

impetuous attack on the right wing, to cut off the British army from the point of embarkation. Aware of their design, general Moore took the necessary precaution to draw up his army under the walls of Corunna. In the forenoon of the next day, the duke of Dalmatia reconnoitred the English army, and on the 16th of January, about 2, P. M., he gave orders for the attack, which was made with the most tremendous impetuosity. The British troops stood like a wall, and with calm intrepidity received and repulsed the repeated attacks of the enemy. A vigorous charge with the bayonet decided the affair, and compelled the enemy to retreat to the heights. In the beginning of the action, sir David Baird, an officer justly distinguished by his bravery and eminent services in the cause of his country, received a wound in the arm, which rendered instant amputation necessary. Some time after, general sir John Moore was wounded by a shot in the shoulder, of which he died before midnight. He fell in the flower of his age, but he fell crowned with laurels. Like Wolfe, Abercrombie, and Nelson, he expired in the arms of victory; and like theirs, his name and memory will ever be dear to his country. Several other officers of distinguished rank and merit fell on that memorable day. In this unfortunate expedition, the British army lost all its ammunition and magazines, and five or six thousand men. Even a large portion of the military chest, to the amount of a hundred and twenty thousand dollars, was thrown from a precipice that it might not fall into the hands of the enemy. The action ended about five in the evening. After general Moore had received the wound of which he died, the command of the British troops devolved on general Hope, who completed the victory, and with great ability directed the embarkation, which recommenced about ten o'clock in the evening of the battle, and before the morning of the 18th, was completely effected, with a celerity of which there are few examples. Corunna capitulated soon after the departure of the army, and the French also obtained possession of Ferrol, Bilboa, St. Andero, and all the most important places on the northern coast of Spain. (1)

LETTER VII.

State of Affairs in the North of Europe, A. D. 1808—Russia and Denmark attack Sweden—Extravagant Conduct of King Gustavus IV.—his Dethronement—is succeeded by the Duke of Sudermania, Charles XIII.—The Pope refuses the Dictation of Napoleon, who arrests him and has him conveyed captive to Avignon—Austria takes Advantage of the Peninsular War, and resumes Hostilities against France—Battles of Eckmuhl and Estling—Vienna a second Time occupied by the French—Battle of Wagram—Peace again concluded at Vienna, 14th October, 1809.

It was a fortunate circumstance for the emperor of France, that Russia had remained faithful to the alliance and the engagements of Tilsit. The emperor Alexander was then in a fit of enthusiasm and affection for this powerful and extraordinary mortal, Napoleon, who, before he ventured to lead his forces into Spain, wishing to assure himself that all was secure in the north, had an interview with Alexander, at Erfurth, on the 27th of September, 1808, when the two masters of the west and the north guaranteed the repose and the submission of Europe. Napoleon then marched into Spain, as mentioned in my former letter, and Alexander took upon himself the care of Sweden. Among other arbitrary stipulations of the treaty of Tilsit, it was resolved that the king of Sweden should be compelled to exclude all British vessels from his harbours;—a demand which the Russian minister insisted upon was supported by former compacts among the northern powers, by which they had agreed to a union of strength in defence of the Baltic. The king, however, replied, that these compacts had ceased to be in force, and

(1) Southey's History of the War in the Peninsula. History of the War in the Peninsula, under Napoleon, by General Foy. Recollections in the Peninsula, &c. &c. London Gazette, and Annual Register

he would only promise to prevent the British court from sending ships of war into that sea.

It was not, however, merely the subserviency of Alexander to the views of his new ally by which his Swedish majesty was aggrieved, but also his desire of adding the whole province of Finland to his immense empire; and this prompted him to order an invasion of his Swedish territories. For the defence of Finland against this powerful enemy, Gustavus sent an army of ten thousand men into the field, with six thousand more to garrison Sweaborg, the Gibraltar of the north. Two of the frontier posts were not tamely yielded even to the great superiority of the assailing force. The Russians endeavoured to prevent the northern troops from joining those of the south; but the valour of the Swedes so far prevailed as to effect the desired union, and to check the advance of the enemy. Resenting keenly the hostile conduct of the Russian emperor, which had not even been preceded by a declaration of war, Gustavus gave orders for the confinement of the Russian minister at his court, as well as the consul, and threatened to banish from Sweden every subject of the Russian emperor. And as he suspected the intentions of the court of Denmark, he demanded from count Moltke, the ambassador, an explanation of the views of his sovereign. The answer was a declaration of war, in which the king's connivance at the attack upon Copenhagen was pointedly censured, and his renewal of alliance with a power which could coolly perpetrate such an act of outrageous injustice was severely condemned. He denied the former charge, though he evidently approved the aggression; and he retorted the accusation of interested subserviency to Great Britain by a reference to the implicit dependence of Denmark upon Russia.

As the danger to which Sweden was exposed would be very inadequately repelled by the unassisted force of that nation, the king addressed a letter to his Britannic majesty, stating that he was attacked on every side because he was the friend of England, and requesting, in addition to the stipulated subsidy of one million two hundred thousand pounds, which by a new treaty he was to receive from this country, for employing his whole army and a part of his fleet, during one year against France or her allies, he might receive speedy and more powerful assistance. A promise of succour was readily given; and it was resolved that ten thousand men should be sent under the command of sir John Moore. The conditions, however, which were annexed to this grant of aid, were not altogether agreeable to the views and wishes of Gustavus. They were to be recalled at pleasure; to have as little connexion as possible with the Swedish army; to be entirely under the command of their own general; and not to advance farther from the coast than would give them the opportunity of communicating with the fleet of Great Britain which conveyed them to the Baltic. But instead of confiding their operations to the defence of Sweden, the king wished to employ them in the conquest of Norway, or in an attack on Copenhagen. Sir John Moore arrived at Gottenburg on the 17th of May, 1808, and immediately proceeded to Stockholm to concert measures of co-operation with the Swedish troops. He there found that the king, though with means very insufficient even for defence, was nevertheless bent on conquest; and refusing to concur in some of his extravagant plans, as being contrary to his instructions, the monarch's resentment was roused against him to such a pitch, that he was obliged to escape in disguise, and brought back his troops without landing them.

The Russians had, in the month of March, taken possession of Abo, the capital of Finland, and declared its annexation to the Russian empire; they now directed all their force by sea and land against the fortress of Sweaborg, and so feeble was the defence which was made of it, that it induced a suspicion of treachery. The naval force in the harbour was included in the capitulation, under the singular condition that it should be restored to Sweden whenever England restored the fleet of Denmark! The Russians also made descents on the islands of Gothland and Aland, and an engagement between the flotillas of the two powers ended in the disadvantage of the Swedes.

peror Napoleon set out on his return to France. Austria had seized the opportunity of his absence and that of his army, and, resolving on one more powerful effort, levied a hundred and fifty thousand men, comprehending the landwehr, and began the campaign in the spring of 1809. The Tyrolese rose in rebellion; king Jerome was expelled by the Westphalians; Italy was wavering, and Prussia waited only a reverse in the fortunes of Napoleon once more to take up arms. But the emperor was still in the vigour of life, and in the spring-tide of his prosperity. In the month of March, orders were issued for the French armies to recross the Rhine. The troops of Austria were at the same time marshalled under the archduke Charles, as commander-in-chief. On the side of Italy, the viceroy, Eugene Beauharnois, collected a numerous army. Early in April, the Austrians passed the Isar near Scharding, on which the king of Bavaria quitted his capital and retired to Augsburg. On the 18th, Napoleon arrived at Ingolstadt, and the campaign commenced. The first considerable action took place at Ebensberg, where the archduke Louis was surprised, and his division of troops dispersed or destroyed. In the mean time, the grand army under the command of the archduke Charles took possession of Ratisbon, making the French garrison prisoners of war. On the 22d of April, the two armies met at Eckmühl. The battle commenced at two in the afternoon, and was long and obstinate; but towards evening the Austrians were driven from their positions in confusion, and the darkness alone rescued them from ruin. The vanquished attempted to take refuge under the walls of Ratisbon, but the city was forced by the French with great slaughter, and the Austrians precipitately retreated to the left bank of the Danube. Napoleon, following the course of the river, advanced rapidly to Vienna, into which capital, on the 10th of May, he once more entered as conqueror, the emperor Francis having previously retired to Moravia. From Vienna Napoleon issued a proclamation inviting the Hungarians to shake off for ever the yoke of the house of Austria; assuring them, that under the sanction of France they might preserve their territory inviolate, and either regain their ancient liberty, or modify it according to their judgment. But, from the auspicious era of the empress Maria Theresa, the policy of Austria respecting Hungary had been entirely changed, and this call upon them produced no effect.

The archduke Charles, having collected his scattered troops, now proceeded by forced marches towards Vienna, hoping to save that capital; but finding that it was already in the possession of the French, he moved down the northern bank of the Danube, and took a position between Vienna and Presburg. In the mean time, the French army proceeded along the southern bank, purposing to cross the river two leagues below Vienna, the stream being there broken by two islands. Having constructed proper bridges, Napoleon fixed his head-quarters on the farther and larger island which was called Lobau, thence by a third bridge communicating with the northern bank. Meeting no interruption, he chose a position for his army, the right wing extending to the village of Esling, the left to Asperna. At daybreak on the 21st of May, the archduke appeared on a rising ground opposite to the enemy, separated only by an extensive plain. A battle ensued, and the contest was obstinate and bloody. Towards evening the French had been driven from Asperna, but still retained possession of Esling. During the engagement the archduke had sent fireships which succeeded in destroying the bridges communicating with the southern bank. On the next day, the conflict was renewed with additional fury. At length the Austrian's left under general Belling, gained the right flank of the enemy, who then retreated towards the Danube; and on the following night recrossed the river to Lobau. The Austrians confessed to the loss of twenty thousand men in these battles of Esling, but they could boast of having captured eight thousand prisoners. The loss of the French in killed and wounded was immense, and among the slain was marshal Lasnes, duke of Montebello, much regretted by his comrades in arms; he had acquired by his heroism the appellation of the Orlando of the French army.

The eyes of all Europe were now fixed on the situation of Napoleon, who, it was generally supposed, was thus reduced to a most perilous plight:—shut up with his main force in an island of the Danube, a victorious army facing him on the opposite bank, and the Austrians masters of the navigation of the river: and in this state, for several weeks, a scene of total and surprising inaction ensued. In other places, however, the contest was far from languishing. At this critical juncture the inhabitants of the Tyrol, who, in courage and loftiness of spirit much resembled the Swiss and Grisons, were roused to action. They had indignantly seen themselves transferred from the government of Austria, which had always respected their privileges, to the despotic dominion of Bavaria. Scarcely had the archduke Charles commenced the campaign, when the Tyrolese rose in arms, under their heroic countryman, Hoffer, who, without having been bred to the profession, displayed wonderful military talents. And though, subsequent to the battle of Eckmühl, the duke of Dantzie (marshal le Febvre) and the Bavarian general Wrede, were sent to reduce the country, and prosecuted a savage warfare with that intent, the Tyrolese persevered with unconquerable valour in its defence; and on the recall of le Febvre, after the battle of Esling, these enraged mountaineers retaliated by destructive inroads into Bavaria.

In the north of Germany, also, a strong disposition to rise in opposition to the tyranny of France at this time manifested itself. Colonel Schill, an officer late in the Prussian service, raised the standard of independence at Luneburg, and was joined by considerable numbers; but he was opposed and overpowered by a far superior force under Jerome Buonaparte. He then retired to Stralsund, in which place he sustained a siege, and lost his life in the defence of it. The duke of Brunswick, too, whose efforts, combined with those of Schill and supported by Great Britain, might have been attended with the happiest results, took up arms when the cause was hopeless, and after some temporary success, found himself compelled towards the end of August to embark on board a British squadron which was cruising at the mouth of the Weser. In Poland, the archduke Ferdinand, being resisted by a very inferior force under prince Poniatowski, nephew to the late king Stanislaus, and whose great qualities made him the object of his country's secret hope and warm attachment, took possession of Warsaw, but was recalled in consequence of the early disasters of the Austrian arms. The Russians, then joining the Poles, occupied nearly the whole of the Austro-Polish provinces; but the emperor Alexander showed no disposition to push the war with vigour. In Italy, where the archduke John commanded, the first operations of the Austrians were also successful, and he captured the cities of Padua and Vicenza; but, subsequent to the battle of Eckmühl, he was also recalled to the defence of Austria. In his retreat, the archduke was closely followed by prince Eugene Beauharnois, who obtained several advantages over him; and on the auspicious anniversary of the battle of Marengo, the two armies coming to a general engagement near Raab in Hungary, the Austrians were totally defeated, and that great bulwark of the kingdom fell into the hands of the enemy.

During the interval of dread repose which succeeded the battle of Esling, all the demonstrations of the French seemed to be pointed against that position, which was, in the expectation of attack, rendered almost impregnable by redoubts and intrenchments. But on the night of the 4th of July, a bridge of vast dimensions was thrown across the river, with almost magical expedition and skill, opposite the left wing of the Austrians stationed at Wagram. Early next morning the whole French army had crossed the river, and appeared in the order of battle. Thus surprised and disconcerted, the archduke Charles spent the day in manœuvring and altering his dispositions. On the 6th of July, at sunrise, the long expected contest commenced. The French in great force attacked the centre of the Austrian army, and broke the first line by the impetuosity of their charge; but the gallant archduke exerted himself at this critical moment with such spirit and address, that the Austrians rallied, and compelled their adversaries to retreat behind a small river. Night put an end to the engagement, and the French, without just preten-

sions, claimed the victory. During the night, the Austrians, by an unnecessary extension of their line, occupied the country from Stammorsdorf to Neusiedel. Their general had formed a scheme of concurrent attack upon both flanks of the enemy, in the hope of cutting off the communication with the Danube; but there was not sufficient time to carry into effect all the arrangements that were necessary for this purpose; and that division which had received orders before the rest could be instructed and prepared, suffered severely by a premature attack upon the right wing of the French army. It had been expected that the archduke John would be able to take part in the action; but it was not prudent to depend upon his opportune arrival. The central body passed through Wagram, and had a long contest for the possession of Aderkla, which was eventually secured by the Austrians, who, forming two lines in its front, drove the French back upon Raschdorf, spreading disorder through that part of the field in which Napoleon was more especially engaged. In the mean time, a part of the Austrian right, which had moved towards Asperna, found that village and a neighbouring wood occupied by the enemy, but a dislodgement was effected with little difficulty, and the French were pursued to their *tête-de-pont* on the banks of the Danube. The deficiency of cavalry prevented a due advantage from being taken of the retrograde movements of the French centre; and the same disparity was highly unfavourable to the Austrian left, which, after being recalled from its attack, could not, even with the aid which it received from the centre, secure itself from being seriously outflanked, or permanently defend Neusiedel against the vigorous assaults of Davoust. The ill success of this corps made an unfavourable impression upon other parts of the Austrian line. The centre, being exposed to a new and formidable attack, gradually retreated; and the right, threatened with the danger of being turned by the columns marching along the river, evacuated the posts which had been recently seized, and concurred in those movements of timidity or of prudence which not only inspired the French with the confident hope of victory, but gave them a right to claim it, though it is but due to Napoleon to add, in this place, that he afterward confessed to his friends at St. Helena, that his victory at Wagram was *less decisive* than any of the others on which he plumed himself.

The Austrians having retreated to Znaim, in Moravia, they were followed by Napoleon, who there received from the emperor Francis a proposal to treat for peace, and an armistice was acceded to, on the surrender of several fortresses. The armistice was continued from time to time till the month of October, when a definitive treaty was concluded between the two powers, and signed at the palace of Schonbrun, the head-quarters of Napoleon. The conditions of the treaty proved much less unfavourable than might have been expected from the forlorn and hopeless condition of Austria, whose armies were now dispersed and all but ruined. To Bavaria, the emperor Francis was obliged to yield the important territory of Salzburg, with other districts in the vicinity. To France were ceded Fiume and Trieste, with the entire line of coast connecting the dominions of France on both sides of the Adriatic. In Poland, the king of Saxony obtained, in addition to the provinces constituting the duchy of Warsaw, the western Galicia, with the city of Cracow. Another portion of Austrian Poland was assigned to Russia, which had derived advantages from the misfortunes of every other nation. The title of Joseph Buonaparte as king of Spain was recognised. The Tyrolese were abandoned to their fate; that heroic people still maintaining an unavailing resistance. At length, overwhelmed rather than vanquished, an end was put to hostilities in that quarter, and the blood-stained triumph of Bavaria was crowned by the barbarous execution of the patriot Hoffer. (1)

(1) London Gazette.—Military Panorama.—Austrian account given in the Supplement to the London Gazette of July 11th, 1809.—Der Krieg der Tyroler Landleute, von J. S. L. Bartholdy.

LETTER VIII.

Review of the Affairs of England, 1809, 1810—Treaty of Alliance between Great Britain and Spain—Parliamentary Proceedings—Charges against the Duke of York—Expedition to the Isle of Walcheren—Dissensions in the British Cabinet—Violent Agitations of Party—Brilliant Exploits of the British Navy—Dispute with the United States.

BEFORE we resume the narrative of the peninsular war, which, from the period at which we are arrived, became a prominent object in the political events of Europe, I must detain you a moment, my dear Philip, while we take a cursory survey of the domestic occurrences of our own country. The British parliament was convened for the despatch of public business on the 19th of January, 1809. The speech from the throne, which was delivered by commission, adverted to an overture for peace which the emperor of France had tendered from Erfurt, in relation to which his majesty expressed his persuasion that the two houses would participate in the feelings expressed in his declaration on the occasion, which should be laid before them. He informed them that his engagements with Spain were now reduced into the form of a treaty of alliance. The peculiar claim of the king of Sweden to his majesty's support was insisted on; and the vigorous prosecution of the war earnestly recommended. Some very animated debates ensued on this occasion in both houses of parliament. The assistance afforded to Sweden; the expedition to Portugal; the convention of Cintra; the disasters of Spain; and the American embargo, which had now been confirmed by a non-intercourse bill passed in the new congress, prohibiting the entrance of the ports of the United States to all vessels belonging to Great Britain or France, or to any of the countries under their influence, and adhering either to the Berlin decree or the British orders in council;—all these topics were brought forward and furnished materials for debate and discussion.

The debates on the affairs of Portugal and Spain took precedence in point of curiosity and interest. The earls of St. Vincent, Grenville, and Moira reprobated the idea of sending an army to Portugal when Spain was at stake. "In Spain," said lord Moira, "must be fought the battle of British independence. The fall of Spain must involve in its train the fall of this country. Had the British government sent out in due time a proper person to concert measures with the Spanish people, and amicably to explain the motives upon which the British nation wished to act towards Spain, the Spaniards would never have refused to accept the aid of troops from England." Lord Grenville asserted that "it was only in the north of Spain, and on the borders of the Pyrenees, that a British force could have acted with effect. After the French had been driven from Madrid, and had retired to the frontiers of Spain, if a British army had been sent to the north of Spain before the French had received reinforcements, they probably might have been driven through the Pyrenees, those passes forced, and the keys of their country put into the hands of the Spaniards." Lord St. Vincent pointedly condemned the plan of debarking troops in the extremity of the south, which are designed to act in the north. In answer to all these and similar complaints, lord Hawkesbury declared that the sending of a British force to Portugal in preference to Spain, was a measure adopted in compliance with the representations of the Spanish juntas; and Mr. Canning, in the lower house, endeavoured to justify the principle on which his majesty's ministers had acted, by a development of the state of Spain at the commencement of the grand insurrection. "When the whole Spanish nation," said he, "rose unanimously, and with a concert almost miraculous, the consequence was, the sudden creation of various local authorities, acknowledging no head: jealous, watchful, and extremely suspicious of any attempt on the part of one to obtain ascendancy over the other. The supreme central junta was not established until the last week in September."

In Finland an armistice was concluded on the 27th of September, which consigned the greatest part of the province to the possession of Russia. The king of Sweden on this gave vent to his anger and chagrin, and broke his guards to the number of four thousand, on account of their behaviour, thus throwing a stigma on many of the first families in the kingdom. A convention was afterward entered into, by which Finland was continued in the occupation of the Russians, on condition of the unmolested retreat of the remaining Swedish troops.

Notwithstanding the ruinous condition of the Swedish army and finances, with the loss of Finland and Pomerania, the king of Sweden with what his subjects deemed insensate obstinacy, and the British ministry "the most honourable firmness," persisted in the war, until at length the ancient spirit of the Swedes awoke from its slumber. On the morning of the 13th of March, 1809, as the king was preparing to leave Stockholm for his country residence, he was suddenly arrested in his own palace by general Aldercreutz. He drew his sword in a rage, but was instantaneously overpowered, and sent as a prisoner to the fortress of Drotningholm, near the capital. The duke of Sudermania immediately issued a proclamation, declaring the deposition of the king, from an incapacity to exercise the regal functions.

The diet assembled in May, when an act of abdication, signed by Gustavus IV., was produced, and a decree was in consequence passed to the effect, that he and his issue, born and not born, were for ever excluded from the throne of Sweden. A new constitution was framed, by which the sacred rights of the nation were restored, and the duke of Sudermania, with united heart and voice, elected king, under the title of Charles XIII.; and the latter being without children, Christian Augustus, a prince of the house of Holstein, was declared presumptive heir of the crown. A treaty of peace followed on the 17th of September, with Russia, by which the whole of Finland, and that valuable portion of Bothnia bounded by the Torneo, with the isle of Aland, were ceded to Russia. British ships, with certain exceptions, were excluded from the Swedish ports. The deposed monarch was soon after this liberated from his state of confinement, and on the wise and generous recommendation of his successor, an ample provision was made for his maintenance, on condition of fixing his residence in Switzerland, to which he readily and even gratefully acceded, contenting himself with the title of count Gottorp. An accommodation between Sweden and France took place in December, 1809, in consequence of which the former recovered Pomerania and the isle of Rugen.

The peace of Tilsit had completely extended the French domination over the continent of Europe. Prussia was reduced by one-half. Napoleon had instituted in the south of Germany the two kingdoms of Bavaria and Wurtemberg against the power of Austria. He created still more in advance, in the north, the two feudatory kingdoms of Saxony and Westphalia, as a counterpoise to Prussia. That of Saxony was formed of the electorate of that name and of Prussian Poland, erected into the grand-duchy of Warsaw; that of Westphalia comprised the states of Hesse Cassel, Brunswick, Fulda, Paderborn, and the greatest part of Hanover, and was given to Jerome Buonaparte. The emperor Alexander, who subscribed to all these arrangements, evacuated Moldavia and Wallachia; Russia remained the only power untouched, though scathed. Napoleon followed more and more the steps of Charlemagne. He had caused, on the day of his coronation, the crown, the sword, and the sceptre of Charlemagne to be carried before him. A pope had passed the Alps to concentrate his dynasty, and he modelled his states upon the vast empire of this conqueror. The object of the revolution had been to re-establish ancient liberty; Napoleon restored the military hierarchy of the middle age; it had made citizens, he made vassals—it had changed Europe into republics, he transformed it into fiefs. Powerful and energetic as he was, and appearing upon the stage after a shock which had shaken the world to its centre, and perfectly paralyzed it, he was able to arrange it for a season as he pleased. Thus the "great empire" grew up; at home with

its system of administration, which replaced the government of the assemblies—its special courts—its lyceums, where the military education was substituted for the republican education of the central colleges—its hereditary noblesse, which completed, in 1808, the re-establishment of inequality—its civil discipline, which rendered France as obsequious as an army—abroad, with its secondary kingdoms, its confederated states, its grand fiefs, and its supreme chief. Napoleon no longer experienced any resistance, and his commands were obeyed from one extremity of the continent of Europe to the other. The imperial power was at this moment at its maximum. Napoleon now employed all its activity to create maritime resources, capable of balancing the power of England, which alone resisted his will, and which had then eleven hundred vessels of war of every description. He formed harbours, fortified the coasts, built ships, and prepared every thing for struggling in a few years, on this new field of battle. But at this epoch was manifested the first opposition to the domination of the emperor, and to the continental system. The principle of reaction now manifested itself simultaneously in three countries, hitherto the allies of France, and it gave rise to a fifth coalition, to which permit me now to direct your attention.

As if to manifest his contempt of all the powers of Europe, the emperor of France at this time gave an extraordinary proof of confidence in the plenitude of his power. By a decree of the senate, the fortresses of Kehl, Wesel, Cassel, all on the right bank of the Rhine, and Flushing at the mouth of the Scheldt were annexed to the French empire. And, as though this were not sufficient to mark his defiance of all the potentates whom he had subdued or gained over to his interests, he published the following decree, in May, 1808. "Whereas the temporal sovereign of Rome has refused to make war against England, and the interest of the two kingdoms of Italy and Naples ought not to be intercepted by a hostile power; and whereas the donation of Charlemagne, *our illustrious predecessor*, of the countries which form the holy see, was for the good of Christianity, and not for that of the enemies of our holy religion:—we therefore decree, that the duchies of Urbino, Ancona, Macerata, and Camerino be for ever united to the kingdom of Italy: to which kingdom all cardinal prelates and natives of these districts are commanded to return by the 5th of June, on pain of confiscation of goods." This singular effusion of undisguised despotism called forth a declaration from the pope, in which he calmly but forcibly maintained the rights of his see, and solemnly protested against the intended spoliation. This, however, did not prevent the entry of a French army, which took possession of all the strong places in the ecclesiastical territories. And this was followed by the annexation of Parma, Placentia, and Tuscany to the French empire, under the appellation of the Taro, the Arno, &c., so that the kingdom of Italy was now guarded on every side by the empire of France.

The papal protest was, after the lapse of some months, enforced by a sentence of excommunication against the authors and instruments of the act of spoliation. This was productive of new violence on the part of Napoleon—that dutiful son of the church! In the following year, the pope was brought as a captive to Avignon; a provisional government was established in the ecclesiastical states: the inquisition was abolished; many temporal and spiritual abuses were abrogated; and various civil and judicial reforms introduced. Rome itself, wonderfully improved and embellished in the hands of Napoleon, was declared the second city of the empire, and empowered to send seven members to the legislative body; and a deputation, arriving from thence at Paris, presented an address of homage, to which he replied in the style and language of an emperor of the West. The Neapolitan crown, vacated by Joseph Buonaparte, was conferred on marshal Murat, duke of Berg, who took the title of Joachim I. The succession of the kingdom of Italy was also at this time settled on Eugene Beauharnois, the viceroy, stepson of Napoleon, whose mild and beneficent government had made him almost adored in Lombardy.

Soon after the battle of Corunna, as mentioned in my last letter, the em-