached us more closely to each other, she would have deprived us, as she did in 1783, of a favour which encouraged one of the principal branches of our industry, and have put our linens on a level with those of all other foreign countries. Against this innovation, several remonstrances were made at different times, but always without effect.

In other respects, the tarif of 1782 has so raised the duties on all foreign merchandize, and so many fresh ones have been imposed, that some of these articles pay 80 and even 90 per cent. of their value before they reach the interior of Spain, and none less than 30. Since the peace of Basle, some modifications

have been made in this excessive increase of the duties; but much yet remains to be done. The tarif of 1782, especially with the additions made to it in 1802, is incompatible with the easy circulation of the productions of French industry, upon which the regulations posterior to this tarif bear particularly hard.

It was forbidden, in the first place, to ship for America any woollen cloths of foreign manufacture, as if those made in Spain had been adequate to the demand. The inconvenience of this prohibition was soon felt. It was altered in such a manner that each cargo of cloth exported to America might contain one third of foreign manufacture. This regulation was still insufficient; it was often eluded, from interest or necessity, and consequently proved a fertile source of fraud and chicanery.

In 1789 Spain likewise excluded all foreign stockings and ribbons without exception from the trade with the Indies. The same year of too tardy reflection produced an exception in favour of thread stockings, provided they constituted no more than half of the cargoes of that article shipped for India; a restriction which rendered the exception nearly nugatory.

The manufactures of foreign hats have likewise suffered considerably of late years from the prohibitory system of Spain. She has absolutely forbidden the sale of them at Madrid, and excluded all except beaver hats from the trade with Spanish America. Those which are

imported into the rest of the monarchy are subjected to exorbitant duties, beaver hats being charged 21 reals, and all others 14. Finally, silk-stockings have been one of the principal objects of these prohibitions. All white ones have been excluded from the colonies, and even from the mother country; but it is well known that the manufacturers of Catalonia find it to their interest to facilitate the importation of French stockings into Spain, by affixing to them the marks of their manufacture.

For a considerable time the manufactures of Languedoc, and those of Nîmes in particular, were permitted to furnish stockings for the ladies of Peru. They had frames made expressly for this purpose, in which they manufactured stockings with large, coloured clocks; but the Spaniards took it into their heads that they could supply the Peruvian females with articles adapted to their taste. They set up frames for making this kind of stockings; they first flattered themselves that they could rival, and soon afterwards entirely supplant, the French manufacturers; and the government all at once decreed the exclusion of the stockings of the latter from the market of Peru. The manufacturers of Nîmes of course found themselves overstocked with a commodity which had no sale but in Peru, and prodigious quantities which they had forwarded to Cadiz were returned upon their hands. In vain they in 1792 appealed to the principles of good faith, and

stated the prodigious loss with which they were threatened. Their remonstrances shared the ill-will with which the French began to be treated; and when the rupture broke out, between two and three hundred thousand dozen of these stockings were sequestrated in the magazines of the custom-house of Cadiz.

It is worthy of the equity of the Spanish government, it is consonant with the good understanding which has been more firmly established than ever between the two nations, to abstain in future from prohibitory regulations, which, taking at unawares those included in their operation, are liable to involve them in ruin. Governments possess the undoubted right of adopting such measures as they think proper, in order to encourage their commerce and manufactures; but if they are wise they will refrain from these surprizes, which bear the stamp of perfidy, and which infallibly tend to alienate the confidence of commercial nations, and to encourage and even excuse smuggling.

Smuggling, a word which is alone sufficient to make the Spanish government shudder, has not a more brilliant theatre than the port of Cadiz. It cannot fail to be naturalized wherever prohibitions are numerous, and the temptations to infringe them frequent and highly alluring; wherever the profits which it affords are considerable enough to be shared with those, who, being but indifferently paid to prevent, find it much more to their interest to connive at these