FRONTISPIECE to BANKES's NEW SYSTEM of GEOGRAPHY.

Designed by H. Romberg Engraved by J. Neagle and Ornamented by W. Grainger.

NEPTUNE *raising* CAPT.ⁿ COOK *up to Immortality, a* GENIUS *crowning him with a Wreath of Oak, and* FAME *introducing him to History. In the Front Ground are the* FOUR QUARTERS *of the* WORLD *presenting to* BRITANNIA *their various Stores.*

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A MODERN, AUTHENTIC AND COMPLETE

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INCLUDING

All the late important DISCOVERIES made by the ENGLISH, and other celebrated Navigators of various Nations, in the different Hemiſpheres;

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ALSO,

A particular DESCRIPTION of the IMPROVED STATE of the NEW COLONY formed at PORT JACKSON and NORFOLK ISLAND, where the CONVICTS are now ſettled.

Including a particular Account of the EXCURSIONS and DISCOVERIES made in the interior Parts of

NEW HOLLAND.

THE WHOLE FORMING A COMPLETE

COLLECTION OF VOYAGES AND TRAVELS.

By the REV. THOMAS BANKES, Vicar of DIXTON, in MONMOUTHSHIRE,
And Author of the Chriſtian's Family Bible.

Embelliſhed with near Two Hundred beautiful Engravings, conſiſting of Views, Antiquities, Cuſtoms, Ceremonies, beſides Whole Sheet Maps, Plans, Charts, &c. executed in a much ſuperior Stile than any Thing that has ever appeared in this Kingdom.

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ADDRESS TO THE READER.

SINCE the publication of a New Syſtem of Geography upwards of ten years have elapſed, ſo that the important events which have occurred during that period, are wholly omitted in the old works; a circumſtance which muſt render them very imperfect, as Captain Cook's laſt voyage, which contains ſuch important information, was publiſhed after the expiration of that time. Beſides, ſince the death of Capt. Cook, Capt. Wilſon has produced a narrative of the diſcovery of the Pelew Iſlands, which abounds with entertaining and novel matter. Travels into the Interior Parts of America have alſo been publiſhed; and laſtly, a narrative by an officer employed in the laſt expedition to Botany Bay, which affords an account of the behaviour of the convicts, the operations at Port Jackſon, and the riſe and progreſs of the New Colony eſtabliſhed there. Theſe particulars, we preſume, will ſtamp a value upon the preſent undertaking, as they are not to be found in any other Syſtem of Geography.

The conſiderable number of new diſcoveries in Geography which have been made in the courſe of the laſt twenty years, by various enterpriſing navigators, has opened to us ſuch a NEW WORLD, that it is now become a ſcience more generally ſtudied than any other ſubject whatever. Nor is it to be wondered at, when we advert to the fund of uſeful information, and pleaſing entertainment, which has been derived from the different accounts of the reſpective adventurers.

The ſanction of government, and particular patronage of majeſty, have conduced moſt eſſentially to extend the purſuit of geographical knowledge; inſomuch, that if we take a view of the diſcoveries that have been made within the laſt twenty years, we ſhall find that they exceed, in number, all that have been made from the time of Columbus, to that in which our celebrated countryman, Captain Cook, ſailed on his firſt expedition, with Captain Wallis, in Auguſt, 1766.

The entertainment derived from the peruſal of this work is not leſs than the advantages, as it extends to men of letters, becauſe no hiſtory can be properly underſtood without a knowledge of the ſcience it treats of; to politicians, it being neceſſary for the underſtanding the true intereſts of ſtates and kingdoms; to officers, military and naval, as informing them of the ſtate of countries, nations, towns, cities, fortifications, ſea-coaſts, &c. to naturaliſts, from a deſcription of the animal, vegetable, and mineral productions of various climates, which greatly improve their ſyſtems; to merchants and traders, as aſſiſting them in taking prudent meaſures for the advancement and circulation of commerce; and to the curious enquirer, to gratify his deſire of univerſal knowledge, as he will be acquainted with the ſubſtance of the moſt remarkable events and revolutions in the different parts of the world; he will behold new arts and manufactures, new countries, new cuſtoms, new inhabitants. And how engaging muſt it be to ſpeculative enquirers to contemplate on the uncultivated mind, in various regions, where the abſurdeſt prejudices uſurp the place of reaſon; and cruelty, vice, folly, and tyranny, are ſanctified by the venerable name of religion? They will ſee how much they owe to education, to the embelliſhment of ſcience, to the purity of our holy religion; how much they are indebted to Providence for many peculiar bleſſings; how much to heaven, and their brave anceſtors, for the ſyſtem of religious and civil liberty handed down to them.

As paintings in miniature ſet forth the true lineaments of a face, without being the leſs admired for being ſmall, ſo this work, though completed in TWO VOLUMES only, will contain the eſſence of all the Books of Geography, Voyages, and Travels, that have hitherto been publiſhed; from which we ſhall ſelect their beauties, as a curious florift would the choiceſt productions of a garden: and we flatter ourſelves that, by a ſtrict attention to all that is novel and intereſting, we ſhall furniſh a work more comprehenſive than any preceding one; for he who would fill his hive, muſt gather honey from every flower; and poor, indeed, is that weed which yields not a particle of fragrance. As from every eſſay on the ſubject of Geography we may glean ſome information, we have not been ſparing of our labour in ſelecting whatever may be uſeful or pleaſing. For this purpoſe we have compared different deſcriptions of the ſame countries, and wholly relied on perſons of acknowledged veracity and good ſenſe, who were eye witneſſes of what they deſcribed; and made a proper diſtinction between the ſentiments of the ignorant, the illiterate, the ſuperſtitious, and thoſe of perſons diſtinguiſhed by their genius and learning, who examine with philoſophical exactneſs, and deſcribe with critical accuracy.

In our hiſtorical accounts a ſtrict impartiality is obſerved; nor are any circumſtances related, but what are duly authenticated. Without attempting to point out the defects of preceding writers on the ſubject, we ſhall only obſerve, that it has been our buſineſs to avoid their errors, and to inſert the material articles which they have omitted, exploding all fabulous and romantic tales.

To compoſe a Syſtem of Geography replete with novelty, and comprehending every particular that is worthy of notice, is an undertaking too arduous for any individual, whoſe objects are credit to himſelf, and ſatisfaction to the public. We therefore flatter ourſelves, from our united efforts, together with the liberal aſſiſtance we have received from ſeveral literary gentlemen, voyagers, and travellers, that if our Syſtem is not ſuperior, it is at leaſt equal to any that has ever yet appeared.

We ſhall not only conſider this terreſtrial globe which we inhabit, but ſhall ſubjoin a diſplay of the wonderful expanſe which ſurrounds it, and the prodigious globes that revolve in the æther of immenſity; by which the reader will be acquainted with the nature and motions of the planets that give us light, of the heat we feel, of the air we breathe, and the meteors we ſee; and while the various ſeaſons of the earth are explained by the viciſſitudes of the heavens, admire the wonders of the creation in the glorious works of the Creator, whoſe magnitude and ſplendor evince, that none but an Omnipotent Power could form them.

As the pen, in many inſtances, is ſo very inadequate to the pencil, in conveying ideas of the perſons, dreſs, habitations, &c. neceſſarily introduced in a work of this nature, the Publiſher has undertaken the ſole management of that department; and, from a conſciouſneſs of its great importance, has ſpared no expence, in employing the beſt artiſts; ſo that we do aver, that, in our opinion, the engravings, &c. excel all that have ever been ſeen in any collective work of Geography. We do not mean to inſinuate that our embelliſhments are ſuperior to thoſe in Captain Cook's laſt voyage, as they were executed under the immediate ſanction of the King, and at the expence of government.

With reſpect to the Maps, the ſame attention has been paid to them as to the Prints. We ſhall only ſay, in their commendation, that they are executed by Mr. BOWEN, (ſon and ſucceſſor to the late Mr. Bowen, geographer to the King,) who, for truth and accuracy, ſtands firſt in the line of this department.

T. BANKES,
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A NEW, ROYAL, AND AUTHENTIC

SYSTEM OF UNIVERSAL GEOGRAPHY.

BOOK I.

NEW DISCOVERIES.

AS the Account of the New Diſcoveries muſt be given in an abſtracted Point of View, and the Expedition planned by Government for the Tranſportation of Convicts, and the planting a Colony in a Part of that immenſe Track in the Southern Clime, called NEW HOLLAND, having excited the Curioſity of the Public, and given riſe to many Speculations reſpecting its Conſequences; we have been induced to begin with a Deſcription of this Part of the World, where the Operations for forming the Colony commenced; preſuming that it will be more acceptable to our Readers to preſent a Subject ſo highly intereſting, as well as entertaining, at the beginning rather than the cloſe of our Work. Our Account in the former Edition of this Work was taken from the celebrated CAPTAIN COOK; as alſo from that of GOVERNOR PHILIP, as contained in his Voyage, publiſhed in the Year 1790; and likewiſe from a Repreſentation of the State of the Colony, and its Reſources, as communicated by the Governor, March 2, 1791. But as many very important Improvements have been made, both in the Population and Cultivation of the Settlements at Port Jackſon and Norfolk Iſland, ſince that Period; we have, in this Edition, annexed to the Accounts of the Formation, &c. of thoſe Settlements, an authentic Narrative of their Progreſs, Tranſactions, and very improved State in 1792, according to the moſt recent Information received in 1793.

CHAP. I.

NEW HOLLAND.

SECTION I.

BOTANY BAY.

Firſt Diſcovery by Captain Cook. Divers Interviews with the Natives, Incidents, &c.

THE public curioſity being naturally excited to know the reception the European adventurers met with from the natives of this newly diſcovered part of the world, we ſhall give the account of Capt. Cook, and then preſent the narrative, as related by the new coloniſts, which we preſume will prove entertaining, as ſerving to ſhew the natural diſpoſitions and manners of theſe people.

In conſequence of an order of his preſent Majeſty, for making diſcoveries in the ſouthern hemiſphere, voyages were undertaken, and ſucceſſively performed, by Commodore Byron, Captain Wallis, Captain Carteret, and Captain Cook; the latter of whom accompliſhed a very important purpoſe, in aſcertaining that immenſe track, in the ſouthern clime, called New Holland, to be an iſland, which had ever before been ſuppoſed continental.

Captain Cook viſited various parts of the ſouthern hemiſphere previous to his falling in with the ſpot under immediate conſideration; but as theſe muſt be reſerved for future deſcription, we ſhall only remark, that, leaving New Zealand at the cloſe of March, 1770, he proceeded on his voyage, during which nothing extraordinary occurred till the cloſe of April, when, being in the latitude of 34 degrees ſouth, our people diſcovered from the ſhip, at the diſtance of four or five miles, ſeveral of the natives walking briſkly along the ſhore, four of whom carried a ſmall canoe on their ſhoulders. This circumſtance inclined Captain Cook and others to go on ſhore. When the boat approached, they ſat down upon the rocks, ſeeming to wait for the landing of our people; but, to their great regret, when they came within a quarter of a mile, the Indians ran away into the woods, and for that time fruſtrated all hope of interview. Captain Cook returned on board, and, at day-break, ſtanding to the northward, he diſcovered a bay, which he afterwards called Botany Bay, from the great number of plants collected at this place. It is ſituated on the eaſtern coaſt of New Holland, denominated, by that navigator, New South Wales, in the latitude of 34 deg. ſouth; longitude, 208 deg. 37 min. weſt. It is well ſheltered from all winds, which induced him to anchor there. He ſent an officer to ſound the entrance, who reported, on his return, that, in a cove, a little within the harbour, ſome of the natives came down to the beach, and invited him to land, by many ſigns and words, of which he knew not the meaning. All of them were armed with long pikes, and a wooden weapon, ſhaped ſomewhat like a ſcymetar, which was two feet and a half long. The Indians, who had not followed the boat, ſeeing the ſhip approach, uſed many threatening geſtures, and brandiſhed their weapons.

The place where the ſhip anchored was abreaſt of a ſmall village, conſiſting of about ſix or eight houſes. Two of the natives came down upon them to diſpute their landing, and the reſt ran away. Each of the two champions was armed with a lance and throwing ſtick. They called to our people in a very loud tone, which was neither underſtood by them, or by Tupia, an Indian who accompanied them, and who had before occaſionally acted as interpreter. As this perſon is here introduced for the firſt time, we deem it proper to give the following account of him.

Tupia was a native of Otaheite, viſited by Captain Cook previous to his arrival here. This man was ſo firmly attached to our people, from being almoſt conſtantly with them during their ſtay in his own country, that he often expreſſed a deſire of going with them. To have ſuch a perſon on board was certainly deſirable, for many reaſons. He was a man of the firſt rank in his country, and had great experience in navigation. By learning his language, and teaching him theirs, our people might derive much uſeful information; and as there was reaſon to apprehend there was great ſimilarity (as appeared in the inſtance of New Zealand) between the languages of the natives of theſe ſouthern climes, he might occaſionally ſerve as an interpreter. In fine, as he was evidently a man of genius and ſcience, Captain Cook gladly admitted him and his ſervant on board, on the ſhip's departure from Otaheite.

But to return.—The natives, beſides uttering this unintelligible language, brandiſhed their weapons, and ſeemed reſolved to defend their coaſt. Captain Cook could not but admire their courage; and, being very unwilling that hoſtilities ſhould commence with ſuch inequality of force, ordered the boat to lie upon her oars. They then parlied by ſigns, for about a quarter of an hour; and, to beſpeak their good-will, the Captain threw them nails, beads, and other trifles, which they took up, and ſeemed to be well pleaſed with them. He then made ſigns that he wanted water, and, by all the means he could deviſe, endeavoured to convince them that no harm was intended them. Upon their waving, our people interpreted it as an invitation; but when they put the boat in, they renewed their oppoſition. Of thoſe who ſignalized themſelves on the occaſion, one appeared to be a youth about nineteen or twenty, and the other a man of middle age. Captain Cook having no other reſource, fired a muſket between them. Upon the report, the youngeſt dropped a bundle of lances upon the rock; but, quickly recollecting himſelf in an inſtant,

he ſnatched them up in great haſte. A ſtone being then thrown at our people, the Captain ordered a muſket to be fired with ſmall ſhot, which ſtruck the eldeſt upon the legs, and he immediately ran to one of the houſes, at about an hundred yards diſtance. Hoping that the conteſt was over, our people immediately landed; but they had ſcarce left the boat, when the natives returned with a ſhield or target for their defence. As ſoon as one of them came up, he threw a lance, and his companion another, but happily did no hurt; after which, both immediately ran away.

Captain Cook founded and examined the bay. He ſaw ſeveral of the natives, but they fled at his approach. In one place, where he landed, he found ſeveral ſmall fires, and freſh muſcles broiling on them, and ſome of the largeſt oyſter ſhells he had ever ſeen.

By the boldneſs of the Indians, when our people firſt landed, and the terror that ſeized them at the ſight of them afterwards, it appeared evident that they were intimidated by the fire-arms.

Captain Cook, before his departure, with much difficulty, obtained an interview with ſome of the natives, and obſerves, that they had no idea of traffic, nor could any be communicated to them. They received the things that were given them, but never appeared to underſtand the ſigns made by our people when they required a return. Many of the things that were given them, were found left negligently about in the woods, like the toys of children, which pleaſe only while they are new.

As Botany Bay is not many leagues diſtant from Port Jackſon, and the natives are exactly the ſame in their diſpoſitions, manners, cuſtoms, &c. as alſo the animal and vegetable productions, and the climate and ſoil varying but in a ſmall degree, we ſhall therefore deſcribe them copiouſly under the head of Port Jackſon, as related by the new coloniſts, who had more time to obſerve, and more leiſure to digeſt, theſe particulars, than the firſt diſcoverers.

SECTION II.

PORT JACKSON.

Commencement and Progreſs of the Operations for forming the Colony, interſperſed with incidental Occurrences.

IN the year 1786, government having formed a deſign of removing many diſagreeable circumſtances, to which this country was expoſed from the goals in the different parts being crowded with criminals ſentenced to tranſportation; the eaſtern coaſt of New Holland was fixed upon as the moſt eligible part of the globe for planting a new colony, to carry into effect this neceſſary purpoſe. Captain Cook, in the narrative of his firſt voyage round the world, had mentioned Botany Bay as a ſpot conveniently ſituated for forming a new ſettlement; it was therefore determined by government to direct their attention to that place for the accompliſhment of their plans.

Accordingly a fleet, conſiſting of his Majeſty's ſhip Sirius, under the command of Arthur Philip, Eſq. and the Supply armed tender, under the command of Lieutenant Ball, with tranſports, ſtore-ſhips, &c. ſailed for Botany Bay on the 13th of May, 1787, and anchored in that Bay on the 20th of January, 1788, after a paſſage of thirty-ſix weeks.

The day after the arrival of the fleet, Governor Philip, accompanied by ſeveral officers, examined the ſouth ſhore; but as Botany Bay, through want of water, and ſome diſadvantages of ſituation, was not deemed very convenient for the purpoſe, they proceeded to explore the coaſt to the northward, examining every cove, and making particular obſervations on the country. Amongſt other places, they examined an opening to which Captain Cook had given the name of Port Jackſon; and ſuch was the ſituation of the harbour, together with other advantages apparent at firſt view, that a reſolution was formed of evacuating Botany Bay the enſuing morn.

Port Jackſon is one of the fineſt and moſt extenſive harbours in the univerſe, and at the ſame time the moſt ſecure, being ſafe from all the winds that blow. It is divided into a great number of coves, to which the Governor has given different names. That on which the town is built, is called Sydney Cove. It is one of the ſmalleſt in the harbour, but the moſt convenient, as ſhips of the greateſt burden can with caſe go into it, and heave out cloſe to the ſhore. Trincomalee, acknowledged to be one of the beſt harbours in the world, is by no means to be compared to it. In a word, Port Jackſon would afford ſufficient and ſafe anchorage for all the navies of Europe. During a run up the harbour of about four miles, in a weſterly direction, a luxuriant proſpect preſented itſelf on the ſhores, covered with trees to the water's edge, among which many of the Indians were frequently ſeen, till the fleet arrived at a ſmall ſnug cove to the ſouthward, on the banks of which the plan of operations were deſtined to commence. The natives appeared in conſiderable numbers, from which it was reaſonable to conclude, that the country was more populous than had been repreſented by Captain Cook, who obſerves, that they were few in number, dull of apprehenſion, and void of curioſity; whereas, in ſubſequent narratives, they are ſaid to be gay, ſprightly, and curious. They examined the ſtrangers with the utmoſt attention, and ſeemed particularly ſtruck with the appearance of their dreſs, imagining their clothes to be compoſed of ſo many different ſkins, and the hat as making part of the head. Indeed, they ſeemed highly entertained with their new acquaintance, accepted of ſome toys as preſents, and were perfectly chearful and pleaſant, dancing and ſinging in concert with them, and imitating their words and geſtures.

The following circumſtances, related by the author of the narrative from which it is taken, are inſerted in own his words, as, it is preſumed, they will conduce both to entertainment and information.

" When I went with a party to the ſouth ſide of the " harbour, and had ſcarcely landed five minutes, we " were met by a dozen Indians, naked as at the mo- " ment of their birth, walking along the beach. Eager " to come to a conference, and yet afraid of giving " offence, we advanced with caution towards them: " nor would they, at firſt, approach nearer to us than " the diſtance of ſome paces. Both parties were " armed; yet an attack ſeemed as unlikely on their " part as we knew it to be on our own. I had at " this time a little boy, of not more than ſeven years " of age in my hand. The child ſeemed to attract their " attention very much; for they frequently pointed " to him, and ſpoke to each other; and, as he was " not frightened, I advanced with him towards them, " at the ſame time baring his boſom, and ſhewing the " whiteneſs of the ſkin. On the cloaths being re- " moved, they gave a loud exclamation; and one of " the party, an old man, with a long beard, hideouſly " ugly, came cloſe to us. I bade the little boy " not be afraid, and introduced him to the acquain- " tance of this uncouth perſonage. The Indian, with " great gentleneſs, laid his hand on the child's hat, " and afterwards felt his cloaths, muttering to himſelf " all the while. I found it neceſſary, however, by " this time, to ſend away the child, as ſuch a cloſe " connection rather alarmed him; and in this the " concluſion verified I gave no offence to the old " gentleman. Indeed, it was putting ourſelves on a " par with them; as I had obſerved, from the firſt, " that ſome youths of their own, though conſiderably " older than the one with us, were kept back by the " grown people. Several more now came up, to whom " we made various preſents; but our toys ſeemed not " to be regarded as very valuable; nor would they, for " a long time, make any returns for them; though, " before we parted, a large club, with a head almoſt " ſufficient to fell an ox, was obtained in exchange " for a looking-glaſs. Theſe people ſeemed at a loſs to

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The adventurers, more interviews wit friendly a manner, bringing about a c object of our people the next to convince purpoſe an officer on place a target, made fired at with a piſtol, The Indians, though run away; but th alarm, on looking a perforated. As this officer, to diſſipate jealouſy, whiſtled the they appeared highly equal pleaſure and r by the different navi ſouthern regions, t and throughout all t and, in ſhort, where equally touched and tive air.

The neceſſary previ acted, upon an appoi read, and poſſeſſion form. The marine the convicts aſſemble commiſſion was read, thur Philip, Eſq. Ge and over the territory dependencies; togeth for eſtabliſhing trials the patents, under the holding civil and cri which all caſes of life property, were to be

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While the governo which is contiguous to number of the natives. an attachment to his g uſed a variety of means a number of antic trick fectual, ſhe had recourſe tifully. This expedient weeping, and appeared around her. We have

" to know (probably from our want of beards) of what " ſex we were, which having underſtood, they burſt " into the moſt immoderate fits of laughter, talking " to each other, at the ſame time, with ſuch rapidity " and vociferation, as I had never before heard. " After nearly an hour's converſation, by ſigns and " geſtures, they repeated the word *whurra* ſeveral " times, which ſignifies be gone, and walked away " from us to the head of the bay."

The adventurers, in the late expedition, had ſeveral more interviews with the natives, which ended in ſo friendly a manner, that hopes were entertained of bringing about a connection with them. The firſt object of our people was to win their affection, and the next to convince them of our ſuperiority. To this purpoſe an officer one day prevailed on one of them to place a target, made of bark, againſt a tree, which he fired at with a piſtol, at the diſtance of ſome paces. The Indians, though terrified at the report, did not run away; but their aſtoniſhment exceeded their alarm, on looking at the ſhield which the ball had perforated. As this produced a little ſhyneſs, the officer, to diſſipate their fears, and remove their jealouſy, whiſtled the air of *Marlbrouk*, with which they appeared highly charmed, and imitated him with equal pleaſure and readineſs. It has been remarked by the different navigators who have explored theſe ſouthern regions, that the natives of California, and throughout all the iſlands of the Pacific Ocean, and, in ſhort, wherever they have been, ſeemed equally touched and delighted with this little plaintive air.

The neceſſary previous buſineſs having been tranſacted, upon an appointed day, the commiſſions were read, and poſſeſſion was taken of the ſettlement in form. The marine battalion being drawn up, and the convicts aſſembled on the occaſion, his Majeſty's commiſſion was read, appointing his Excellency Arthur Philip, Eſq. Governor and Captain General in and over the territory of New South Wales, and its dependencies; together with the acts of parliament for eſtabliſhing trials by law within the ſame; and the patents, under the great ſeal of Great Britain, for holding civil and criminal courts of judicature, by which all caſes of life and death, as well as matters of property, were to be decided.

The extent of this authority is defined in the governor's commiſſion, to reach from the latitude of 43 deg. 49 min. ſouth, to the latitude of 10 deg. 37 min. ſouth, being the northern and ſouthern extremities of New Holland. It commences again at the 135th degree of longitude eaſt, and proceeding in an eaſterly direction, comprehends all iſlands within the limits of the above ſpecified latitudes in the Pacific Ocean. As the diſcoveries of Engliſh navigators alone are compriſed in this territory, it is preſumed this partition will obviate all cauſe of future litigation between us and the Dutch. It appears from the commiſſion, conſidered in the whole, that government have been no leſs attentive in arming Mr. Phillip with plentitude of power, than extent of dominion.

It was found neceſſary to enforce the rigour of the law, in order to reſtrain the violation of public ſecurity. A ſet of deſperate and hardened miſcreants leagued themſelves for the purpoſes of depredation; and, as is generally the caſe, had inſinuation enough to entice others, leſs verſed in iniquity, to become inſtrumental in carrying it on.

While the governor was exploring Broken Bay, which is contiguous to Port Jackſon, he ſaw a great number of the natives. One of the females had formed an attachment to his great coat; and to obtain it ſhe uſed a variety of means. Firſt, ſhe danced and played a number of antic tricks; but finding this mode ineffectual, ſhe had recourſe to tears, which ſhe ſhed plentifully. This expedient not anſwering, ſhe ceaſed from weeping, and appeared as chearful as any of the party around her. We have introduced this incident, to ſhew that they are not a people devoid of art and fineſſe, in order to obtain their ends.

Though their women appeared with ſuch few decorations, yet it was evident they had no averſion to finery. The ſurgeon obſerved, at a repaſt, wherein he grouped with the natives, one of the women, who ſat next to him, obſerving that he had a white handkerchief in his hand, exhibited a number of laſcivious airs, in order to obtain it. He therefore tore it into ribbons, being deſirous of multiplying one preſent into many, with which he decorated her head and neck. On her admiring the buttons of his coat, as he had nothing elſe left, he cut them away, and tied them round her waiſt. Thus ornamented, and charmed with her acquirements, ſhe turned away with a look of inexpreſſible archneſs and joy, which ſeemed to ſhew, that, like the women in the South Seas in general, they are fond of new ornaments. He alſo obſerved, that there is no hoſpitality nor harmony among them; as appeared from their eating ſo greedily, without regarding the accommodation of any about them; devouring the fiſh voraciouſly, which had been thrown on the fire, and ſcarcely warm.

Theſe people, in their appetites, are very voracious, as appears from the following inſtance. One of the officers ſhot a bird, which fell at an old man's feet. The exploſion at firſt greatly alarmed him; but perceiving no ill was intended, he ſoon got over his fears. The bird was then given to him, which, having barely plucked, and not more than half broiled, he devoured, entrails, bones and all.

A convict, who had been gathering what they call ſweet tea, about a mile from the camp, met a party of the natives, conſiſting of fourteen, by whom he was beaten and wounded with the ſtick uſed in throwing their ſpears. They then made him ſtrip, and would have taken from him his clothes, and probably his life, had it not been for the report of ſome muſkets, which they no ſooner heard than they ran away.

The deſtructive nature of their weapons, and their ſkill and adroitneſs in the uſe of them, will appear evident from the following circumſtances. A convict, being in a ſtate of convaleſcence, had obtained permiſſion from the governor to go a little way up the country, to gather herbs, for the purpoſe of making tea. This man, after night ſet in, was brought to the hoſpital, with one of the ſpears uſed by the natives ſticking in his loins. It had been darted at him as he was ſtooping, and while his back was turned to the aſſailant. The weapon was barbed, and ſtuck ſo very faſt, that it would admit of no motion. The ſurgeon, after dilating the wound to a conſiderable length and depth, with ſome difficulty extracted the ſpear, which had penetrated the fleſh nearly three inches. After the operation, the convict gave information, that he had received his wound from three of the natives, who came behind him at a time when he expected no perſon to be near him, except another convict, whom he had met a little before, employed on the ſame buſineſs as himſelf. He added, that, after they had wounded him, they beat him in a cruel manner; and ſtripping the clothes from his back, carried them off, making ſighs to him (as he interpreted them) to return to the camp. He further related, that, after they had left him, he ſaw his fellow convict in the poſſeſſion of another party of the natives, who were dragging him along, with his head bleeding, and ſeemingly in great diſtreſs; while he himſelf was ſo exhauſted with the loſs of blood, that, inſtead of being able to aſſiſt his companion, he was happy to eſcape with his life.

The natives continued to avail themſelves of every opportunity of exerciſing their cruelty on our people. An officer of the marines, who had been up the harbour to procure ſome ruſhes for thatch, brought to the hoſpital the bodies of two men employed as ruſh-cutters, whom he found murdered by the natives in a

ſhocking manner. One of them was transfixed through the breaſt with one of their ſpears, which was extracted with great difficulty and force. He had two other ſpears ſticking in him to a depth which muſt have proved mortal. His ſkull was divided and comminuted ſo much, that his brains eaſily found a paſſage through. His eyes were out. The other was a youth, and had only ſome trifling marks of violence about him. This lad could not have been many hours dead; for when the officer found him among ſome mangrove trees, and at a conſiderable diſtance from where the other man lay, he was not ſtiff, nor very cold; nor was he perfectly ſo when brought to the hoſpital. The natives, whenever an opportunity offers, never fail to ſteal or deſtroy any of the live ſtock they can poſſibly get poſſeſſion of. Nor are they leſs cowardly than cruel; for they always behave with an apparent civility when they fall in with men that are armed; but when they meet perſons unarmed, they ſeldom fail to take every advantage of them; in conſequence of which, many of the convicts have fallen ſacrifices to theſe ſavages; but the ſoldiers they never aſſail, being always terrified at the ſight of a red coat.

They are very happy at grimace and mimicry; as an inſtance of which, it is remarked by the ſurgeon of the ſettlement, that, going upon an excurſion, they obſerved a party of the natives fiſhing, and ſat down near the bank, to watch their motions. To paſs away time, one of the gentlemen ſung ſeveral ſongs; and when he had done, the females in the canoes either ſung one of their own ſongs, or imitated him, in which they ſucceeded beyond conception. Any thing ſpoken by our people they moſt accurately recited, and this in a manner in which the Europeans fell greatly ſhort in their attempts to repeat the language after them, which ſhews the ſtrength of their organical powers. Nor are they without ingenuity, as appeared from various figures obſerved by a party of our people on their excurſion to the weſtward. Theſe figures were cut on the ſmooth ſurface of ſome large ſtones, and conſiſted chiefly of repreſentations of themſelves in different attitudes, of their canoes, of ſeveral ſorts of fiſh, and animals: and, conſidering the rudeneſs of the inſtruments with which the figures muſt have been executed, they ſeemed to exhibit tolerable likeneſſes.

Deſcription of the Perſons of the Natives, their Ornaments, Habitations, Furniture, Utenſils, Food, Canoes, Tools, Weapons, Animal and Vegetable Productions of the Country, &c.

THE men, in general, are from five feet ſix inches to five feet nine inches high: they are thin, but very ſtrait, and well proportioned; walk very erect, and are extremely active. The women, alſo, in general, are well made, not ſo thin as the men, but rather ſmaller limbed. Their ſkin is of the colour of wood ſoot, or which would be called a dark chocolate colour. Their hair is black, but not woolly: it is ſhort, but not cropt; in ſome lank, in others curled. Some parts of their bodies are painted red; and the upper lip and breaſts of ſome of them are painted with ſtreaks of white. Their features are far from diſagreeable; and their teeth even and white. Their voices are ſoft and tuneable. It is remarked, that the deficiency of one of the fore teeth of the upper jaw, mentioned by Dampier, was ſeen in almoſt the whole of the men; but their organs of ſight, ſo far from being defective, as that author mentions thoſe of the inhabitants of the weſtern ſide of the continent to be, are remarkably quick and piercing. Many of the women wanted the two lower joints of the little finger of the left hand; but the reaſon or meaning of it could not be diſcovered at the time in which the obſervation was made; nor has any account of it been given ſince. The defect was not only apparent in old women, and in young girls of eight or nine years old, but in young women who had children, and thoſe who had not: the finger has been ſeen perfect in individuals of all the above ages and deſcriptions. They have bracelets upon the upper part of their arms, made of plaited hair. They are fond of ornament, though abſolutely without apparel: and one of them, to whom was given an old ſhirt, inſtead of throwing it over any part of the body, tied it as a fillet round her head.

Both ſexes go ſtark naked, and ſeem to have no more ſenſe of indecency in diſcovering their whole body, than the inhabitants of England have in diſcovering their hands and face. Their principal ornament is the bone which they thruſt through the cartilage that divides the noſtrils from each other. What perverſion of taſte could induce them to think this a decoration, or what could prompt them, before they had worn it, or ſeen it worn, to ſuffer the pain and inconvenience that muſt of neceſſity attend it, is perhaps beyond the power of human ſagacity to determine. As this bone is as thick as a man's finger, and between five and ſix inches long, it reaches quite acroſs the face, and ſo effectually ſtops up both the noſtrils, that they are forced to keep their mouths wide open for breath, and ſnuffle ſo when they attempt to ſpeak, that they are ſcarcely intelligible even to each other. The ſeamen, with ſome humour, called it the ſpritſail-yard; and, indeed, it had ſo ludicrous an appearance, that, till our people were uſed to it, they found it difficult to refrain from laughter. Beſides the noſe-jewel, they have necklaces made of ſhells, very neatly cut, and ſtrung together; bracelets of ſmall cord, wound two or three times about the upper part of their arm; and a ſtring of plaited human hair, about as thick as a thread of yarn, tied round the waiſt. Some of them have alſo gorgets of ſhells hanging round the neck, ſo as to reach acroſs the breaſt.

But though theſe people wear no clothes, their bodies have a covering beſides the dirt; for they paint them both white and red. The red is commonly laid on in broad patches upon the ſhoulders and breaſt; and the white ſtripes, ſome narrow and ſome broad: the narrow are drawn over the limbs, and the broad over the body, not without ſome degree of taſte. The white is alſo laid on in ſmall patches upon the face, and drawn in a circle round each eye. The red ſeemed to be ochre, but what the white was could not be diſcovered: it was cloſe grained, ſaponaceous to the touch, and heavy. Beſides the paint with which they beſmear their bodies, they alſo uſe greaſe, or ſome ſtinking oily ſubſtance, for the ſame purpoſe. Some of them ornament their hair with the teeth of fiſh, faſtened on by gum and the ſkin of the kanguroo. The bodies of the men are much ſcarified, particularly their breaſts and ſhoulders. Theſe ſcarifications are conſiderably raiſed above the ſkin; and although they are not in any regular form, yet they are conſidered as ornamental.

Upon their bodies were ſeen no marks of diſeaſe or ſores, but large ſcars, in irregular lines, which appeared to be the remains of wounds they had inflicted upon themſelves with ſome blunt inſtrument, and which our people underſtood, by ſigns, to have been memorials of grief for the dead.

Upon ſuch ornaments as they had, they ſeemed to ſet ſo great a value, that they would never part with the leaſt article for any thing that could be offered; which was the more extraordinary, as the European beads and ribbons were ornaments of the ſame kind, but of better form, and more ſhowy materials.

Though both ſexes, and thoſe of all ages, are invariably found naked, it muſt not be inferred from this, that cuſtom ſo inures them to the change of the elements, as to make them bear, with indifference, the extremes of heat and cold; for they give viſible and repeated proofs, that the latter affects them ſeverely, when they are ſeen ſhivering and huddling themſelves

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These people have wherever they may render their situation a fire, which heating comes as warm as a gether upon the grass to serve them as a cou ferved the kindneſs o of his creatures. T regions have not the l or conſtructing any mency of the ſeason even deviſed the mean To remedy theſe effe infinite wiſdom, that t as thoſe in the interio poſed of ſoft, crumb parts, which are mo ſeaſon, are generally ternal, which are leſs dually mouldering aw mer, a cavity is made tain fifty or ſixty of th are thereby provided lodging. In ſuch par build a kind of huts than a finger, by ben ends in the ground. and pieces of bark; a oppoſite which the fir ſigned for the accom hunting of the kang and other animals whi when purſued, general In order, therefore, to the tree, a man climbs eaſe, by means of notc the trunk at convenie the ſummit, or any pa eſcape of the animal, club in his hand, whil which fills the hollow the animal attempting falling a prey to its pur

The only furniture huts, that fell under long veſſel, made of b of tying up the two enc ing cut off, ſerves for a

Their chief utenſil v of a moderate cabbage threads loop within l uſed by ladies to mak carries looſe upon his b paſſes over his head. I two of paint or reſin, fo points of darts, and the clude all the worldly tre them.

They are utterly ſtra ground, and appear to affords, as the coloniſt populous than the inte general, eat animal food which water can be bo the coals, or bake it in

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up in heaps in their huts, or the caverns of the rocks, until a fire can be kindled.

These people have no fixed habitation, but repose wherever they may be overtaken by night; and to render their situation as tolerable as possible, they make a fire, which heating the rock all round them, it becomes as warm as an oven, and they lie huddled together upon the grass, which is first pulled and dried to serve them as a couch. In this instance may be observed the kindness of Providence in the preservation of his creatures. The inhabitants of these remote regions have not the least notion of erecting an edifice, or constructing any kind of shelter from the inclemency of the seasons; so far from it, they have not even devised the means of cloathing their naked bodies. To remedy these essential defects, it is so ordained by infinite wisdom, that the rocks on the sea-coast, as well as those in the interior parts of the country, are composed of soft, crumbly, sandy stone; the external parts, which are most exposed to the rigour of the season, are generally of a harder texture than the internal, which are less exposed; so that the latter gradually mouldering away under the pressure of the former, a cavity is made, of dimensions sufficient to contain fifty or sixty of these poor forlorn creatures, who are thereby provided with a tolerably comfortable lodging. In such parts as are not very rocky, they build a kind of huts with pliable rods, not thicker than a finger, by bending them, and sticking the two ends in the ground. The covering is of palm leaves and pieces of bark; and the entrance by a large hole, opposite which the fire is made. Those huts are designed for the accommodation of such as follow the hunting of the kanguroo, opossums, rats, squirrels, and other animals which inhabit the woods, and which, when pursued, generally run into the hollow of a tree. In order, therefore, to secure the animal when found in the tree, a man climbs even the tallest tree with great ease, by means of notches cut with a stone hatchet in the trunk at convenient distances: when he reaches the summit, or any part that may open a way for the escape of the animal, he fixes himself there with a club in his hand, while another below applies a fire, which fills the hollow of the tree with smoke; so that the animal attempting to escape, is almost certain of falling a prey to its pursuers.

The only furniture observed belonging to these huts, that fell under observation, was a kind of oblong vessel, made of bark, by the simple contrivance of tying up the two ends with a withy, which, not being cut off, serves for a handle.

Their chief utensil was a small bag, about the size of a moderate cabbage-net, which is made by laying threads loop within loop, somewhat in the manner used by ladies to make purses. This bag the man carries loose upon his back, by a small string, which passes over his head. It generally contains a lump or two of paint or resin, some fish-hooks and lines, a few points of darts, and their usual ornaments, which include all the worldly treasure of the richest man among them.

They are utterly strangers to the cultivation of the ground, and appear to live chiefly upon what the sea affords, as the colonists found the coast much more populous than the interior parts. They do not, in general, eat animal food raw, but having no vessel in which water can be boiled, they either broil it upon the coals, or bake it in a hole by the help of hot stones.

The men are very dexterous in the use of the fish-gig, an instrument upwards of three feet in length. These gigs have, some one, some two, some three, and some four prongs, pointed and barbed with a fish or other animal's bone. In fine weather a man has often been observed by the colonists lying across a canoe with his face in the water, and his fish-gig immersed, ready for darting. In this manner he lies still, and is almost certain of striking the fish, as his face being a little under the surface of the water, he can see it distinctly, and consequently rarely misses his aim. Women were frequently observed occupied in this necessary employment of fishing with lines and hooks in miserable boats, with two or three children, at the edge of a surf that would intimidate an experienced seaman. The youngest child, if very small, lies across the lap of the mother, and is safe from falling, though she is busy in fishing, as the boat being very shallow, she sits in the bottom with her knees up to her breast, and between her knees and her body the child is perfectly secure.

The men likewise dive with amazing alacrity for shell fish, which adhere to the rocks: they spring from a rock into the surf, and there continue for a long space of time; and on their rising, cast the fish they have taken off the rocks on shore, which is received by some of their comrades, who are placed there for that necessary purpose.

Their canoes are mean and rude. Those on the southern part of the coast are nothing more than a piece of bark, about twelve feet long, tied together at the ends, and kept open in the middle by small boughs of wood. Those farther to the northward are not made of bark, but of the trunk of a tree, hollowed, perhaps by fire. They are about fourteen feet long; and being very narrow, are fitted with an outrigger, to prevent their oversetting. These are worked with paddles, that are so large as to require both hands to manage one of them.

The only tools seen among them were, an adze, wretchedly made of stone, some small pieces of the same substance in form of a wedge, a wooden mallet, and some shells and fragments of coral. For polishing their throwing sticks and the points of their lances, they use the leaves of a kind of wild fig-tree, which bites upon wood almost as keenly as the shave-grass of Europe, which is used by our joiners. With such tools, the making even such a canoe as has been described, must be a most difficult and tedious labour. To those who have been accustomed to the use of metal, it appears altogether impracticable; but there are few difficulties that will not yield to patient perseverance; and he who does all he can, will certainly produce effects that greatly exceed his apparent power.

The weapons used by the natives are spears or lances, and these are of different kinds. Some of them have four prongs, pointed with bone, and barbed. Others have but one point. The shaft is strait and light, and from eight to fourteen feet long.

They have a short stick, which assists them in throwing the lance; it is about three feet long, flattened on one side, with a hook of wood at one end, and a flat shell let into a split in the stick at the other, and fastened with gum. Upon the flat side of this stick the lance is laid. In the upper end is a small hole, in which the point of the hook of the throwing-stick is fixed; this retains the lance on the flat side of the stick. They poise it, thus fixed in one hand, with the fore-finger and thumb over it, to prevent its falling off sideways; at the same time holding fast the throwing-stick, they discharge it with considerable force, and in very good direction, to the distance of about sixty or seventy yards. It was supposed by several of the colonists, who saw these weapons frequently thrown, that a man upon his guard might with ease either parry or avoid them; though they confessed they flew with astonishing velocity.

These spears, or lances, however, are dreadful weapons; for, when once they have taken place, they can never be drawn back, without tearing away the flesh; or leaving the sharp ragged splinters of the bone, or shell, which forms the beard, behind them in the wound. They are thrown with great force and dexterity. If intended to wound at a short distance, between ten and twenty yards, simply with the hand; but if at the distance of forty or fifty yards, or more, with the throwing-stick. The colonists were inclined to hold the spears of the natives very cheap. Fatal

A NEW AND ACCURATE CHART of the Discoveries of Capt. Cook, and other late navigators in the Northern Ocean; exhibiting NORFOLK ISLAND, AND PORT JACKSON where the new Settlement is formed, inclusive; The Whole Coast of New South Wales the late NEW DISCOVERIES on the Coast of North America, shewing NOOTKA SOUND. Comprising likewise the PELEW and other new Discovered Islands situated in the Pacific Ocean.

ARCTIC SEA

NORTH PACIFIC OCEAN

SOUTH PACIFIC OCEAN

SIBERIA

EASTERN TARTARY

CHINA

NEW HOLLAND

NEW ZEELAND

NEW IRELAND

NEW CALEDONIA

BORNEO

PHILIPINE ISLES

SEA OF OKOTSK

ARCTIC CIRCLE

TROPIC OF CAPRICORN

EQUINOCTIAL LINE

Omoloweja Gooba

Jakutsk

Okotsk

Kamtschatdinskoi Noss

Beerings I.

Copper Mine River

Buffallo Lake

COPPER INDIANS

Dog Ribbed Indians

Arathapescow Indians

Cape Prince of Wales

East Cape

Behring's Straits

Stolbi I.

Gulf of Anadir

Norton Sound

Shoal Water

Shoal Neff

Bristol Bay

Kodiak I.

Prince Royal Islands

Nootka Sound

Port Jackson

Norfolk I.

Land of Peter Nuyts discd 1627

Endeavour Strait

Gulf of Carpentaria

Van Diemens Land

Sandy Cape

Cape Morton

Cape Byron

Port Stephens

Port Jackson

Cape George

Barrens Cape

St Patricks Head

Maria Isles

Cape Egmont

Hawkes B.

Cape East

Cape Palliser

Banks I.

Dusky B.

Pylstaart I.

Macquarie I.

Solander I.

Lord Howe I.

Sandwich I.

Tanna

Mallicolo

Bougainville I.

Solomons Isles

Admiralty I.

Marianne Isles

Pelew Islands

Ladrone Islands

Philippine Islands

Manilla

Borneo

Celebes

Java

Timor

Moluccas

Gilolo

Mindanao

Formosa

Pescadores

Quelpaert I.

Japan

Corea

Chekang

Liqueo Isles

Whang Hay

Pekin

Mongols

Tungusi

Tartars

Manshus

Jesso

Kobi or Sandy Desert call'd by the Chinese Sha-mo

experience, however, convinced them, that the wound inflicted by this weapon is not a trivial one; and that the ſkill of the Indians in throwing it is far from being deſpicable. Nor are their weapons of offence confined to the ſpear only; for they have beſides long wooden ſwords, ſhaped like a ſabre, capable of inflicting a mortal wound; and clubs of an immenſe ſize.

The natives, when equipped for any exploit, are armed with a ſhield, made of the bark of a tree, with which they very dexterouſly ward off any thing thrown at them. They have alſo a bludgeon, or club, about twenty inches long, with a large and pointed end; and ſometimes a ſtone hatchet. Theſe make up the catalogue of their military implements. But the principal means of annoying their European viſitors was by ſetting fire to the high graſs, which, being very dry, burnt with great rapidity, and did much damage.

The natives of this country do not appear to entertain the moſt diſtant idea of religion, nor to have any object of adoration. They are as regardleſs of the ſun, moon, ſtars, or any of the ſtupendous works of the Creator, as they are of any of the animals which inhabit their extenſive regions. It was evident that they burn their dead, as a diſcovery was made of a freſh grave, on a ſurvey of a diſtant branch of Port Jackſon, by a party of the coloniſts. When the earth was removed, a quantity of white aſhes was diſcovered, which appeared to have been but a ſhort time depoſited there. Among the aſhes were found part of a human jaw-bone, and a ſmall piece of the ſcull, which, although it had been in the fire, was not ſo much injured, as to prevent aſcertaining, beyond a doubt, what it was. The aſhes were put together, and covered up as before. The grave was not more than ſix inches under the ſurface of the ground, but the earth was raiſed as high as it is above our graves in Europe.

Of the animals produced in this iſland, the kanguroo is one of the moſt valuable, and grows to a very conſiderable ſize; ſome of them weigh not leſs than 150 pounds. A male of 130 pounds weight has been killed, whoſe dimenſions were as follows: Extreme length, ſeven feet three inches. Length of the tail, three feet four inches and a half. Length of the hinder legs, three feet two inches. Length of the fore paws, one foot ſeven inches and a half. Circumference of the tail at the root, on foot five inches. Notwithſtanding this, the kanguroo, on being brought forth, is not larger than a rat. In running, this animal confines himſelf entirely to his hinder legs, which are poſſeſſed with an extraordinary muſcular power. Their ſpeed is very great, though not in general quite equal to that of a greyhound: but when the greyhounds are ſo fortunate as to ſeize them, they are incapable of retaining their hold, from the amazing ſtruggles of the animal. The bound of the kanguroo, when not hard preſſed, has been meaſured, and found to exceed twenty feet. At what time of the year they copulate, and in what manner, is not known. The teſticles of the male are placed contrary to the uſual order of nature. When young, the kanguroo eats tender, and well flavoured, taſting like veal; but the old ones are more tough and ſtringy than bull-beef. They are not carnivorous, but ſubſiſt altogether on particular flowers and graſs. Their bleat is mournful, and very different from that of any other animal: it is, however, ſeldom heard but in the young ones.

The dogs of this country are remarkably ſwift: their chace of the kanguroo, if in an open wood, is ſeldom more than eight or ten minutes; and if there are more dogs than one, rarely ſo long. When the dog ſeizes the kanguroo, he turns, and catching hold of him with the claws of his hind feet, tears him to ſuch a degree, that the dog is frequently carried home covered with wounds. If the dog catches the kanguroo by the throat, he holds him until one of the hunters comes to his aſſiſtance, and many dogs have nearly loſt their lives in the ſtruggle. Several attempts were made to cure thoſe dogs of their natural ferocity: one of the Engliſh officers took much pains on the attempt of a little puppy, which, nevertheleſs, would ſnap off the head of a fowl, or worry a pig, in defiance of the ſevereſt correction. They have been repreſented as good natured animals when domeſticated; but, from their extreme ferocity, the poſſibility of taming them was much doubted. Some of the natives, however, were ſeen with dogs which appeared to be domeſticated the ſame as ours in Europe; they are of the wolf kind, of a duſky red colour.

The opoſſum is an animal which abounds in this country. It bears much reſemblance to the kanguroo in the ſtrength of its tail, and make of its fore-legs, which are very ſhort in proportion to the hind ones.

The female opoſſum has a pouch, or pocket, in which ſhe carries her young. Some have been ſhot with a young one, not larger than a walnut, ſticking to a teat in this pocket. Others with young ones no bigger than a rat; one of which was moſt perfectly formed, with every mark and diſtinguiſhing characteriſtic of the kanguroo. There is alſo a peculiar formation in the generative parts of this animal.

Moſt of the animals in this country partake, in a great meaſure, of the nature of the kanguroo. There is the kanguroo opoſſum, the kanguroo rat, &c. the formation of the fore legs and feet of which bear no proportion to the length of the hind legs. There is a quadruped, which the natives call *quoll*. It reſembles a pole-cat. The back is brown, ſpotted with white; and the belly white, unmixed. To beaſts of prey our people were utter ſtrangers; nor have they yet any cauſe to believe that they exiſt in the country. And happy it is for them that they do not, as their preſence would deprive them of the only freſh meals the ſettlement affords, the fleſh of the kanguroo.

It is remarked, from the ſimilarity in ſome part or other of the different quadrupeds found here, that there is great reaſon to ſuppoſe a promiſcuous intercourſe between the different ſexes of the reſpective animals.

Of bats, which hold a middle place between the beaſts and the birds, there are many of different kinds, particularly one, which is larger than a partridge. Our people were not fortunate enough to take one, either alive or dead.

The country abounds with birds of various kinds, amongſt which are many of exquiſite beauty, particularly loriquets and cockatoos. The water fowl are, gulls, ſhags; ſoland geeſe, or gannets, of two ſorts; boobies, noddies, curlieus, ducks, pelicans of an enormous ſize, and many others. One of the moſt remarkable was black and white, much larger than a ſwan, and in ſhape ſomewhat reſembling a pelican. The land birds are, crows, parrots, pigeons, doves, quails, buſtards, herons, cranes, hawks, and eagles.

But the bird which principally claims attention is the caſſowary, a ſpecies of oſtrich, approaching nearer to the *emu* of South America than any other known. One of them was ſhot, at a conſiderable diſtance, with a ſingle ball, by a convict employed for that purpoſe by the governor. Its weight, when complete, was ſeventy pounds; and its length, from the end of the toe to the tip of the beak, ſeven feet two inches; though there was reaſon to believe it had not attained its full growth. On diſſection, many anatomical ſingularities were obſerved: the gall-bladder was remarkably large, the liver not bigger than that of a barn-door fowl; and, after the ſtricteſt ſearch, no gizzard could be found. The legs, which were of a vaſt length, were covered with thick, ſtrong ſcales, plainly indicating the animal to be formed for living amidſt deſarts; and the foot differed from an oſtrich's by forming a triangle, inſtead of being cloven. Goldſmith, whoſe account of the emu is the only one we can refer to, ſays, "that it is covered, from the back and rump, with long feathers, which fall backward, and cover the anus: theſe feathers are grey on the back, and white on the belly." The wings are ſo-

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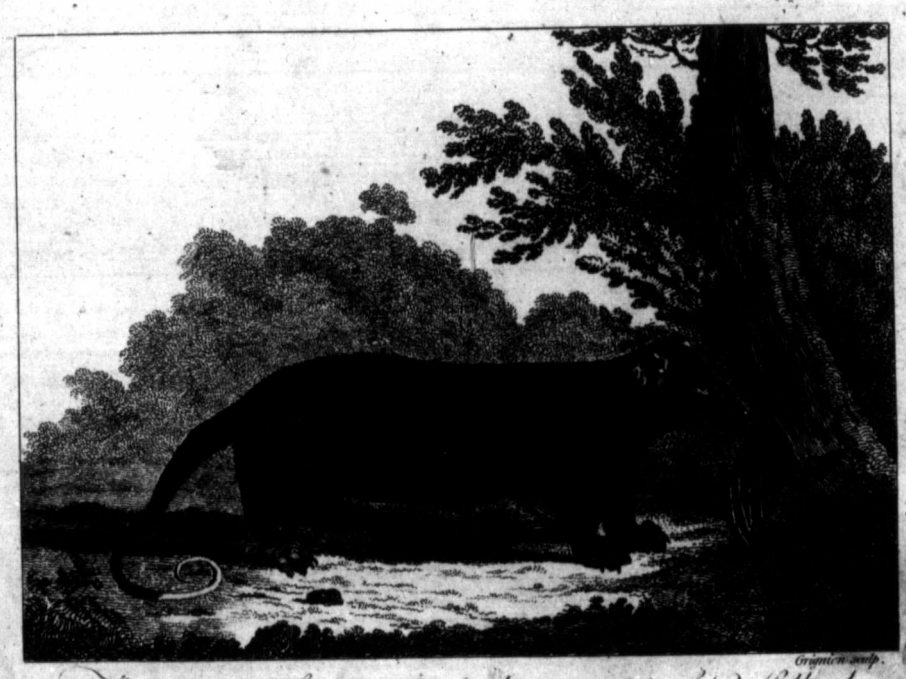
Engraved for BANKES's *New ſyſtem of* GEOGRAPHY *Publiſhed by Royal Authority.*

The KANGUROO *an Animal found on the Coaſt of New Holland.*



Grignion ſculp.

The OPOSSUM *found in the Southern extremity of New Holland.*

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ſmall as hardly to deſerve the name, and are unfurniſhed with thoſe beautiful ornaments which adorn the wings of the oſtrich. All the feathers are extremely coarſe; but the conſtruction of them deſerves notice: they grow in pairs from a ſingle ſhaft, a ſingularity which the author we have quoted has omitted to remark. It may be preſumed, that theſe birds are not very ſcarce, as ſeveral have been ſeen, ſome of them immenſely large; but they are ſo wild as to make ſhooting them a matter of great difficulty. Tho' incapable of flying, they run with ſuch ſwiftneſs, that our fleeteſt greyhounds are left far behind in every attempt to catch them. The fleſh was eaten, and taſted like beef.

The fiſh caught here are in general excellent; but ſeveral of them partake of the properties of the ſhark, like the animals in ſome degree reſembling the kanguroo. The land, the graſs, the trees, the animals, the birds, and the fiſh, in their different ſpecies, approach by ſtrong ſhades of ſimilitude to each other. A certain likeneſs runs through the whole. They are in general palatable, and ſome of them are very delicious. Upon the ſhoals and reefs are incredible numbers of the fineſt green turtle in the world, and oyſters of various kinds, particularly the rock-oyſter, and the pearl-oyſter. The cockles are of ſuch an enormous ſize, that one of them is more than one perſon can eat. There are alſo large muſcles, and ſtingrays, which weigh no leſs than 336 pounds after the entrails are taken out. In the rivers and ſalt creeks are alligators. A ſhark of an enormous ſize was found here, which meaſured, at the ſhoulders, ſix feet and a half in circumference. His liver yielded 24 gallons of oil; and in his ſtomach was found the head of a fiſh of the like ſpecies. The Indians, probably from having felt the effects of their voracious fury, teſtify the utmoſt horror on ſeeing theſe terrible fiſh.

Of inſects, here is a very peculiar kind of ant, as green as a leaf. They live upon trees, where they build their neſts. Theſe neſts are of a very curious ſtructure: they are formed by bending down ſeveral of the leaves, each of which is as broad as a man's hand: they glue the points of them together, ſo as to form a purſe. The viſcous uſed for this purpoſe is an animal juice, which nature has enabled them to elaborate. Their method of firſt bending down the leaves our naturaliſts had not an opportunity to obſerve; but they ſaw thouſands uniting all their ſtrength to hold them in this poſition, while other buſy multitudes were employed within, in applying the gluten that was to prevent their returning back. To ſatisfy themſelves that the leaves were bent and held down by the efforts of theſe diminutive artificers, our people diſturbed them in their work; and, as ſoon as they were driven from their ſtation, the leaves, on which they were employed, ſprang up with a force much greater than they could have thought them able to conquer by any combination of their ſtrength. But though our people gratified their curioſity at the expence of theſe inſects, the injury did not go unrevenged, for thouſands immediately threw themſelves upon them, and gave them intolerable pain with their ſtings, eſpecially thoſe which took poſſeſſion of the neck and hair, from whence they were not eaſily driven. There are upon the leaves of the mangrove great numbers of ſmall green caterpillars; their foreheads are thick ſet with hairs, and they range upon the leaves ſide by ſide, like a file of ſoldiers, to the number of twenty or thirty together; the hair of their bodies, on touching them, has the quality of a nettle, and give a more acute, though leſs durable pain. This country abounds with beautiful plants and flowers, and is therefore adapted to afford great entertainment to the curious in botany. There were found ſome wild ſpinach, parſley and ſorrel; but not in any quantity.

The climate is undoubtedly very deſirable to live in. In ſummer the heats are uſually moderated by the ſea breeze, which ſets in early; and in winter the degree of cold is ſo ſlight, as to occaſion but little inconvenience. It is remarked, as a circumſtance peculiar to this country, that every part of it, even the moſt inacceſſible and rocky, appears as if, at certain times of the year, it was all on fire. Indeed, in many parts large trees are ſeen, the trunks and branches of which are evidently rent and demoliſhed by lightning. The ground was ſo very dry and parched, that poles or pegs could not be driven into it without conſiderable difficulty.

The governor, invariably intent on exploring the country, having formed a party, with unwearied induſtry, and great toil, traverſed an extenſive track of ground, which appeared, from ſuch obſervations as could be made, capable of producing every thing which a happy ſoil and genial climate can bring forth. The face of the country was ſuch as to promiſe ſucceſs, whenever it ſhould be cultivated; for the ſoil was found to be much richer than as deſcribed by Captain Cook; as, inſtead of ſand, they found a deep black mould, which ſeemed very fit for the production of grain of any kind. But ſuch were the labour and difficulty attending the clearing of the ground, that, incredible as it may appear, it is a known fact, that ten or twelve men have been employed for five whole days in grubbing up a tree; and when this has been effected, the timber has only been fit for fire wood; ſo that, in conſequence of the great labour in clearing the ground, and the weak ſtate of the people, to which may be added the ſcarcity of tools, moſt of thoſe brought from England being loſt in the woods among the graſs, through the careleſsneſs of the convicts, the proſpect of future ſucceſs is not the moſt promiſing, till they can ſo far clear the ground, as to produce a ſufficient ſupport for the new ſettlement: but, however, the richneſs of the ſoil will amply repay them, when they can ſurmount this difficulty.

The timber is very unfit for the purpoſe of building; the only purpoſe for which it will anſwer is firewood, and for that it is excellent; but in other reſpects it is the worſt wood that any country or climate can produce; although ſome of the trees, when ſtanding, appear fit for any uſe whatever, maſts for ſhipping not excepted. Strange as it may be imagined, moſt of the wood in this country, though dried ever ſo well, will not float. Repeated trials have only ſerved to prove, that, immediately on immerſion, it ſinks to the bottom like a ſtone. The trees were not of many ſpecies. Among others, there was a large one, which yielded a gum not unlike that called dragon's blood. In the woods was found a tree, which bore fruit, that, in colour and ſhape, reſembled a cherry: the juice had an agreeable tartneſs, though but little flavour. Between the trees the ground is covered with graſs, of which there is great abundance, growing in tufts as large as can well be graſped in the hand, which ſtand very cloſe to each other. In thoſe places where trees are ſcarce, a variety of flowering ſhrubs abound, moſt of them entirely new to an European, and ſurpaſſing, in beauty, fragrance, and number, all ever ſeen in an uncultivated ſtate. Among theſe a tall ſhrub, bearing an elegant white flower, which ſmells like Engliſh may, is particularly delightful, and perfumes the air around to a great diſtance.

There is a kind of vine, running to a great extent along the ground: the ſtalk is not ſo thick as the ſmalleſt honey-ſuckle, nor is the leaf ſo large as the common bay leaf, though ſomewhat ſimilar to it; and the taſte is ſweet, exactly like the liquorice root of the ſhops. Of this the convicts and ſoldiers make an infuſion, which is tolerably pleaſant, and ſerves as no bad ſuccedaneum for tea. The ſurgeon found it to be a good pectoral, and not at all unpleaſant.

Free ſtone, of an excellent quality, abounds in this country, which was conſidered as an happy circumſtance, as it tended ſo materially to forward the intended plan of forming the town. The greateſt impediment

ment to building was a want of lime-ſtone, of which no ſigns had hitherto appeared. Clay, for making bricks, abounding, a conſiderable quantity of them were burned, and ready for uſe.

Succeſſion of Occurrences at Port Jackſon to the cloſe of the Year 1789.

IN the month of March, 1788, the ſcurvy prevailed amongſt the ſeamen, marines, and convicts, in a greater degree than when on board the ſhips, which appeared rather extraordinary, after having been ſome time on land, and obtaining the advantage of vegetable productions; but this was attributed by the gentlemen of the faculty to the neceſſity of continuing the ſame ſalt diet: however, excepting theſe, and a few who were troubled with dyſenteries, the people in general enjoyed a tolerable ſtate of health.

About the middle of May a convaleſcent, who had been ſent from the hoſpital to gather vegetables, was killed by the natives. Soon after this accident a report prevailed that part of the bones of a man had been found near a fire, at which a party of the natives had been regaling themſelves. This report gave riſe to a conjecture, that, as this man had been murdered near the ſpot, thoſe who committed the act had devoured him. It cannot be poſitively affirmed, that the natives of this place are in general cannibals; but, from this circumſtance, there is ground to ſuſpect, that if the horrid cuſtom of eating human fleſh does not univerſally prevail, it is ſometimes practiſed: indeed, it was confirmed by the reply of a native to one of the coloniſts, who, interrogating him on the ſubject, he acknowledged that one of their chiefs had eaten a man he had ſlain.

On the 27th of Auguſt, the Supply tender arrived from Norfolk Iſland, whither ſhe had been diſpatched by the governor with ſtores and proviſions for the ſettlement he had formed there: and in the month of October the governor ſent the Sirius to the Cape of Good Hope, to purchaſe proviſions for the accommodation of the ſettlement: whence ſhe returned, and anchored in Sydney Cove on the 8th of May, 1789. She had been abſent 219 days, 51 of which ſhe lay in Table Bay, Cape of Good Hope; ſo that it is obſerved by the officer who commanded the Sirius, that, although, during the voyage, they had fairly gone round the world, they had only been 168 days in deſcribing that circle.

Settlement formed at Norfolk Iſland. Its Progreſs, &c. Deſcription of the Iſland.

IN the beginning of February, 1788, Governor Philip ſignified his intention of ſending Lieutenant King of the Sirius, with ſome marines and convicts, to form a ſettlement on Norfolk Iſland. Accordingly that officer, having received his commiſſion, appointing him ſuperintendant and commandant of Norfolk Iſland, embarked for that purpoſe with twenty-three perſons on board the Supply tender on the 15th. On the 29th of February they made Norfolk Iſland, at the diſtance of ſeven or eight leagues. Lieutenant King, on their approach, landed in the boat with the commander of the Supply, in queſt of a place to caſt anchor. Rowing along ſhore, they obſerved, towards the north-eaſt point of the iſland, a cluſter of high rocks, to which the commander gave the name of Cook's Rocks, from that celebrated navigator's having diſcovered this iſland, and landed near theſe rocks, in 1774. After ſeveral fruitleſs attempts, they landed at length on the ſide of a large rock, which lies cloſe to the ſhore, at the weſt end of a ſmall ſtony beach. This was imagined to be the rock on which Captain Cook landed, as there is no other place on that ſide of the iſland where it could have been practicable: But it was found an improper place to land either the people or ſtores, there being no freſh water near it.

On the 4th of March the commandant, with his officers, landed again, in order to take a view of the country; and, after aſcending a very ſteep hill, got to the top of the iſland, which they found to be a plain; but every foot of ground was covered with trees, or large roots of trees, which not only obſtructed their paſſage, but obliged them to cut their way through them. During this excurſion, they did not ſee a leaf of flax, or any kind of herb: the ground, though the ſoil was both rich and deep, was entirely bare. This appeared very ſingular, after Captain Cook had obſerved, that the flax plant was rather more abundant here than he had found it to be in New Zealand. Birds were ſeen in great number and variety, ſuch as pigeons, parrots, parroquets, doves, &c. They were ſo remarkably tame, that they were knocked down with ſticks. As large pieces of pumice-ſtone were diſperſed in every part of the iſland, it was imagined that a crater, or the remains of one, might be found at or near a mountain in the middle of the iſland; which, in honour of the Chancellor of the Exchequer, was called Mount Pitt.

At length a place, afterwards called Anſon's Bay, having been explored, was found fit for landing. Here, therefore, the commandant was determined to fix; and accordingly, on the 6th of March left the Supply with two boats, in which were all the perſons belonging to the ſettlement, together with the tents, a part of the proviſions, and ſome of the uſeful tools. Theſe being landed, they began clearing a ſmall piece of ground to erect the tents upon. The colours were hoiſted; and, before ſun-ſet, every perſon and article belonging to the ſettlement were on ſhore, and the tents pitched. Soon after landing, they found a very fine rivulet of water, which ran cloſe at the back of the ground where the ſettlement was fixed. As there were only twelve men, one of whom was a man ſeventy-two years old, and another a boy of fifteen, excluſive of the mate and ſurgeon, the progreſs of the ſettlement for ſome time was very ſlow.

On the 9th of March (being Sunday) every perſon in the ſettlement aſſembled in the governor's tent, where he performed divine ſervice; after which his commiſſion from Governor Philip was read, appointing Lieutenant King ſuperintendant and commandant of this iſland. The commandant then aſſured the people in general, that his intention was to forward the King's ſervice to the utmoſt of his power: he endeavoured to impreſs on the minds of the convicts his reſolution, that thoſe who were idle or diſhoneſt, ſhould meet with condign puniſhment. He informed them what ratio of proviſions would be allowed daily; and propoſed every encouragement to incite them to induſtry and good behaviour.

From this time to the middle of the month, the people were employed in clearing away, and turning up the garden ground, which was ſown in a rich and deep ſoil, with different ſeeds, and afforded a pleaſing proſpect of ſucceſs.

In proceſs of time, one of the officers, in an excurſion about the iſland, diſcovered the flax-plant. As no deſcription had been given of this plant, our coloniſts had no idea of its being what Captain Cook calls the flax-plant of New Zealand. The cliffs and ſhore near the ſettlement were covered with it. The root is bulbous; and the plant, in its general form, bears great reſemblance to the iris, except that the leaves are much thicker and larger: the flaxy part is the fibres, which extend the whole length of the leaf: towards the root they are very thick and ſtrong, and diminiſh in ſize as they approach the end of the leaf. The flax-plant in its green ſtate is of ſurpriſing ſtrength. As Captain Cook had given no deſcription of the method of preparing this plant, our coloniſts adopted the European method of preparing the flax.

The ſtore-houſe being finiſhed in the beginning of April, the proviſions and ſtores were conveyed from the commandant's tent, and depoſited there. A blight from the ſouth-weſt deſtroyed all the plants that were in a thriving ſtate, which, added to the deſtruction of ſome Indian corn by the rats, proved very diſtreſſing circumſtances. As

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As it was found that no vegetables would thrive at this ſeaſon on the ſouth-ſide of the mount, it was deemed expedient to turn up the garden ground, and ſow it with wheat. The tents were moved, ſome of the men began to build huts; and the carpenters were employed in the preparation of materials for building an houſe for the commandant.

The new coloniſts had reaſon to fear that the turtle, of which they found great numbers at their firſt landing, were frightened away from the iſland, as none had been ſeen near the beach during the courſe of a month. They felt the want of this reſource, as the turtle proved ſo ſalutary to every individual on the iſland; not one of whom was free from the ſcurvy on landing; and ſome of the convicts were affected with it in an extreme degree; but the people in general were ſoon entirely recovered. They laboured under a dearth of garden vegetables, but found a good ſubſtitute in the cabbage-tree, the excellence of which is well known to all who have viſited theſe climes. The rats, which abound here, deſtroyed the wheat which was ſown within the ſpace of three days; and as the coloniſts had no cats, and only one dog, and were grievouſly annoyed by theſe vermin, the empty caſks were converted into traps.

On the 6th of April, ſeveral orders were made for the preſervation of regularity and decorum, which, though they did not affect matters that deſerved corporal puniſhment, might prevent ſuch miſdemeanours as would render ſuch a ſtep neceſſary. Theſe orders, which related to the attendance on divine worſhip on Sundays, the ſtated hours of working, encouragement held out to the induſtrious, and other particulars inſtituted for the general good, were therefore read diſtinctly in preſence of all the people in the iſland.

Having made theſe neceſſary diſpoſitions, the commandant proceeded to give ſuch directions, and make ſuch arrangements, as might tend to further the progreſs of the ſettlement. Some of the convicts were employed in clearing away the ground for the purpoſe of cultivation; others in clearing a road from the ground where the tents had been pitched to the freſh water rivulet; two ſawyers were employed in ſawing timber, to build an houſe for the commandant; and others in building huts. But theſe operations were frequently retarded by colds, to which, though the only ſickneſs hitherto experienced, the people were very ſubject. The workmen, indeed, had been often blinded for ſeveral days together by the white ſap of a tree, which, getting into their eyes, occaſioned an excruciating pain for a conſiderable time. The beſt remedy was Florence oil, which being dropped into the eye, deſtroyed the acrimony of the ſap. One man was totally blinded with it, for want of timely application for relief. Two ſawyers, the carpenter, and three convicts, were poiſoned by eating ſome beans, which reſembled the Windſor bean in appearance. They were ſeized with violent gripings, retchings, and cold ſweats. Sweet oil, and ſome other medicines, happily afforded them relief; but they were ſo weakened as not to be able to work for ſome days.

The people received a fortunate ſupply of fiſh on the 9th of May; but this reſource could not be depended upon, as they were frequently prevented from going out by a violent ſurf: however, when a boat could be ſent out, they never failed of ſucceſs in fiſhing. Pigeons were very numerous on their firſt landing, and ſo tame that they were knocked down with ſticks; but afterwards they harboured about the tops of the trees. Many were taken that weighed from three quarters to one pound each. On the 25th of October the ſettlement conſiſted of 61 perſons.

On the 8th of December all the barley was houſed which had been raiſed on an acre of ground, and was ſown in June and July. During its early growth it had a moſt promiſing appearance; but when the ear was ſhot, and nearly filled, ſome heavy rains in September laid great part of it down, beſides a great quantity that was deſtroyed by rats and quails; ſo that, inſtead of getting at the leaſt fifty buſhels of grain, according to expectation, the whole, when gleaned, yielded no more than ten buſhels. The barley, though ſmall in quantity, was very fine, and 116 ears were produced from one grain. Garden vegetables ſucceeded very well, and cabbages were cut that weighed twenty pounds each. On the 22d ſome wheat was reaped that had been ſown on the eleventh of Auguſt; the grain was full and fine; but the crop was not ſo good as expected.

On the 25th of February, 1789, the new ſettlement ſuſtained a moſt ſevere ſhock from a dreadful hurricane, attended with conſtant deluges of rain. Pines and oak trees were torn up by the roots; and others, whoſe roots were too deep in the earth to be torn up, bent their tops nearly to the ground. To add to the horror of the ſcene, a very large tree fell acroſs the granary, and daſhed it to pieces, ſtaving a number of flour caſks; but, by the activity of the people, the flour, Indian corn, and ſtores, were collected, and lodged in the commandant's houſe. The products of the gardens were nearly deſtroyed; for, incredible as it may appear, the violence of the wind blew up cabbages, turnips, and other vegetables, by the roots; but happily the wind at length veered about, the ſtorm ſubſided, and fine weather ſucceeded this moſt tremendous hurricane.

On the 7th of May the wheat, which had before a very fine appearance, was blighted in many places by a ſmall black caterpillar. Many methods were uſed to extirpate them, but without effect; nothing particular occurred in the remaining part of this year; but the ſettlement, from the numbers ſent at different times from Port Jackſon, now amounted to one hundred and forty-nine.

On the 13th of March, 1790, Governor Philip ſent Lieutenant Governor Roſs to take the command of Norfolk Iſland; the ſervice rendering it neceſſary for Lieutenant King, who was firſt appointed commandant, to return to England, in order to give his Majeſty's Miniſters ſuch particular information relative to the ſettlement he had eſtabliſhed, as could not be conveyed by letter.

Having ſtated the particulars reſpecting the riſe and progreſs of the ſettlement upon this iſland, we ſhall add a few obſervations relative to the iſland itſelf.

Norfolk Iſland is ſituated in the latitude of 29 degrees, 0 min. ſouth; and in the longitude of 168 degrees, 0 min. eaſt. Its form is nearly oblong, and it contains from twelve to fourteen thouſand acres. It is ſix miles in length, and four in breadth. The face of the country is hilly, and ſome of the vallies are tolerably large for the ſize of the iſland. Many of the hills are very ſteep, and ſome few ſo very perpendicular that they cannot be cultivated; but where ſuch ſituations are, they will do very well for fuel: on the tops of the hills are ſome very extenſive flats.

Mount Pitt is the only remarkable high hill in the iſland, and is about one hundred and fifty fathoms high. The cliffs which ſurround the iſland are about forty fathoms high, and perpendicular; the baſis of the iſland is a hard firm clay. The whole iſland is covered with a thick wood, choaked up with a thick underwood. The air is remarkably ſalubrious; as a proof of it, it is remarked by an officer belonging to the ſettlement, that he never knew the conſtitutions either of the human race, or any other animal, more prolific in any part of the world: two children at a birth is no uncommon thing; and elderly women, who have believed themſelves long paſt the period of child-bearing, have repeatedly had as fine healthy children as ever were ſeen. There is not only a fine rivulet at the back of the ſettlement, as before obſerved, but many ſtreams of water large enough to turn a mill; and all theſe ſtreams abound with fine eels.

The ſoil is in general good; but, from the ſides of the cliffs which ſurround the coaſt, to the ſummit of

Mount Pitt, it is excellent; varying from a rich brown mould to a light red earth. Lieutenant King was of opinion that this iſland, from the goodneſs of the ſoil, was capable of maintaing one hundred families, allowing to each one hundred acres of ground, and reſerving two thouſand for fuel: he makes no doubt but that, with induſtry, they would in a ſhort time procure all the neceſſaries of life, except cloathing, an article that muſt depend on the cultivation of the flax, which might be effected by ſending ſome perſons to New Zealand, to obſerve and acquire their mode of dreſſing it.

There are five kinds of trees on the iſland which are good timber, viz. The pine, live oak, a yellow wood, a hard black wood, and a kind of beech. The pine trees are of a large ſize, many of which are from one hundred and eighty to two hundred and twenty feet in height, and from ſix to nine feet in diameter. Thoſe trees which are from one hundred to one hundred and eighty feet in height, are, in general, ſound from the root to the lower branches; there are from eighty to ninety feet of ſound timber: the reſt is too hard and knotty for uſe. It ſometimes happens, that, after cutting off twenty feet from the butt, it becomes rotten or ſhakey; for which reaſon no dependence can be put in it for large maſts or yards. The timber of the pine is very uſeful in buildings, and is plentiful along the coaſts. Its diſperſed ſituation in the interior parts of the iſland, is well calculated for erecting ſuch buildings as may be neceſſary. From what has been ſeen of this wood, it is very durable; two boats have been built of it, and have anſwered the purpoſe fully. The live oak, yellow wood, black wood, and beech, are all of a cloſe grain, and a durable wood.

Sydney Bay, on the ſouth ſide of the iſland, is where the ſettlement is made. Landing at this place entirely depends on the wind and the weather. Sometimes there is as good landing as in the Thames for a fortnight or three weeks together, at other times it is impracticable to land for ten or twelve days ſucceſſively; but it is much oftener good landing than bad. Anſon Bay is a ſmall bay with a ſandy beach, where landing is in general good with an off-ſhore wind and moderate weather. Ball Bay is on the ſouth-eaſt ſide of the iſland; the beach is of large looſe ſtone. When landing is bad in Sydney Bay it is very good here; as it alſo is in Caſcade Bay on the north ſide of the iſland.

The Spring is viſible in Auguſt; but the native trees, and many plants in the iſland, are in a conſtant ſtate of flowering. The Summer is warm, and ſometimes the droughts are very great. All the grain and European plants ſeeded in December. From February to Auguſt may be called the rainy ſeaſon: not that there are any ſtated times for rains in theſe months, as it is ſometimes very fine weather for a fortnight together; but when the rain does fall it is in torrents; but thunder is very rare. The Winter is very pleaſant, and it never freezes.

The proper time for ſowing wheat and barley is from May to Auguſt, and is got in in December. That which was ſowed produced twenty-five fold. Two buſhels of barley, ſowed in 1789, produced twenty-four buſhels of a ſound full grain. The Indian corn produced well; and it was the general opinion, the beſt grain to cultivate in any quantity, on account of the little trouble attending its growth and manufacturing for eating. The Rio Janeiro ſugar cane grows very well, and is thriving. Vines and oranges are very thriving; of the former there will be a great quantity in a few years. Potatoes thrive remarkably well, and yield a very great increaſe. Two crops a year of that article may be got with great eaſe. Every kind of garden vegetable thrives well, and comes to great perfection. The quantity of ground cleared, and in cultivation, belonging to the public, was on the 13th of March, 1790, from twenty-eight to thirty-two acres; and about eighteen cleared by free people and convicts for their gardens. One great inconvenience attending this iſland, is the want of a ſafe harbour, and the conſequent difficulty of acceſs to it; but this diſadvantage is counterpoiſed by its fertility; it being the opinion of Lieutenant King that it would produce, by induſtrious cultivation, in courſe of time, a ſufficient quantity of grain to ſupply both the ſettlements. The number of inhabitants on Norfolk Iſland, in March 1790, amounted to 498.

Improvements in the Settlement and Country of Port Jackſon. State of both the Settlements in 1792.

IN April, 1790, the ſettlement at Port Jackſon was greatly improved. Some good buildings were erected for the accommodation of the governor, lieutenant governor, judge-advocate, and many of the officers, civil and military. The hoſpital was a convenient temporary building; and the inferior officers were lodged in comfortable huts. The gardens adjoining were not very productive, the ſoil but indifferent, and the habitations were infeſted by rats. The ſoil at a ſmall diſtance from Sydney Cove is better; that ſpot is therefore occupied by the officers, and others, as their farms. There are alſo brick-kilns and a pottery; and they made bricks and earthen ware tolerably well; but had not the art of glazing the latter, which ſubjected them to a great inconvenience.

In February, 1791, great improvements were carrying on at Port Jackſon; a conſiderable town was laid out at Roſe Hill, a very pleaſant ſituation; many good buildings were erected, and roads cut. Several acres of land were cleared for corn, and eighty acres for buildings and gardens. But the ſoil about Roſe Hill requires good farmers, and much manure, before plentiful crops can be expected. From the ſudden viciſſitudes of cold and heat, this country may be ſuppoſed very unhealthy; but four years experience have proved otherwiſe.

In the beginning of May, the officers and men of the New South Wales corps went into the new barrack at Roſe Hill. Thoſe natives who had been moſt accuſtomed to live at the ſettlement, would leave it for ſeveral days together, as they found fiſh plenty towards the head of the harbour.

The buildings at Roſe Hill being carried on ſo far as to form a regular town between Roſe Hill and the landing place in the creek, it was named by the governor Parramatta. Grants of land were now given for the firſt time to thoſe who became ſettlers, and thoſe who had been permitted to clear the ground at their leiſure hours, and in one day of the week, allowed them for that purpoſe, made a conſiderable progreſs. One of the grants conſiſted of thirty acres, another of ſixty, and another of one hundred and forty acres. It being the intention of government that, at the time for which the convicts were ſentenced expired, they ſhould be permitted to become ſettlers, thoſe who choſe to accept this bounty were received as ſuch, and lands granted them according to their relative connections.

In the courſe of this year a whale fiſhery was firſt introduced on the coaſt of New South Wales. Meſſrs. Enderby, of London, merchants, were the firſt who adventured to the South Seas in queſt of whales. The maſter of the Britannia, a veſſel in their ſervice, having aſſured the governor that he had ſeen more ſpermacæti whales in his paſſage from the Cape to Port Jackſon than he had ever ſeen on the Brazil coaſt, the Britannia, with his concurrence, ſailed in company with other veſſels, the 25th of October, on a cruize, and returned on the 10th of November, being the firſt ſhip that had ever fiſhed for whales on the coaſt of New South Wales. The cruize was attended with ſucceſs; and the Britannia had to boaſt, of killing the firſt four whales on this coaſt. In the month of December ſeveral improvements were made at Sydney Cove, and in particular a building was covered in at Parramatta, which was intended as a place of worſhip until a church could be built.

By that time the ſettlement at Norfolk Iſland was conſiderably improved. The wheat harveſt was ſucceſsful,

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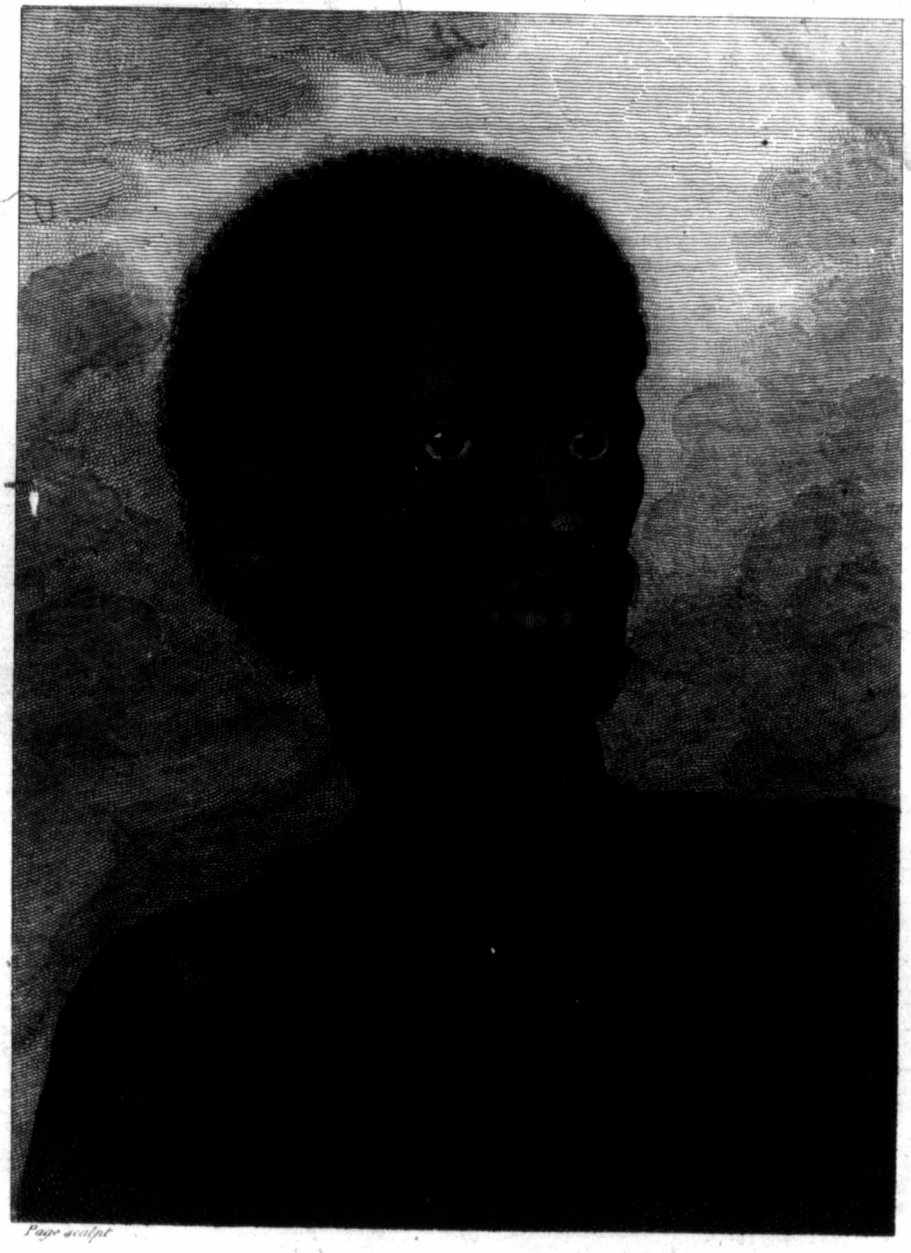

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ceſsful, yielding about a thouſand buſhels of wheat, which were well got in, and thatched in ſtacks. The convict ſettlers were quiet, decent, and orderly, and had greatly improved the grants of land allotted them. The Lieutenant Governor had eſtabliſhed ſome military regulations, and laid down rules for the obſervance of every perſon on the iſland; ſo that on the 15th of January, 1792, things in general wore a promiſing aſpect in this ſettlement: 260 buſhels of Indian corn were gathered in; many acres were in different ſtates of growth, and likely to yield plentiful harveſts. The ſtore houſes and granaries were in good repair; and every effort was made to extirpate the vermin with which they were infeſted. Indeed, it appears, from the teſtimony of Governor Philip, that at the time of his departure for England, which was at this period, both the ſettlements were in a very flouriſhing ſtate with reſpect to their vegetable productions, as well as the live ſtock. The vines flouriſhed exceedingly, and afforded the coloniſts the pleaſing expectation of a ſpeedy and ample ſupply of wines. At Norfolk Iſland a quantity of excellent lime-ſtone was diſcovered, which forming a very good cement, obviated every inconvenience to which they had been previouſly ſubjected in erecting their buildings. Such had been the increaſe of inhabitants upon Norfolk Iſland, that another ſettlement had been formed, and promiſed in its infant ſtate to vie with that at Sydney Cove. In a word, we are juſtified, from unqueſtionable authority, to ſtate, that this new colony, though formed in a region ſo remote, and ſo little known, affords every reaſonably ground for concluding, that, notwithſtanding the repreſentations of many writers to the contrary, it will effectually anſwer every deſign of its formation, and fully evince the prudence and utility of a plan adapted to accompliſh every ſalutary purpoſe of government, reſpecting individuals in particular, and the community in general. This account arrived in 1793.

SECTION III.

VAN DIEMEN's LAND,

THE SOUTHERN EXTREMITY OF NEW HOLLAND.

Climate, Quadrupeds, Birds, Fiſh, and Inſects. Perſons, Genius, Dreſs, Habitations of the Natives, &c.

VAN Diemen's Land was ſo named by Taſman, a Dutch navigator, who diſcovered it in November, 1642. From that time it had eſcaped all further notice by European navigators, till Captain Furneaux touched at it in March, 1773, and after him Captain Cook in 1777. It has many marks of being naturally a dry country, and, perhaps, might (independent of its wood) be compared to Africa about the Cape of Good Hope. The heat was ſo great, that birds were ſeldom killed more than an hour or two, before they were almoſt covered with ſmall maggots. The only quadrupeds here are a kind of opoſſum, and the kanguroo. There are ſeveral ſorts of birds. In the woods are yelloviſh parroquets; and another ſmall one, which has part of the head and neck of a moſt beautiful azure colour, and was thence named *motacilla cyanea*. The reſt of the birds are common with thoſe in the other parts of the iſland. On the ſhore were ſeveral gulls, black oyſter-catchers, or ſea-pies, and plovers, of a ſtone colour, with a black hood. About the pond, or lake, behind the beach, a few wild ducks were ſeen; and ſome ſhags were obſerved to perch upon the high leafleſs trees near the ſhore. The ſea affords great variety of fiſh, as the elephant-fiſh, rays, nurſes, leather-jackets, white bream, ſoles, flounders, garnards, beſides a ſort not recollected to have been ſeen before, and which partakes of the nature both of a round and flat-fiſh. Upon the rocks are plenty of muſcles, and other ſmall ſhell-fiſh; and ſome pretty Meduſa's heads were found upon the beach. Some blackiſh ſnakes and lizards were ſeen in the woods. There is a conſiderable variety of inſects here, though they are not very numerous. The moſt troubleſome are the muſquitos, and a large black ant, whoſe bite inflicts extreme pain during the ſhort time it laſts.

The inhabitants of this part of New Holland have little of that wild or fierce appearance common to the people on the eaſtern coaſt; but, on the contrary, ſeem mild and chearful, without reſerve or jealouſy of ſtrangers. This, however, may ariſe from their having little to loſe or care for. With reſpect to perſonal activity or genius, little can be ſaid of either. They do not ſeem to poſſeſs the firſt in any remarkable degree; and as for the laſt, they have, to appearance, leſs than the half-animated inhabitants of Terra del Fuego, who have not invention ſufficient to make cloathing for defending themſelves from the rigour of their climate, though furniſhed with the materials. It muſt be owned, however, that they are maſters of ſome contrivance, in the manner of cutting their arms and bodies in lines of different lengths and directions, which are raiſed conſiderably above the ſkin; ſo that it is difficult to gueſs the method they uſe in executing this embroidery of their perſons. Their colour is a dull black, like that of the Negroes. It ſhould ſeem alſo, that they ſometimes heighten their black colour by ſmutting their bodies, as a mark was left behind on any clean ſubſtance, ſuch as white paper, when they handled it. Their hair is perfectly woolly; and it is clotted or divided into ſmall parcels, like that of the Hottentots, with the uſe of ſome ſort of greaſe, mixed with a red paint or ochre, which they ſmear in great abundance over their heads. Their noſes, though not flat, are broad and full. The lower part of the face projects conſiderably; ſo that a line let fall from the forehead, would cut off a much larger proportion than it would in the Europeans. Their eyes are of a middling ſize, with the whites leſs clear than in us; and though not remarkably quick or piercing, they are ſuch as give a frank, chearful caſt to the whole countenance. Their teeth are broad, but not equal, nor well ſet; and, either from nature, or from dirt, not of ſo true a white as is uſual among people of a black colour. Their mouths are rather wide; and this appearance ſeems heightened by wearing their beards long, and clotted with paint, in the ſame manner as the hair on their heads. Their bellies project conſiderably; which may be owing to the want of compreſſion in that part, which moſt nations uſe more or leſs. *See the Engraving affixed.*

The females wear a kanguroo ſkin, in the ſame ſhape as it comes from the animal, tied over the ſhoulders, and round the waiſt. But its only uſe ſeemed to be to ſupport their children, when carried on their backs; for it did not cover thoſe parts which moſt nations conceal, they being, in all other reſpects, as naked as the men, and their bodies marked with ſcars in the ſame manner. But in this they differ from the men, that ſome of them had their heads completely ſhaved.

The ſtories of the ancient poets, concerning fauns and ſatyrs living in hollow trees, are here realized. Some wretched conſtructions of ſticks, covered with bark, which does not deſerve the name even of huts, were found near the ſhore in the bay; but theſe ſeemed only to have been erected for temporary purpoſes; and many of their largeſt trees were converted into more comfortable habitations. Theſe had their trunks hollowed out by fire, to the height of ſix or ſeven feet; and that they took up their abode in them ſometimes, was evident from the hearths, made of clay to contain the fire in the middle, leaving room for four or five perſons to ſit round it. At the ſame time theſe ſhelters are durable; for they take care to leave one ſide of the tree ſound, which is ſufficient to keep it growing as luxuriantly as thoſe which remained untouched.

Captain Furneaux explored the coaſt from Van Diemen's Land to the latitude of 39 deg. ſouth; and Capt. Cook from Point Hicks, which lies in 37 deg. 58 min. to Endeavour Straits. The intermediate ſpace, between the end of Furneaux's diſcovery and Point Hicks, is, therefore, the only part of the ſouth-eaſt coaſt unknown.

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CHAP. II.

NEW ZEALAND.

SECTION I.

Diſcovery. Deſcription of the Country, as to Situation, Extent, Soil, Climate, Mountains, &c. &c.

TASMAN, a Dutch navigator, mentioned on a former occaſion, diſcovered this high mountainous country in the year 1642. He coaſted the eaſtern part from the latitude of 34 to 43 deg. Meeting with a very hoſtile reception from the natives as ſoon as he came to anchor, he thought it prudent to weigh without ſo much as attempting to land; but gave the appellation of Murderer's Bay to the road in which he dropped anchor, and the general name of New Zealand to the whole country, at that period ſuppoſed to be part of a ſouthern continent.

New Zealand has been repeatedly viſited by Captain Cook: firſt in 1769; in the cloſe of which, and the beginning of the enſuing year, he coaſted the country during a ſpace of ſix months, and found it to conſiſt of two large iſlands, divided by a paſſage (now called Cook's Straits) about four or five leagues broad, and lying nearly north and ſouth of each other, between the latitude of 34 deg. 22 min. and 47 deg. 25 min. ſouth; and between the longitude of 166 and 180 deg. eaſt. The ſame navigator viſited it again in 1773; and, for the third time, in 1774.

The two iſlands are nearly of the ſame extent, and, taken together, as large as Great Britain, having many ſmall iſlands about them. The northernmoſt is called, by the natives, Eahei-nomarve; and the ſouthermoſt, Tovy, or Tovai-Poenammoo. The latter is moſtly hilly, and, to appearance, barren, and thinly inhabited; but the former, though very mountainous, is tolerably fertile, and can boaſt of a rivulet running through every valley. Though theſe vallies do not abound with wood, yet, from the apparent nature of the ſoil, it was the opinion of our ingenious and ſpeculative countryman, that every kind of European grain would flouriſh here; and that, through the exertion of induſtry in cultivation, not only the neceſſaries, but luxuries of life, might be obtained in great variety. The climate, upon the whole, is more temperate than that of England, as appeared from the vegetables that were found growing there in the winter ſeaſon.

Captain Cook, during the courſe of his ſix months circuit, in which he fully explored the coaſts of both iſlands, gave names to ſeveral bays, rivers, and other parts of theſe coaſts, from remarkable characters, and various occurring circumſtances. For inſtance, he called the firſt place where he anchored Poverty Bay, becauſe no neceſſaries were found there but wood. The next port he made was named Mercury Bay, becauſe an obſervation was there made of the tranſit of Mercury over the Sun; it is ſituated in latitude 36 deg. 57 min. The river that empties itſelf at the head of Mercury Bay, he called the River Thames, from its apparent reſemblance to our river of that name; and its banks are pointed out as the moſt advantageous ſpot in theſe iſlands for planting a colony. The Bay of Iſlands, lying more to the northward, derives its appellation from the great number of iſlands contiguous, and from its ſeveral harbours, which are equally ſafe and commodious.

North Cape, or Cape North, ſo called from its ſituation, is the northern extremity of land on the iſland Eahei-nomarve. The coaſt along the weſtern ſhore was called, The Deſart Coaſt; and a peak, remarkably high, of a moſt majeſtic appearance, from the ſpace which the ſnow occupies on it, ſuppoſed to be not much inferior to the Peak of Teneriffe, was named Mount Egmont; and the ſhore under it, forming a large cape, received the appellation of Cape Egmont.

The ſouthern iſland was as accurately ſurveyed as the northern. Here likewiſe, from the cauſes above mentioned, names were given to ſeveral parts, as Banks's Iſland, Cape Saunders, The Traps, Duſky Bay, Admiralty Bay, &c. &c.

In Queen Charlotte's Sound (in which is ſituated Murderer's Bay, ſo called by Taſman) was diſcovered a fine ſtream of excellent water, and wood in abundance. The inhabitants, who ſcarcely exceeded four hundred in number, were diſperſed along the ſhore. They are poorer than the inhabitants of other parts of the country: their ground is uncultivated; their chief food is fiſh and fearn roots; and their canoes are without ornament. The climate here is much milder than that of Duſky Bay; and, as no froſt was ſeen at the beginning of June, almoſt the depth of winter, it is probable that it ſeldom freezes here. There were ſome curioſities found on the hills and beaches; and, from many different appearances, the former exiſtence of a volcano in New Zealand was more than conjectured. Queen Charlotte's Sound is particularly eligible as a port and place of refreſhment, from the number of antiſcorbutic plants which grow upon every beach, many of which contribute to health and aliment.

SECTION II.

Animal and Vegetable Productions, as Trees, Plants, Inſects, Birds, Beaſts, Fiſhes, &c.

FROM the lateſt account it appears, that the vegetable productions of this country ſufficiently indicate the quality of the ſoil: indeed, the ſtrength in vegetation muſt be greatly aſſiſted by the temperature of the climate. The hills, except a few towards the ſea, are one continued foreſt of lofty trees, which flouriſh with uncommon vigour: and it was remarked, that no country abounded, upon the whole, ſo much with trees and plants, that were entirely unknown to the naturaliſts of Europe, as New Zealand. The ſize, growth, and durability of the timber, render it fit for any kind of building.

The large trees on the hills are chiefly of two ſorts: one of them is of the ſize of our largeſt firs, and grows nearly in the ſame manner. A decoction of its leaves, fermented with ſugar or treacle, ſupplies the place of ſpruce in making beer; and our countryman acknowledged it to be little inferior to American ſpruce beer: the other ſort of tree is like a maple, and often grows very large, but is only fit for fuel, the wood being too heavy for maſts and yards; though it was the general opinion, that if ſome means could be deviſed to lighten them, they would produce maſts ſuperior to thoſe of any country in Europe.

There was found, in Duſky Bay, a beautiful tree, in flower, of the myrtle kind, of which an infuſion was drank inſtead of tea. Its leaves are aromatic, aſtringent, and have a very pleaſant flavour at the firſt infuſion, which is changed to a ſtrong bitter, on pouring water on the leaves a ſecond time.

A great variety of trees grow on the flats behind the beaches. Two or three bear a kind of plumb, of the ſize of prunes: the one, which is yellow, is called karracca; and the other, which is black, maitao; though neither of them afforded a pleaſant taſte. The woods

in many parts were ſo over-run with ſupple-jacks, that it was ſcarcely poſſible to force a way through them: ſeveral of theſe were fifty or ſixty feet long.

The moſt profitable plants which this country produces, are wild celery and a kind of creſſes, which grow in abundance on all parts of the ſea coaſts. Theſe are ſometimes uſed as ſallad, or dreſſed as greens. In all thoſe ways they are excellent, and, together with the fiſh, form a deſirable refreſhment. Here is the proper mulberry-tree, but extremely rare; and a berry which ſerves the natives inſtead of flax and hemp, and exceeds all that are made uſe of for ſuch purpoſes in other countries. There are two ſorts of this plant: in one kind the flowers are yellow, and in the other a deep red. Of the leaves of theſe plants, with very little preparation, the natives make all their common apparel: of theſe alſo, they make all their lines and cordage for every purpoſe. Theſe are much ſtronger than any thing we can make with hemp. This plant grows in all places near the ſea, and ſometimes a conſiderable way up the hills, in bunches or tufts. Being perennial, it may be cut down to the root every year, and requires little care and attendance in the cultivation. It is remarked, that our botaniſts were greatly tantalized here, by the appearance of numerous trees and ſhrubs, which had loſt their flowers and fruits, and only ſerved to give them an idea of the great profuſion of vegetables in this country.

There is not a great number of inſects in this country. There is a ſort of little crane fly, particularly troubleſome, in the ſouthern parts, during bad weather. The ſand fly, the only noxious one, is very numerous here and is almoſt as diſagreeable as the muſquitoe. Their bite cauſes a ſwelling and an intolerable itching. There are ſome butter-flies, two ſorts of dragon-flies, ſome ſmall graſshoppers, ſeveral ſorts of ſpiders, ſome black ants, and ſcorpion flies, with whoſe chirping the woods reſound. There are ſnakes and lizards of an enormous ſize, deſcribed as eight feet long, and equal to a man's body in circumference.

The woods abound with birds; ſome very beautiful, and moſt of them peculiar to the place. The only bird here which reſembles any in Europe, is the gannet. Here are ducks and ſhags, but very different from any among us. Their hawks, owls, and quails, differ but little. There is a ſmall green-bird, almoſt the only muſical one to be found here. His melody is ſo ſweet, and his notes ſo varied, that the liſtener would imagine himſelf ſurrounded by a variety of birds, when he exerts his vocal powers. From this circumſtance he was called the mocking bird.

Here are water hens of a large ſpecies. Rails are ſcarce in all parts of New Zealand, except at Duſky Bay, where they were ſeen in great numbers: alſo cormorants, oyſter-catchers, or ſea-pies, albatroſſes, ducks, penguins, and other ſorts of the aquatic kind. Five ſpecies of ducks were found in Duſky Bay, differing from each other in ſize and plumage. Among the ſmall birds, are the wattle-bird, the boy-bird, and the fan-tail. Of the fan-tail there are different ſorts; but the body of the moſt remarkable one is ſcarcely larger than a good filbert; yet it ſpreads a tail of moſt beautiful plumage, ſurpriſing in extent, conſidering its ſize. Our late travellers remark that, though it would be difficult and fatiguing to follow the birds of ſport, on account of the quantity of under-wood, and the climbing plants, yet, by continuing in one place, a fowler may ſhoot as many in a day as would ſerve ſeven or eight perſons. The reaſon aſſigned for this obſervation is, that thoſe birds were ſo little acquainted with mankind, that they familiary perched on the neareſt branches. and hopped even on the ends of the fowling pieces, looking at every one that came near them with the greateſt curioſity.

It is remarkable that, in this extenſive country, the only quadrupeds, which are known, are dogs and rats. The dogs are of the rough, long haired ſort, with pricked ears, and much reſembling the ſhepherd's cur. They are of different colours; and, though kept by the natives as a domeſtic animal, pampered and indulged with fiſh as food, in common with their maſters. Their bodies are afterwards eaten by them, and their ſkins applied to various uſes of dreſs and ornament. The cuſtom of eating dog's fleſh is partly general among the inhabitants of theſe ſouthern climes, and was at length adopted by our European navigators, as a relief from the loathſome taſte of ſalt proviſions. The leg of a dog, killed on board one of the ſhips, was roaſted, and ſerved up at the captain's table, which the company, through diſuſe, could not diſtinguiſh from mutton.

Many ſorts of fiſh were caught here by the ſeine, and, amongſt the reſt, a ſpecies unknown in Europe, but very delicious. Every creek ſwarms with them. Mackarel of various kinds were caught in immenſe ſhoals. But the higheſt luxury which the ſea affords here, is the lobſter, or ſea cray-fiſh, which differs from thoſe in Europe in ſeveral particulars. They have a great number of prickles on their backs and are red when firſt taken out of the water. There are elephant-fiſh, mullets, ſoles, flounders, bream, conger-eels, and a fiſh of five or ſix pounds weight, called, by the natives, a mogge. With the hook and line was caught a blackiſh fiſh, called cole-fiſh by the ſeamen, but differing greatly from that of the ſame name in Europe. There is alſo a ſort of ſmall ſalmon, ſkate, gurnards, and nurſes. Theſe, in general, are well flavoured; but the ſmall ſalmon, cole-fiſh, and mogge, are ſuperior to the other. There are vaſt quantities of muſcles among the rocks; many cockles, in the ſand of the ſmall beaches; and, in ſome places, oyſters, which, though ſmall, have an agreeable taſte; together with other ſhell fiſh of various kinds.

Before we cloſe an account of the natural productions of this country, we ſhall remark, that there is not here any mineral deſerving notice, except a green jaſper ſtone, of which the tools and ornaments of the inhabitants are made. This is held in high eſtimation among them, and they entertain ſome ſuperſtitious notions about the mode of its generation, but the particulars our countrymen could not comprehend.

SECTION III.

Deſcription of the Perſons of the Inhabitants. Their Dreſs, Habitations, Food, Utenſils, Weapons, Canoes, and their Appurtenances.

THE number of inhabitants bears no proportion to the extent of country. The ſouthern part is very thinly inhabited, conſiſting chiefly of wanderers; but the northern is better peopled; though the weſtern ſide of the iſland is quite a deſert; and the interior parts are ſo mountainous, that ſcarce any place is inhabited but the ſea-coaſt.

The ſtature of the New Zealanders, in general, is equal to the Europeans; but they are not ſo well formed, eſpecially about the limbs, which are diſtorted by ſitting ſo much on their hams, and being deprived, by the mountainous nature of the country, from uſing that kind of exerciſe, which would render the body ſtraight and well proportioned. Some, however, are well made vigorous, and active, and have a good ſhare of adroitneſs and manual dexterity.

Their complexion, in general, is brown; though not deeper than that of a Spaniard who has been expoſed to the heat of the ſun. They are rather darker in the ſouthern iſland. Their faces are commonly round, their lips rather full, and their noſes (though not flat) large towards the point. Their eyes are large; their teeth broad and irregular; their hair, in general, black, ſtrong, and ſtraight, commonly cut ſhort on the hinder part, and the reſt tied on the crown of the head. The countenance of the young is generally free and open; but, in many of the men, it has a ſerious or ſullen caſt. The men are larger than the women, who are not remarkable for any peculiar graces, either of form or feature: but their voices are exceeding ſoft and harmonious

monious, by which they are chiefly diſtinguiſhed, the dreſs of both ſexes being nearly the ſame. Like the women of other countries, they have a chearfulneſs ſuperior to the men, and a greater flow of animal ſpirits.

They have a garment made of ſilky flax, about five feet in length, and four in breadth. This appears to be their principal manufacture, which is performed by knotting. Two corners of this garment paſs over the ſhoulders, and they faſten it on the breaſt with that which covers the body: and it is again faſtened about the belly with a girdle made of mat. It is ſometimes covered with dog ſkin, or large feathers. Many of them wear coats over this garment, extending from the ſhoulders to the heels. The moſt common covering, however, is a quantity of the ſedgy plant, badly manufactured, faſtened to a ſtring, and thrown over the ſhoulders, whence it falls down on all ſides to the middle of the thighs. They adorn their heads with feathers, combs of bone or wood, pearl ſhells, and the inner ſkin of leaves. Both ſexes have their ears ſlit, in which are hung beads, pieces of jaſper, or bits of cloth. Some have the ſceptum of the noſe bored in the lower part; but no ornament was ſeen in it.

Their tattowing is done very curiouſly, in ſpiral and other figures, and, in many places, indented with their ſkin, ſo as to look like carving; but, at a diſtance, it appears as if it had been only ſmeared with black paint. This tattowing, and ſtaining the face, is peculiar to the principal men among them. Thoſe of inferior rank, as well as women, content themſelves with beſmearing their faces with red paint or ochre. The women wear necklaces of ſhark's teeth, or bunches of long beads; and ſome of them have ſmall triangular aprons, adorned with feathers or pieces of pearl-ſhells, faſtened about the waiſt with a double or treble ſet of cords. Their winter dreſs is a ſhaggy cloak, called *boghee boghee*, which hang round their necks like a thatch of ſtraw. Their cloth is white, and as gloſſy as ſilk, worked by hands, and wrought as even as if it had been wrought in a loom, and is chiefly worn by the men; though it is made by the women, who alſo carry burthens, and do all the drudgery.

As many families erected their huts cloſe to the ſpots where our countrymen fixed their temporary abode, they had a full view of them, and expreſſed ſurprize at the facility with which they build them. They have been ſeen to erect above twenty of them on a ſpot of ground, which was covered with plants and ſhrubs not an hour before. The ſavages had no ſooner leaped from the canoes, than they tore up the ſhrubs and plants from the ground they had fixed on, and put up ſome part of the framing of a hut. Theſe huts are ſufficiently calculated for affording ſhelter from the rain and wind, and are built contiguous to each other. The beſt ſeen was built in the manner of one of our country barns, and was about ſix feet in height, fifteen in breadth, and thirty-three in length. The inſide was ſtrong and regular, well faſtened by means of withes, &c. and painted red and black. At one end it had a hole, ſerving as a door to creep out at, near which was a ſquare hole, which ſerved both for window and chimney. Under this particular we ſhall introduce a brief account of their hippahs, or fortified villages, which are very remarkable. They are ſtrong holds, erected on rocks, and ſecured on the land ſide by a bank, a ditch and an high paling within the ditch. Some have out-works, curiouſly conſtructed. Theſe places ſeem only to be the occaſional abodes of the natives in caſe of danger from their enemies; for as ſoon as their ſtate of tranquillity returns, they quit theſe heights for the level country.

Their chief food is fiſh, which they catch with different kinds of nets, or wooden fiſh-hooks, pointed with bone, but made in ſo extraordinary a manner, that it appears aſtoniſhing how they can anſwer ſuch a purpoſe. They ſhewed themſelves more expert fiſhermen than any of their European viſitants; nor were any of the methods practiſed by our people equal to theirs. They dreſs their fiſh by roaſting, or rather baking them, being entirely ignorant of the art of boiling. It is thus they alſo dreſs the root of the large fern-tree, in a hole prepared for that purpoſe. When dreſſed, they ſplit it, and find a glutinous ſubſtance within, not unlike ſago powder. The ſmaller fern-root ſeems to be their ſubſtitute for bread, being dried and carried about with them, together with great quantities of dried fiſh, when they go far from their habitations.

Their only liquor is water; and they conſtantly refuſed to touch either wine or brandy, when on board the European veſſels, and drank pure water, or ſweetened with ſugar; though they partook very freely of the proviſions that were put on the table.

They are repreſented as filthy in their feeding as in their perſons, which often emit a very offenſive effluvia, from the quantity of greaſe about them, and from their never waſhing their garments.

For an uncivilized people, their ingenuity claims notice; as without the aſſiſtance of metal tools, they make every thing by which they procure their ſubſiſtence, cloathing, and warlike weapons, with neatneſs, ſtrength, and convenience. Their chief mechanical tools are the adze and axe, made of hard black ſtone; chiſſels of human bone, or fragments of jaſper. They eſteem their axes the moſt valuable of their poſſeſſions, nor will part with one of them upon any conſideration. They have baſkets of various kinds and ſizes, made of wicker-work. The making of nets ſeems to be the ſtaple manufacture of thoſe parts of the country which were viſited. Theſe nets are of a circular form, extended by two hoops, and about ſeven or eight feet in diameter: the top is open, and they faſten ſea-ears to the bottom as a bait. They let down this net, ſo as to lie upon the ground; and when they imagine fiſh enough are collected over it, they draw up by a gentle motion, ſo that the fiſh riſe with it, ſcarcely ſenſible that they are lifted, till they come near the ſurface of the water, and then a ſudden jerk brings them with the net into the boat.

They have a ſingular taſte for carving, which muſt be admitted as their maſter piece. This appears on the moſt trifling things. The ornaments on the heads of ſome of their canoes not only diſplay much deſign, but execution. Their tools, in general, are very awkward. A ſhell, or a piece of flint or jaſper, is their ſubſtitute for a knife; and a ſhark's tooth, fixed on the end of a piece of wood, is their augur.

Their chief weapons are ſpears or lances, darts, battle-axes, and the patoo-patoo. The ſpear is fourteen or fifteen feet long, pointed at both ends, and ſometimes headed with bone. They are graſped by the middle, ſo that the part behind balancing that before, makes a puſh more difficult to be parried than that of a weapon which is held by the end. The patoo-patoo is formed like a pointed battledore, with a ſhort handle, and ſharp edges, and deſigned for cloſe fighting: through the handle there is a ſtring to twiſt round the hand when the weapon is uſed. The patoo-patoo is worn in the girdle, as a conſiderable military ornament, and ſeldom fails of doing execution.

The chiefs carry about them a ſtaff of diſtinction, generally the rib of a whale, ornamented round the top with carving, dog-ſkin, and feathers, like our halberts. Sometimes this ſtaff is merely a ſtick about ſix feet long, adorned in the ſame manner, and inlaid with a ſhell reſembling mother-of-pearl.

The New Zealanders diſplay ingenuity in the conſtruction of their canoes, which are of different ſizes, and much reſemble the New England whale-boat. Some of the largeſt ſort ſeem to be built for war, being near ſeventy feet long, five feet broad, and three feet and an half deep. They have a ſharp bottom, conſiſting of three trunks of trees hollowed, of which that in the middle is the longeſt. The ſide-planks are ſixty-two feet long, in one piece, and not deſpicably carved in bas relief; and the head is ſtill more richly adorned with carving. The gunwale boards are likewiſe frequently

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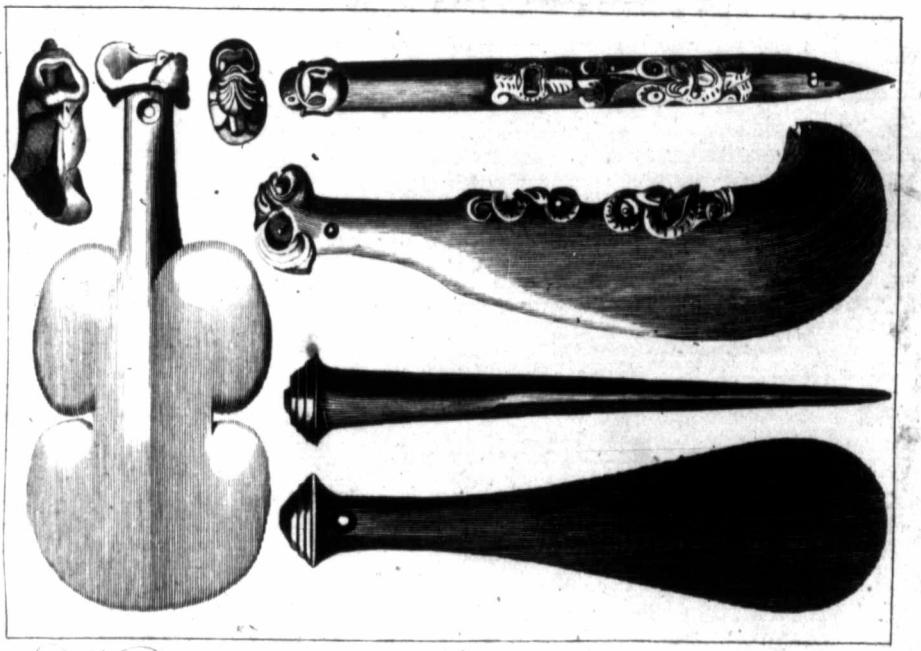
Engraved for BANKES's *New System of* GEOGRAPHY *Published by Royal Authority.*

Representation of the Natives of New Zealand in their War Canoes.



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ornamented with tufts of white feathers, placed upon a black ground. Their boats are worked by pattles about ſix feet long, neatly made, the blade being oval, pointed at the bottom, and gradually loſing its oval form in the handle. They make their ſtrokes with thoſe paddles with incredible quickneſs, and keep time ſo exactly, that all the rowers ſeem actuated by one common impulſe. Sails of matting fixed upright, between two poles, are ſometimes uſed; but they can make no way with theſe, unleſs it be right before the wind. The ſmaller canoes were no other than trunks of trees, intended wholly for fiſhing, without either convenience or ornament. The New Zealanders are by no means expert in navigation, their knowledge being wholly confined to what is called plain-ſailing.

SECTION. IV.

Diſpoſition and Cuſtoms of the Inhabitants of New Zealand. Their ſkill in Agriculture, innate Ferocity, horrid Cruelties, incidental Diſeaſes, Religious Tenets, &c. &c.

PERPETUAL diviſions prevail amongſt the natives of this country, who live under continual apprehenſions of being deſtroyed by each other; moſt of their tribes having as they think, ſuſtained injuries from ſome other tribe, which they are over-eager to revenge. They generally ſteal upon the adverſe party in the night; and if they chance to find them unguarded, which ſeldom happens, they put every one to death without diſtinction, not ſparing even women or children. When they have compleated the inhuman maſſacre, they either gorge themſelves on the ſpot, or carry off as many bodies as they can, and feaſt on them at home, with the moſt horrid acts of brutality. If they are diſcovered before they have time to execute their ſanguinary purpoſe, they uſually ſteal off again; and ſometimes they are purſued, and attacked, by the adverſe party in their turn. They never give quarter, ſo that the vanquiſhed muſt truſt to flight alone for ſafety. From this ſtate of perpetual hoſtility, and this deſtructive mode of carrying it on, a New Zealander acquires ſuch habitual vigilance and circumſpection, that he is ſcarce ever off his guard; and, indeed, they have the moſt powerful motives to be vigilant.

Though the inhabitants of the ſouthern iſle, in particular, lead a wandering kind of life, and ſeem to be under no regular kind of government, the head of each tribe is reſpected, and, on ſome occaſions, commands obedience. Thoſe of the northern iſle acknowledge a ſovereign, to whom great reſpect is paid, and by whom juſtice is probably adminiſtered. The European viſitants were given to underſtand, that they poſſeſſed their authority by inheritance.

With reſpect to the different employments of the men and women of this country, it ſhould ſeem that the former till the ground, make nets, catch birds, and fiſh with nets and lines. The women dig up fern-roots, collect lobſters, and other ſhell-fiſh, in the ſhallow waters near the beach, dreſs the food, and weave cloth.

Reſpect is paid to old men among them, who may be ſuppoſed to owe their conſequence to the long experience they have gained; but their chiefs are ſtrong, active young men, in the prime and flower of their life.

Though the ferocity of theſe people is evident, from inſtances already mentioned, it will appear more glaring in their cruelties towards ſome of our countrymen in the year 1773.

The two ſhips commanded by the Captains Cook and Furneaux, having parted company, and not happening to join again, ſome time after the departure of Captain Cook, Captain Furneaux arrived, in the month of December, in Queen Charlotte's Sound. While he lay there, a cutter, with two petty officers and eight ſeamen, being ſent up a creek to procure wood and water, not returning, the day following a boat was ſent with an officer in queſt of them. They were ſoon alarmed by the ſight of ſome parts of the cutter, and ſome ſhoes, one of which was known to belong to a midſhipman who was one of the party. Preſently a piece of meat was found, which, at firſt, was ſuppoſed to be ſome of the ſalted meat belonging to the cutter's crew; but, on cloſer examination, it was found to be freſh. Several baſkets lay on the beach tied up, which they eagerly cut open, and found to contain roaſted fleſh and fern-roots, which ſerved them for bread. On farther ſearch many ſhoes were found; and a hand, which was immediately known to belong to a forecaſtleman, it being marked with the initial letters of his name with an inſtrument, by a native of Otaheite. Many other articles were found, till, having ſearched in vain in every part of the beach, for the cutter, a ſhocking ſpectacle ſuddenly opened to their view. Here were ſcattered the heads, hearts, and lungs, of ſeveral of the unhappy men, who had been maſſacred by the natives, and dogs were ſeen devouring their entrails. The ſailors ſtood aghaſt, ſtruck with horror at the ſight, and, with imprecautions, vowed revenge, which was ſoon executed by firing and killing many of the ſavages, and deſtroying all the canoes that lay on the beach.

Notwithſtanding the divided ſtate in which theſe people live, and the ferocity evident, in divers inſtances, in their diſpoſition, our countrymen had an opportunity of remarking, not only their perſonal ſubordination, but ſome proofs of their hoſpitality.

Going on ſhore in ſearch of the natural productions of the country, two very ingenious gentlemen accidentally fell in with an agreeable Indian family. The principal were a widow and a darling ſon, about ten years old. The widow was mourning for her huſband, according to their cuſtom, with tears of blood; and the child, by the death of the father, was become proprietor of a diſtrict of land. The widow and her ſon were ſitting upon mats; and the reſt of the family, to the number of 16 or 17, of both ſexes, ſat round them in the open air; for they did not appear to have any home, or other ſhelter from the weather, the inclemencies of which cuſtom had enabled them to endure without any laſting inconvenience. It was remarked that their whole behaviour was obliging, affable, and unſuſpicious. They preſented their viſitants with a fiſh, and a brand of fire to dreſs it, and importuned them to ſtay till morning, which they would have done, had they not expected the veſſel to ſail.

When our Britiſh navigators firſt explored theſe parts, the firſt inhabitants they ſaw were a man and two women. The man ſtood with a battle-axe and club in his hand, on the rocky point of an iſland, and called to the commander and others, who were paſſing near him in a boat. The women were behind him, each with a long ſpear in her hand. His ſalutation was anſwered in the language of Otaheite, *Tayo barre mai:* Friend, come hither. He did not, however, ſtir from his poſt; but held a long ſpeech, frequently ſwinging round his club, on which he leaned at other times. The commander landed on the rock alone. The poor native gave evident tokens of fear, but ſtood however firm on the ſame ſpot. The commander went up to him, and embraced him, according to the cuſtom of the country, by joining noſes. This token of amity diſpelled all apprehenſions on the part of the natives. The man received the preſents that were made him, and the two women joined company. One of them had a prodigious excreſcence on the upper lip, and was in every reſpect remarkably ugly.

On a renewal of the viſit the next day, the natives received all the articles that were offered them with great indifference, except hatchets and ſpike nails; in return for which, they parted with ſeveral of their ornaments and weapons, but did not ſeem inclined to part with their ſpears. A good underſtanding being now eſtabliſhed, the next time our countrymen viſited them, they found them dreſſed out in the higheſt taſte of the

country. Their hair was combed, tied to the crown of the head, and anointed with oil or greaſe: white feathers were ſtuck at the top: ſome had fillets of white feathers all round the head, and others wore pieces of an albatroſs ſkin, with the fine down in their ears. A cloak of red baize was preſented to the chief, in return for which he gave the commander a patoo-patoo, which he drew from his ſide: it was a ſhort club made of iſh bone.

A man and young woman being prevailed on to come on board, the former, before he left the ſhore, broke off a ſmall green branch from a buſh, walked on with it in his hand, and having ſtruck the ſhips's ſide with it ſeveral times, began to recite a kind of ſpeech or prayer, which ſeemed to have regular cadences, and to be arranged in metre as a poem. It laſted two or three minutes, and when over, he threw the branch into the main chain, and, went on board. His manner of delivering ſolemn orations, and making peace, is practiſed by all nations in the South Seas, as appears from the teſtimonies of various voyagers.

Every thing they ſaw excited the curioſity both of the girl and the man. They were particularly pleaſed to find the uſe of chairs, and that they might be removed from place to place: but it was not poſſible to fix their attention to any one thing for a ſingle moment.

Of all the various preſents that were made the man, hatchets and ſpike nails ſtill continued to be moſt valuable in his eyes: theſe he never would ſuffer to go out of his hands after he had once laid hold of them; whereas he would lay many other articles careleſsly down, and at laſt leave them behind him. They could not be prevailed upon to eat any thing; but paſſed ſome compliments on our countrymen, according to their own forms and cuſtoms.

In a ſhort time an acquaintance was cultivated with a few more of the natives, who ſeemed to be the only inhabitants in this part of the country. Theſe coveted the poſſeſſion of every thing they ſaw, or could lay their hands on, except muſkets, which they would not touch, having learnt to dread them as inſtruments of death, from the deſtruction they had ſeen them make among the wild fowl.

The diſpoſition of theſe people is very remarkable, as, if they had not diſcovered themſelves, and thereby made the firſt advances, they might, with great eaſe, have kept themſelves concealed: but a certain openneſs and honeſty appeared ſtrongly to mark their character; for had they been inclined to treachery, they would have endeavoured to have cut off ſmall parties that were frequently diſperſed in different parts of the woods, in which they might have been but too ſucceſsful.

As a diſplay of the diſpoſition of theſe people in particular, and the attraction of novelty in general, we ſhall ſubjoin ſome anecdotes, which, it is preſumed, will conduce to the entertainment of our readers.

A New Zealander came on board an European veſſel, when ſhe lay in Queen Charlotte's Sound, accompanied by his ſon and daughter. Being introduced into the cabbin, the ſon was preſented by the captain with divers trinkets, and dreſſed out in one of his own white ſhirts. Unable to withſtand the impulſe of puerile vanity, he ran upon deck in order to ſhew his finery to his countrymen. An old he-goat, conceiving a kind of capricious diſlike to the ludicrous figure of poor Khoaa, (for that was the boy's name) aſſailed him, and raiſing himſelf on his hind legs, with one butt of his head, laid him proſtrate on the deck. The father amazed to ſee the ineſtimable preſent begrimed with filth, beſtowed many blows on the unfortunate ſufferer, in token of his reſentment. The ſhirt, however, by waſhing, was ſoon brought to its former ſtate of purity; and what was more, the boy was waſhed all over; moſt probably for the firſt time in his life; but the provident father, dreading another miſchance to the precious veſtment, carefully rolled it up, and taking off his own dreſs, made a bundle of it, in which he placed all the preſents he and his ſon had received.

A diſpoſition to ſteal, and ſecret every thing they could lay their hands on, was diſcoverable in all that came on board the veſſel in Queen Charlott's Sound; and thoſe that were detected, were treated with merited diſgrace and ignominy.

They appeared to feel the whole weight of ſhame which their behaviour brought on them: nay, one of them uttered threats, and made violent geſtures in his canoe. Upon another occaſion of the like nature, a young New Zealander diſcovered his reſentment by ſtriking a ſailor, merely for recovering his property that had been ſtolen; but the tar, according to the law of retaliation, imprinted the marks of his fiſt on the face of the aggreſſor.

A boy, about fourteen years of age, was prevailed on to drink a glaſs of Madeira wine, which, at firſt cauſed him to make many wry faces; but a glaſs of ſweet Cape wine being filled out to him, he reliſhed it ſo well as to lick his lips, and deſired to have another, which he likewiſe drank off. The generous juice ſoon began to elevate his ſpirits, as appeared from the volubility of his tongue, and his antic geſtures, as well as his expreſſion of indignation at being refuſed divers articles, for which he had conceived a predilection. In a word his behaviour was ſuch, as exhibited a very juſt ſample of the impatient temper of thoſe people.

Among the natives who viſited the veſſel, ſeveral had very expreſſive countenances; particularly ſome old men, with grey and white beards; and ſome young men, with great quantities of buſhy hair, which hung wildly over their faces, and increaſed the ferocity of their looks. As proofs of the force of ſuperior genius, their enquiries after Tupia, and the concern they ſhewed for his death, were ſingularly emphatical. It was ſhrewdly obſerved by one of our countrymen preſent, that this man, with the capacity with which he was endowed, and which had been cultivated no further than the ſimplicity of his native manners extended, was probably better qualified for civilizing the New Zealanders, than any of the more enlightened Europeans.

Their various methods of attack and defence, as exhibited before the Europeans, were as follow. One of their young men mounted a fighting ſtage, which they call porava, and another went into a ditch. Both he who was to defend the place, and he who was to aſſault it, ſung the war-ſong, and danced with frightful geſticulations. Theſe were practiſed as means of working themſelves up into that mechanical fury, which, among all uncivilized nations, is the neceſſary prelude to a battle.

Their battles, whether in boats or on ſhore, are generally hand to hand; and the ſlaughter muſt conſequently be great, as a ſecond blow with any of their weapons is unneceſſary, if the firſt takes place. Their truſt, however, ſeems to be principally placed in the patoo-patoo, already deſcribed.

They ſeemed to take a pride in their cruelties, and ſhewed their viſitors the manner in which they diſpatched their priſoners, which was to knock them down with their patoo-patoos, and then to rip them up. They made no ſcruple of declaring their practice of eating their enemies. The bones of a man were ſeen with the fleſh off; and every circumſtance concurred to render it evident that theſe people were canibals; for there was found, in one of their proviſion baſkets, the remaining fleſh, which appeared to have been dreſſed by fire, and, in the griſtles at the end, were the marks of teeth which had gnawed them. To aſcertain the fact, Tupia (the native who, as before obſerved, attended our countrymen) was directed to aſk what bones they were: the Indians, without heſitation, replied, the bones of a man. When aſked what was become of the fleſh, they replied, they had eaten it. One being afterwards aſked why they did not eat the body of a woman that was ſeen floating upon the water? The woman, they ſaid, died of a diſeaſe; and added, that ſhe was their relation, and they eat only the bodies of their enemies.

Though the people of New Zealand are more paſſionate than the other South Sea iſlanders in general, they are,

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are, however, more modeſt: and if the women are not invincible, the terms, and manner of their compliance, are as decent as thoſe in marriage amongſt the Europeans. When an overture is made to any young woman, the party is given to underſtand, that the conſent of friends is neceſſary, that a ſuitable preſent muſt be made, that the conſenting female muſt be treated with good manners, that no unbecoming liberties muſt be taken, and that day-light muſt not be witneſs to what paſſes between them.

The lower garment worn by the women, is bound faſt round them, except when they go into the water to catch lobſters, and then they take care not to be ſeen by the men. But, in courſe of time, the morals of the natives, both male and female, appeared not to be at all mended by their intercourſe with Europeans. It was obſerved by our countrymen, on their ſecond viſit, that, inſtead of behaving with the ſame reſerve that had marked their conduct before, both ſexes had abandoned their native principles; and the men promoted a ſhameful traffic of their daughters and ſiſters. It did not appear, however, that the married women were ſuffered to have any intercourſe of this kind. The ideas of female chaſtity, which prevail here, are quite different from ours; for here a girl may grant her favours to a plurality of lovers, without any ſtain on her character; but if ſhe marries, conjugal fidelity is rigorouſly expected from her.

Polygamy is allowed here; and it is not uncommon for a man to have two or three wives. The females are marrigeable at a very early age: and it ſhould ſeem that one who is unmarried is but in a forlorn ſtate; ſhe can with difficulty get a ſubſiſtence; at leaſt ſhe is in a great meaſure without a protector, though in conſtant want of a powerful one.

In ſome places to the northward, there were conſiderable traces of cultivation; and the ground appeared as well broken and tilled as amongſt us. The plantations were of different extent, from one or two acres to ten; and in the whole of Poverty Bay there appeared from 150 to 200 acres in cultivation, though an hundred people were not ſeen all the time the Europeans continued there.

As Tupia was perfectly underſtood in his own language by the natives of this country, and there ſeemed to be a ſimilarity of dialect in all the iſlands viſited by our European navigators, it was deemed a ſtrong argument for the inhabitants being all deſcended from one common ſtock. Diſcoveries ſince made, do not, however, entirely confirm that opinion, as exceptions are now found to the univerſality of the language, among the inhabitants of New Caledonia and the New Hebrides.

Their war-ſong is extraordinary, and worthy of notice. In it the women join the men with horrid diſtortions of countenance and hideous cries, which they utter in extreme good time. Their muſical inſtruments conſiſt of a trumpet, or tube of wood, about four feet long, and pretty ſtrait. It makes a ſtrange and uncooth noiſe; and it was obſerved they always ſounded the ſame note. Another trumpet was made of a large whelk, mounted with wood, curiouſly carved, and pierced at the point where the mouth was applied. An hideous bellowing was all the ſound that could be produced from this inſtrument. The natives were frequently heard ſinging on ſhore, as well as in their canoes; and ſometimes they ſang on board the European veſſels.

Some of the New Zealanders, inhabitants of Queen Charlotte's Sound, exhibited an *beiva*, or dance, on the quarter-deck. They placed themſelves in a row, and parted with their ſhaggy upper garments. One of them ſang ſome words in a rude manner, and all the reſt accompanied the geſtures he made, alternately extending their arms, and ſtamping, with their feet, in a violent and moſt frantic manner. The laſt words, which might be ſuppoſed to be the chorus, they all repeated together; and ſome ſort of metre was diſtinguiſhable; but whether it was calculated to make rhyme, or not, could not be diſcovered.

With reſpect to ſoundneſs of body, the eaſe with which their wounds heal, is adduced as a ſtrong proof of the health which theſe people enjoy. One of them was ſhot with a muſket ball through the fleſhy part of the arm, which, without any application, ſoon appeared well adjuſted, and in a fair way of being perfectly healed. The venereal diſeaſe is now, indeed, too common among them. This dreadful diſorder is ſaid to have been introduced among the natives by the crew of a veſſel unknown, that put into an harbour on the north-weſt coaſt of Teerawitte, a few years before our countrymen arrived in the Sound in the Endeavour. The only method they practice as a remedy, is to give the patient the uſe of a kind of hot bath, produced by the ſteam of certain green plants placed over hot ſtones.

The religious tenets of the New Zealanders ſeem to be much the ſame with ſome of the inhabitants of many other parts of the ſouthern clime. Though they acknowledge a Supreme Being, they believe in many inferior divinities: yet there was not a ſingle ceremony obſerved in any part of New Zealand, that could be ſuppoſed to have a religious tendency; nor did they appear to have any prieſts. Here were no places of public worſhip, like the *morais* in other parts: but, in a plantation of ſweet potatoes, there was ſeen a ſmall area, of a ſquare figure, ſurrounded with ſtones, in the middle of which a ſharp ſtake (which they uſe as a ſpade) was ſet up. The natives, being queſtioned about it, ſaid, it was an offering to the gods, by which the owner hoped to render them propitious, and to reap a plentiful harveſt.

Their manner of burying their dead could not be aſcertained. From the minuteſt enquiry, it ſeemed, that, in the northern parts, they buried them in the ground; and in the ſouthern, that they threw them into the ſea; the only proceſs, which they uſe, being to tie a ſtone to the body, to cauſe it to ſink. They affect, however, to conceal every thing relating to the dead, with a kind of myſterious ſecrecy. Whatever may be their forms and modes of funeral, they lament the loſs of their friends in a manner the moſt tender and affectionate. Both men and women, upon the death of a relation or friend, bewail them with the moſt miſerable cries, at the ſame time cutting large gaſhes in their foreheads, cheeks, arms, or breaſts with ſhells or pieces of flint, till the blood flows copiouſly, and mixes with their tears. They alſo carve the reſemblance of a human figure, and hang it about their necks, as a memorial of thoſe who were dear to them. They likewiſe perform the ceremony of lamenting and cutting for joy, at the return of a friend, who has been ſome time abſent.

SECTION V.

Minutes of the laſt Voyage reſpecting New Zealand, in 1777.

CAPTAIN COOK, on his laſt viſit to this country, in 1777, anchored in his old ſtation in Queen Charlotte's Sound; ſoon after which ſeveral canoes filled with natives, came along ſide the veſſels; but very few of them would venture on board, which appeared the more extraordinary, as the commander was well known to them all. There was one man, in particular, amongſt them, whom he had treated with remarkable kindneſs during his whole ſtay; yet now, neither profeſſions of friendſhip, or preſents, could prevail upon him to come into the ſhip. This ſhyneſs was to be accounted for only upon this ſuppoſition, that they were apprehenſive of a reviſit to revenge the deaths of our countrymen on a former voyage. The commander, therefore, deemed it expedient to uſe every endeavour to aſſure them of the continuance of his friendſhip, and that he ſhould not diſturb them on

that account. It ſhould ſeem that this had the deſired effect: for they ſoon laid aſide all manner of reſtraint and diſtruſt. As a proof of this, great numbers of families came from different parts of the coaſt, and took up their reſidence cloſe to the Europeans, from which they derived very conſiderable advantages, and, in particular, an ample ſupply of fiſh and vegetables.

It was remarked upon an excurſion up the iſland, that though, upon the former voyage, ſeveral ſpots were planted with Engliſh garden ſeeds, not the leaſt veſtige of theſe ever remained. It was therefore ſuppoſed that they had been all rooted out to make room for buildings when theſe ſpots were re-inhabited; for at all the other gardens then planted by Captain Furneaux, although now wholly overrun with the weeds of the country, were found cabbages, onions, leaks, purſlain, radiſhes, muſtard, and together with a few potatoes.

When the commander accompanied by ſeveral officers, Omai, (who was then on his return to his own country,) and two of the natives proceeded about three leagues up the Sound, in order to cut graſs, &c. they viſited on their return Graſs-Cove, the memorable ſcene of the maſſacre of their countrymen. Here the commander met with a friendly chief, called Pedro, who had attended him on a former occaſion; and, therefore, availing himſelf of the opportunity of enquiring into the circumſtances attending their melancholy fate, uſed Omai as interpreter. The natives anſwered all the queſtions, that were put to them on the ſubject, without reſerve, and like men who are under no dread of a puniſhment for a crime of which they are not guilty: for it was already known that none of theſe had been concerned in the unhappy tranſaction.

Though the narration was in ſome degree intricate, it appeared, upon the whole, that the quarrel firſt took its riſe from ſome theft, in the commiſſion of which the natives were detected. The Europeans chaſtiſed them with blows for the offence; in reſentment of which the quarrel opened, and two New Zealanders were ſhot dead by the only two muſkets that were fired; for, before our people had time to diſcharge a third, or to load again thoſe that had been fired, the natives ruſhed in upon them, overpowered them with their number, and put them all to death. Thoſe preſent, beſides relating the ſtory of the maſſacre, made the party acquainted with the very ſpot that was the ſcene of it. They pointed to the place of the ſun to mark to them at what hour of the day it happened, according to which it muſt have been late in the afternoon. They alſo ſhewed the place where their boat lay; and it appeared to be about two hundred yards diſtant from that where the crew were ſeated at dinner, at the time of the commiſſion of the theft of ſome bread and fiſh. They all agreed that there was no premeditated plan of bloodſhed, and that if the theft had not been unfortunately too haſtily reſented no miſchief would have happened. Amongſt occaſional viſitors was a chief, named Kahoora, who ſtood charged as the head of the party that committed the maſſacre: but his greateſt enemies, at the ſame time that they ſolicited his deſtruction, exculpated him from any intention to quarrel, much leſs to kill, till the fray had actually commenced.

It appeared alſo, that the unhappy victims were under no apprehenſions of their fate, otherwiſe they would not have ventured to ſit down to a repaſt at ſo conſiderable a diſtance from their boat, amongſt people who were the next moment to be their murderers. What became of the boat could not be learnt. Some ſaid ſhe was pulled to pieces and burnt; others ſaid ſhe was carried they knew not whither by a party of ſtrangers.

The party continued here till the evening, when having loaded the reſt of the boats with graſs, celery, ſcurvy-graſs, &c. they embarked to return to the ſhips. The day following, Pedro, and all his family, came and took up his abode near their European viſitors. The proper name of this chief is Matahouah, the other being given him by ſome of the people during the laſt voyage, which, till now, was unknown to the commander. He was, however, equally well known amongſt his countrymen by both names.

Our people were viſited at one time by a tribe or family, conſiſting of about thirty perſons, men, women and children. The name of their chief was Tomatongeauooramec, a man of about forty-five years of age, with a chearful open countenance. It was remarked, indeed, that the reſt of his tribe were the handſomeſt of the New Zealand race ever met with.

By this time great numbers of them daily frequented the ſhips, and the encampment on the ſhore; but the latter became by far the moſt favourite place of reſort, while our people there were melting ſome ſeal blubber. It appeared, from obſervation, that no Greenlander was ever fonder of train-oil than the New Zealanders; for they reliſhed the very ſkimmings of the kettle, and dregs of the caſks; but a little of the moſt ſtinking oil was a delicious repaſt.

The ſhips weighing anchor, and ſtanding out of the Cove, were ſeen, from ſtreſs of weather, under a neceſſity of coming to again, a little without the iſland of Moheara, to wait for a more favourable opportunity of putting into the ſtrait. Here three or four canoes, filled with natives, came off to the crews, and a briſk trade was carried on for the curioſities of this place. In one canoe was Kahoora, already mentioned as the leader of the party who cut off the crew of the Adventurer's boat. He was pointed out to the commander by Omai, who ſolicited him to ſhoot him. Not ſatisfied with this, he addreſſed himſelf to Kahoora, threatening to be his executioner, if he ever preſumed to face our people again. The New Zealander, however paid ſo little regard to his threats, that the very next morning he returned with his whole family, men, women, and children, to the number of twenty and upwards.

Omai then renewed his ſolicitations to the commander to kill him; but though he uſed ſeveral ſpecious arguments, they had no weight. He deſired him, however, to aſk the chief, why he had killed Captain Furneaux's people. At this queſtion Kahoora folded his arms, hung down his head, and there was every reaſon, from his appearance, to think he expected inſtant death: but no ſooner was he aſſured of his ſafety, than he became chearful. He did not, however, ſeem willing to anſwer the queſtions put to him, till repeatedly promiſed he ſhould not be hurt. He then ventured to give information, that one of his countrymen, having brought a ſtone hatchet to barter, the man to whom it was offered took it, and would neither return, or give any thing for it; on which the owner ſnatched up the bread as an equivalent; and then the quarrel began.

The remainder of Kahoora's account of this unhappy affair, differed very little from what had been before related by his countrymen.

It was evident that moſt of the natives well knew that the Britiſh commander was acquainted with the hiſtory of the maſſacre, and expected it to be avenged in the death of Kahoora. Many of them, indeed, ſeemed not only to wiſh it, but expreſſed a ſurprize at what they deemed ſo undeſerved a forbearance. The commander profeſſes his admiration of his courage, in putting himſelf in his power, and of the proofs he gave of placing his whole ſafety in the declarations he had uniformly made to thoſe who ſolicited his death, "that he had even been a friend to them all, and would continue ſo, unleſs they gave him cauſe to act otherwiſe: that, as to their inhuman treatment of his countrymen, he ſhould think no more of it, the tranſaction having happened long ago, and when he was not preſent; but that if ever they made a ſecond attempt of this kind, they might reſt aſſured of feeling the weight of his reſentment."

Omai, ſome time before the arrival of our ſhips at New Zealand, had expreſſed a deſire of taking one of the natives with him to his own country, and ſoon had an opportunity of being gratified in the ſame; for a youth, about ſeventeen or eighteen years of age, named Taweihooa

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Taweihooa, offered to accompany him, and took up his reſidence on board. The commander paid little attention to this at firſt, imagining that he would go off when the ſhip was about to depart. At length, finding that he was fixed in his reſolution, and having learnt that he was the only ſon of a deceaſed chief, and that his mother, ſtill living, was a woman much reſpected there, he was apprehenſive that Omai had deceived him and his friend, by giving them hopes and aſſurances of his being ſent back. He therefore cauſed it to be made known to them all, that if the young man went away with the ſhips, he would never return. But this declaration ſeemed to make no ſort of impreſſion. The afternoon before the ſhip left the Cove, his mother came on board to receive her laſt preſent from Omai. The ſame evening ſhe and Taweihooa parted with all the marks of tender affection that might be expected between a parent and a child, who were never to meet again. But ſhe ſaid ſhe would cry no more; and, indeed, ſhe kept her word; for when ſhe returned the next morning, to take her laſt farewell of him, all the time ſhe was on board ſhe remained chearful, and went away fully unconcerned.

That Taweihooa might be ſent away in a manner becoming his birth, another youth was to have gone with him as his ſervant; and, with this view, as was ſuppoſed, he remained on board till the ſhip was about to ſail, when his friends took him on ſhore. His place, however, was ſupplied next morning by another boy, of about nine or ten years of age, named Kokoa. He was preſented to the commander by his own father, who, it was believed, would have parted with his dog with far leſs indifference. He ſtripped the boy of the very little clothing he had, and left him as naked as he was born. It was totally in vain to endeavour to perſuade theſe people of the impoſſibility of theſe youths ever returning home. Not one, not even their neareſt relations, ſeemed to trouble themſelves about their future fate; and as this was the caſe, the commander was well ſatisfied that the boys would be no loſers by exchange of place: he therefore the more readily gave conſent to their going.

We obſerve, in fine, from all that we have been able to collect from the narratives of theſe voyages, with reſpect to the morals, opinions, and cuſtoms of theſe people, that they are wholly influenced by the practices of their fathers, whether good or bad, in which they are inſtructed at an early age, and to which they generally adhere during life.

CHAP. III.

NEW CALEDONIA, AND ISLANDS CONTIGUOUS.

SECTION I.

Diſcovery, Situation, and general Deſcription.

THIS iſland was called New Caledonia, by Captain Cook, in conſequence of his having diſcovered it in 1774, after many fruitleſs endeavours to learn from the natives the Indian name. Indeed, it is probable that it was not known by one general name, as it has been repreſented as the largeſt iſland that has been diſcovered in the Southern Pacific Ocean, New Zealand and New Holland excepted; extending from 19 deg. 37 min. to 22 deg. 30 min. ſouth latitude; and from 163 deg. 37 min. to 167 deg. 14 min. eaſt lon. In length it is computed to be 87 leagues, in the direction of north-weſt and ſouth-eaſt; but its breadth no where exceeds 10. It is ſituated about 12 deg. diſtant from New Holland.

The country is deſcribed as a ſpot diverſified by hills and vallies of various extent. From the hills iſſue many fine ſtreams, which render the vallies both fertile and pleaſant; and, but for which, the whole ſpot might be called a dreary waſte; nature having been leſs bountiful to New Caledonia than to the other tropical iſlands in the South Seas. The mountains, and other high parts, are, in general, incapable of cultivation, conſiſting chiefly of barren rocks. The iſland bears, upon the whole, a reſemblance to thoſe parts of New South Wales, that are under the ſame parallel of latitude; ſeveral of its natural productions being the ſame, and the woods without underwood, as in that country. The whole coaſt appeared ſurrounded by reefs or ſhoals, which render the acceſs to it very dangerous; though, at the ſame time, they guard it from the attacks of wind and ſea, cauſe it to abound with fiſh, and ſecure an eaſy and ſafe navigation along it for canoes. The coaſt, in general, ſeems to be inhabited; and the plantations in the plains appear to be laid out with judgment, and cultivated with induſtry. Some of them were lying fallow, ſome ſeemed to be lately laid down, and others of longer date, parts of which they were again beginning to dig up, having previouſly ſet fire to the graſs, &c. that had over-run the ſurface. It was remarked, that, though recruiting the land, by letting it continue fallow for a ſeries of time, was obſerved by all the different nations in this ſea, none appeared to have any notion of manuring it. On the beach was found a large irregular maſs of rock, not leſs than a cube of ten feet, which conſiſted of a cloſe grained ſtone, ſpeckled, and full of granets, rather larger than pins heads; from whence it was conjectured, that ſome rich and uſeful mineral might be depoſited in this iſland.

SECTION II.

Vegetable and Animal Productions.

THE vegetable ſyſtem in this country can boaſt neither plenty or variety. Several plants, however, of a new ſpecies, were found here, and a few young bread-fruit trees; but they ſeem to have come without culture. There are a few plantations and ſugar-canes, and ſome cocoa-nut trees, ſmall and thinly planted. A new kind of paſſion flower was alſo met with, which was never before known to grow wild any where but in America. Several trees, called *caputi* trees, were found in flower. They had a looſe bark, which, in many places, burſt off from the wood, and concealed within it beetles, ants, ſpiders, lizards, and ſcorpions. This bark is ſaid to be uſed in the Eaſt Indies for caulking ſhips. The wood of the tree is very hard, the leaves are long and narrow, of a pale dead colour, and a fine aromatic.

A great variety of the feathered tribe, and, for the moſt part, entirely new, were found here, particularly a beautiful ſpecies of parrots, unknown to naturaliſts. There were alſo ducks, large tame fowls with bright plumage, a kind of ſmall crow tinged with blue, turtle-doves, fly-catchers, hawks, boobies, tropic birds, and others.

There are turtles and fiſh in plenty, particularly a ſpecies of a poiſonous quality, as appeared from its effects upon ſome of our countrymen, who eat a ſmall part of the liver for ſupper. Theſe perſons, a few hours after they retired to reſt, were awaked by very alarming ſymptoms, being ſeized with extreme giddineſs; their hands and feet were numbed ſo as ſcarcely to be able to crawl; and a violent languor took poſſeſſion of their whole

whole frame. Emetics were adminiſtered with ſome ſucceſs; but ſudorifics proved moſt effectual. It ſeemed that the natives had not the leaſt notion of goats, ſwine, dogs, or cats, as they had not even a name for any one of them. Of inſects the chief are muſquetoes, which abound here.

SECTION III.

Perſons, Dreſs, Habitations, Canoes, Implements, Diſpoſition, Language, Muſical Inſtruments, Diſeaſes, Cuſtoms, &c. of the Inhabitants.

THE natives of New Calidonia are ſtout, and, in general, well proportioned. They have good features, with ſtrong and frizzled black hair. Their general colour is ſwarthy, or what we call mahogany. Some wear their hair long, and tie it up to the crown of their heads. Others ſuffer only a large lock to grow on each ſide, which they tie up in clubs; many of the men, as well as all the women, wear it cropped ſhort. They uſe a kind of comb, made of ſticks of hard wood, from ſeven to ten inches long, and about the thickneſs of knitting-needles. A number of theſe, amounting to about twenty, are faſtened together at one end, parallel to each other, and near one tenth of an inch aſunder: the other ends, which are a little pointed, will ſpread out or open like the ſticks of a fan. Theſe combs they wear conſtantly in their hair, on one ſide of their head. Some had a kind of ſtiff black cap, like that of an huſſar, which appeared to be a great ornament among them, and was ſuppoſed to be worn only by chiefs and warriors.

The men go naked, only tying a wrapper round the middle, and another round the neck. A piece of brown cloth, which is ſometimes tucked up to the belt, and ſometimes hangs down, ſcarcely deſerves the name of a covering, and, in the eyes of Europeans, would appear rather obſcene than decent. This piece of cloth is ſometimes of ſuch a length that the extremity is faſtened to a ſtring round the neck. To this ſtring they hang ſmall round beads of a pale green nephritic ſtone. Coarſe garments were ſeen among them, made of a ſort of matting; but they ſeemed never to wear them except when in their canoes, and unemployed. They ſtretch the flaps of their ears to a great length, cut out the whole cartilage or griſtle, and hang a number of tortoiſe-ſhell rings in them.

The women of New Caledonia are kept at a diſtance by the men, and ſeem fearful to offend them, either by look or geſture. They were the only perſons in the family who ſeemed to have any employment, ſeveral of them bringing bundles of ſticks and fuel on their backs. Their indolent huſbands ſcarcely deigned to regard them, though they exhibited that ſocial cheerfulneſs which is the diſtinguiſhing ornament of the ſex. They carried their infants on their backs in a kind of ſatchel, and were ſeen to dig up the earth in order to plant it. Their ſtature is of the middle ſize, and their whole form rather clumſy. Their dreſs is very diſfiguring, and gives them a thick ſquat ſhape. It is a ſhort petticoat, reſembling fringe, conſiſting of filaments or little cords, about eight inches long, juſt dropping below the waiſt. Theſe filaments were ſometimes dyed black: but frequently thoſe on the outſide only were of that colour, whilſt the reſt were of a dirty grey. They wore ſhells, ear-rings, and pieces of nephritic ſtones, like the men; and tattow or beſmear themſelves in three black ſtraight lines, from the under lip downwards to the chin.

Their features expreſſed much good nature. Some of them were ſhy, and ſeemed, by their motions, to indicate an apprehenſion of being ſlain, if obſerved alone with a ſtranger; while others expreſſed no dread of the jealouſy of the men. They came among the crowd, and ſometimes amuſed themſelves in encouraging the propoſals of the ſailors; though they conſtantly eluded their purſuit, and heartily derided their diſappointment.

It was remarkable, that, during the veſſel's ſtay in the iſland, there was not a ſingle inſtance of the women permitting an indecent familiarity from an European.

Their houſes, or huts, here, are of a circular form, ſomething like a bee-hive, and full as cloſe and warm. The entrance is by a ſmall door, or long hole, juſt big enough to admit a man bent double. The roof is lofty, and brought to a point at the top. The framing is of ſmall reeds, &c. and both ſides and roof are thick and cloſe, covered with thatch made of coarſe long graſs. In the inſide of the habitation are ſet up poſts, to which coarſe ſpars are faſtened, and platforms made for the convenience of laying any thing on. In moſt of theſe huts were no fire-places: and there was no paſſage for the ſmoak, but through the door. They were inſupportable to thoſe unaccuſtomed to them. The ſmoak was ſuppoſed to be deſigned to drive out the muſquetos, that ſwarm here. They commonly erect two or three of theſe huts near each other, under a cluſter of lofty fig trees, whoſe foliage is ſo thick as to keep off the rays of the ſun. Theſe trees are deſcribed by voyagers, as ſhooting forth roots from the upper part of the ſtem, perfectly round, as if made by a turner. The bark ſeems to be the ſubſtance of which they prepare the ſmall pieces of cloth ſo remarkable in their dreſs.

Their canoes are heavy and clumſy, and made out of two large trees, hollowed out: the gunnel raiſed about two inches high, and cloſed at each end with a kind of bulk head of the ſame height. Two canoes, thus conſtructed, are ſecured to each other about three feet aſunder, by means of croſs-ſpars which project about a foot over each ſide: over which is laid a deck, or heavy platform, made of plank, on which they have a fire-hearth, and generally a fire burning. They are navigated by one or two ſails, extended on a ſmall yard, the end of which is fixed in a notch or hole in the deck.

Their working tools are made of the ſame materials, and nearly in the manner, as thoſe of the iſlands contiguous. They have no great variety of houſehold utenſils; the principal is a jar, made of red clay, in which they bake their roots, and probably their fiſh.

They are well provided with offenſive weapons, ſuch as clubs, ſpears, darts, and ſlings for caſting ſtones. Their clubs are about two feet and a half long, and of various forms; ſome like a ſcythe, others like a pick-axe: ſome have a head like a hawk, and others have knobs at the ends; but they are all neatly made, and well poliſhed. Many of their darts and ſpears are ornamented with carved work. Their ſlings are as ſimple as poſſible, being no other than a ſlender round cord, no thicker than packthread, with a taſſel at one end, a loop at the other, and in the middle. They take ſome pains to form the ſtones they uſe into a proper ſhape, which is ſomething like an egg. Theſe exactly fit the loop in the middle of the ſling, and are kept in a pocket of matting, tied round the waiſt for that purpoſe. They caſt the dart by the aſſiſtance of ſhort cords, knobbed at one end, and looped at the other, which the ſeamen called beckets, and were dexterous in the uſe of them. Their ſpears are fifteen or twenty feet long, blackened over, and have a prominence near the middle, carved ſo as to bear ſome reſemblance to an human face.

The language of the inhabitants of New Caledonia, bears little affinity to any of the various dialects ſpoken in the other iſlands in the South Sea: the word *areekee*, and one or two more, excepted. This is the more extraordinary, as different dialects of one language were ſpoken, not only in the eaſterly iſlands, but at New Zealand. Their pronunciation is indiſtinct.

The people are remarkably courteous and friendly, and not in the leaſt addicted to pilfering, in which reſpectable quality they ſtand alone. They are good ſwimmers, and fond of ſinging and dancing. The only muſical inſtrument obſerved among them, was a kind of whiſtle, made of a poliſhed piece of brown wood, about two inches long, ſhaped like a bell, though apparently

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It is obſerved by a judicious writer, that many inhabitants in New Caledonia were ſeen with very thick legs and arms, which ſeemed to be affected with a kind of leproſy. The ſwelling was found to be extremely hard; but the ſkin was not alike harſh and ſcaly in all the ſick perſons. The preternatural expanſion of the leg and arm, did not appear to be a great inconvenience to thoſe who ſuffered it; and they indicated by tokens, that they felt pain in it very rarely, but in ſome the diſorder began to form blotches, which were marks of a great degree of virulence.

The manner the people of New Caladonia depoſit their dead in the ground, is more judicious and decent than that of ſome others in the South Sea, where they expoſe them above ground till the fleſh is putrified. This cuſtom muſt be attended with the moſt pernicious conſequences, and produce dreadful epidemical diſtempers. Such a diſeaſe as the ſmall-pox, for inſtance, if introduced, would go near to depopulate the whole country. The grave of a chief, who had been ſlain in battle, here, bore reſemblance to a large mole-hill, and was decorated with ſpears, darts, &c. all ſtuck upright in the ground round about it. It appears a cuſtom univerſally prevalent with mankind, to erect a monument on the ſpot where their dead are buried.

One of our officers was ſhewed a chief, whom they called Tea-booma, and ſtiled their *areekee*, or king; but little is known of their mode of government, and leſs of their religion. They gave the Europeans a very welcome and peaceable reception, addreſſing the commander firſt in a ſhort ſpeech, and then inviting him on ſhore. But they are indolent, and deſtitute of curioſity. The greater part of them did not move from their ſeats, when the ſtrangers paſſed them for the firſt time. They are remarkably grave, ſpeak always in a ſerious tone; and laughter is hardly ever obſerved among them.

As an object worthy of attention, we recount, that when Captain Cook firſt landed in this part, he was accompanied by a native who appeared to be a man of ſome weight, and who had come on board the veſſel before ſhe came to an anchor. The natives aſſembled in great numbers on the beach, induced merely by curioſity; for many had not ſo much as a ſtick in their hands. The party were received, on landing, with the greateſt courteſy, and with the ſurpriſe natural for people to expreſs at ſeeing men and things ſo wonderful. The commander made preſents to all whom his companion pointed out; but, on his going to give a few beads and medals to ſome women who ſtood behind the crowd, the chief held his arm, and would not ſuffer him to do it. As they proceeded up the creek, one of the party ſhot a duck, which was the firſt uſe the natives had ſeen of fire-arms. The friendly chief requeſted to have it: and, when he had landed, he told his countrymen in what manner it was killed. From this excurſion the party learnt that they were to expect nothing from theſe people but the privilege of viſiting their country undiſturbed, for they had little elſe than good-nature to beſtow. In this particular they are ſaid to have exceeded all the nations our voyagers had met with: and they obſerved, that, although it did not ſatisfy the demands of nature, it at once pleaſed, and left all their minds at eaſe.

A hatchet was not quite ſo valuable as a ſpike-nail. Small nails were of little or no value to them: nor did they admire beads, looking-glaſſes, &c. Many of the natives came on board the ſhip with perfect confidence: and one of them exchanged a yam for a piece of red cloth. They admired every thing that had a red colour, particularly red cloth or baiſe, but did not chooſe to give any thing in exchange. Captain Cook ſent king Tea-booma, a dog and a bitch, both young, but nearly full grown, which may be the means of ſtocking the country with that ſpecies of animals: and to Hebai, the friendly chief before ſpoken of, he gave a ſow and boar pig, in order to provide, if poſſible, a ſtock of domeſtic animals for a nation, whoſe inoffenſive character ſeemed highly deſerving of ſuch a preſent. To enhance their value with the Indians, and thereby induce them to be more careful of their ſtock of hogs, it was explained to them how many young ones the females would have at one time, and how ſoon this would multiply to ſome hundreds. Not one of the natives attempted to take the leaſt trifle by ſtealth, but all behaved with the ſtricteſt honeſty. Some of them ſpoke of a great land to the northward, which they called Mingha, the inhabitants of which were their enemies, and very warlike. They likewiſe pointed out a ſepulchral mount, or *turnulus*, where one of their chiefs lay buried, who had been killed, fighting in the defence of his country, by a native of Mingha. The appearance of a large beef bone, which an officer began to pick, towards the concluſion of the ſupper, interrupted this converſation. The natives talked loudly and earneſtly to each other, looked with great ſurpriſe, and ſome marks of diſguſt, at the ſtrangers, and, at laſt, went away altogether, expreſſing by ſigns, that they ſuppoſed it to be the limb of a man. The officer was very deſirous of freeing himſelf and his countrymen from this ſuſpicion, but was prevented by two inſurmountable obſtacles, want of language, and the natives having never ſeen a quadruped. At another time the Europeans were given to underſtand by very ſignificant geſtures, that the natives had enemies who feaſted upon fleſh, which, doubtleſs, had cauſed them to impute the ſame practice to their new viſitors. This iſland remains entirely unexplored on the ſouth ſide. Its minerals and vegetables have not been touched upon. Animals, it ſhould ſeem to have none, from the ignorance which the natives to the northward diſcovered of ſuch as they ſaw. To perpetuate the memory of the expedition, the commander cauſed the following inſcription to be cut in a remarkable large and ſhady tree, on the beach, cloſe to a rivulet: "His Britannic Majeſty's Ship Reſolution, September, 1774."

SECTION IV.

Deſcription of Iſlands contiguous to New Caledonia, and of Norfolk Iſland, more to the Southward.

ISLE OF PINES

LIES to the S. W. of New Caledonia. It is about a mile in circumference, and in latitude 22 deg. 40 min. ſouth; longitude 167 deg. 40 min. eaſt.

BOTANY ISLAND.

IS about two miles in circuit, entirely flat and ſandy ſix leagues diſtant from the ſouth end of New Caledonia. This iſland was ſo called by Captain Cook, from its containing in ſo ſmall ſpace, a flora of near thirty ſpecies, among which were ſeveral new ones. It is a ſmall iſland, wholly covered with cypreſs trees: but in the interior part it is mixed with vegetable earth, from the trees and plants which continually decay on it, without being cleared away by human induſtry.

NORFOLK ISLAND.

THIS iſland likewiſe received its name from Captain Cook, who diſcovered it in the year 1774. It is ſituated in latitude 22 deg. 21 min. ſouth; longitude 168 deg. 16 min. eaſt. It abounds, like the former, with cypreſs trees. There were ſoundings at a great diſtance in about twenty fathoms; and, eight leagues from the ſouth-eaſt end, bottom was found at thirty and forty fathoms. The rock of this iſland conſiſts of a common yellowiſh clayey ſtone, and ſmall bits of horous reddiſh lava, which ſeemed to be decaying, and indicat-

ed that this iſland had been a volcano. It is but a few miles long, very ſteep, and uninhabited; and is ſuppoſed never to have had a human footſtep upon it till that time. Vegetables here thrive with great luxuriance in a rich black mould, accumulated during ages paſt from decayed trees and plants. The cypreſs and cabbage-palm flouriſh here in great perfection; the former yields timber, and the latter a moſt palatable refreſhment. The central ſhoot, or heart of this fruit, more reſembles an almond than a cabbage in taſte. Here were parrots, paroquets, pigeons, and a number of ſmall birds peculiar to the ſpot, ſome of which were very beautiful. The fiſh caught, together with the birds and vegetables, enabled the whole ſhip's company to fare ſumptuouſly for a day or two. Here is likewiſe the flax-plant, and rather more luxuriant than any where in New Zealand. It was the opinion of two eminent naturaliſts, that if this iſland was of greater extent, it would ſerve every purpoſe of eſtabliſhing an European ſettlement.

This is the moſt accurate account we could collect of this ſpot; but as it is within the ſcope of our extenſive plan, to preſent our readers with the moſt authentic intelligence of any diſcoveries that may be made during the courſe of the publication of this work, they may reſt aſſured of our particular attention to whatever may be obtained concerning this or any other part that may be explored by future navigators.

CHAP. IV.

THE NEW HEBRIDES.

THE northernmoſt of this cluſter of iſlands was diſcovered by De Quiros, in 1606, and at that time conſidered as a part of the Southern Continent, which till very lately was ſuppoſed to exiſt. In 1768 they were viſited by the great French navigator Monſieur de Bougainville, who, beſides landing on the iſland of Lepers, did no more than diſcover that the land was not connected, but compoſed of iſlands, which he called *The Great Cyclades*.

Captain Cook, in the year 1774, beſides aſcertaining the extent and ſituation of theſe iſlands, added the knowledge of ſeveral in this groupe that were before unknown. He explored the whole cluſter, and thence claiming a right to affix to them a general appellation, named them THE NEW HEBRIDES. They are ſituated between the latitudes of 14 deg. 29 min. and 20 deg. 4 min. ſouth; and 170 deg. 21 min. eaſt longitude. They extend 125 leagues in the direction of N. N. W. and S. S. E.

The whole cluſter conſiſts of the following iſlands, ſome of which have received names from the different European navigators; others retain the names they bore among the natives. They are as follow: Terra del Eſpiritu Santo, Mallicollo, St. Bartholomew, Iſle of Lepers, Aurora, Whitſuntide, Ambrym, Apee, Three Hills, Sandwich, Montagu, Hinchinbroke, Erromango, Immer, Annatom, and Tanna.

TERRA DEL ESPIRITU SANTO.

This is the moſt weſtern and largeſt of all the Hebrides, being twenty-two leagues long, twelve broad, and ſix in circuit. It lies in 15 deg. 10 min. ſouth latitude; and 166 deg. 50 min. eaſt longitude. The land, eſpecially to the weſt ſide, is very mountainous; and in many places the hills riſe directly from the ſea. Every part of it, except the cliffs and beaches, is covered with trees, or laid out in plantations, and every valley watered with a ſtream. On the north ſide is a very fine bay, called, by De Quiros, St. Philip and St. Jago. The two points, which form its entrance, lie at ten leagues diſtance from each other. Here De Quiros is ſuppoſed to have anchored, and to have given the name of Vera Cruz to the port in which his ſhips lay. He deſcribes it as capacious enough to contain 1000 ſhips with clear ſoundings.

The country ſeemed fertile and populous. The canoes, with triangular ſails, came off towards the ſhips. The men were tall and ſtout, of a dark colour, and had woolley hair. They were naked. Some of them had a bunch of feathers on the top of the head, and others wore a white ſhell tied on the forehead. On their arms they wore bracelets of ſhell-work; and round their middle a narrow belt, from whence two long ſlips of matting hung down before and behind.

On the firſt day of the arrival of our navigators, no tokens of friendſhip could prevail with the natives to come near enough to hold any intercourſe. The next morning, however, they ventured ſo cloſe as to receive a preſent of nails, medals, and red baize; but the nails were moſt valued. They faſtened a branch of the pepper plant to the ſame rope by which the nails had been lowered to them from the ſhip; and this was the only return they made for what had been given them. The diffidence with which they approached the veſſel, may well be accounted for, from the traditional knowledge which doubtleſs ſubſiſts among them concerning the viſit made them by De Quiros; for, on his coming to an anchor, and ſending a boat from the ſhip, a chief (as he is called in the narrative, the king) attended by ſome Indians, came to the ſtrand, and endeavoured to excite their departure by preſents of fruit; but the Spaniards leaping on the ſhore, made ſigns of peace. The natives, ſtill anxious for the departure of the ſtrangers, and the latter perſiſting in their endeavours to force their way, hoſtilities commenced between the parties; but the arrows of the one flew without effect; whilſt the fire-arms of the other laid the king, and many of his followers, breathleſs on the beach.

It was regretted by naturaliſts, when our countrymen viſited theſe parts, that they did not land on this iſland, as, from appearance, its vegetable productions would have afforded the botaniſt an ample harveſt of new plants.

MALLICOLLO.

This is the moſt conſiderable iſland next to Eſpiritu Santo: it is eight leagues long, and ſituated in 16 deg. 25 min. ſouth latitude; and 167 deg. 57 min. eaſt longitude. On enquiry of the natives concerning the name of this iſland, anſwer was made that it was Mallicollo, which has the cloſeſt reſemblance poſſible to Manicolio, the name which De Quiros received for it 168 years before. He did not viſit the iſland, but had his intelligence from the natives.

When our countrymen touched at Mallicollo, they attentively examined the ſouth-coaſt, and found it luxuriantly cloathed with wood, and other productions of nature. They picked up an orange, which the natives call *abbi-mora*. This was the firſt orange that was met with in this ſea, and the only one that was ſeen here; and being decayed, it cannot certainly be known whether it was fit to be eaten.

The country is deſcribed as mountainous and woody, but the ſoil is rich and fertile, producing ſugar-canes, yams, cocoa-nuts, bread-fruit, bananas, and turmeric. There are hogs here, and various kinds of birds; and as the frequent ſqueaking of pigs was heard in the woods, it was concluded that there were abundance of the former.

A ſhark was caught, which meaſured nine feet in length, and afforded the crew a very palatable refreſhment. This ſhark, when cut open, was found to have the bony point of an arrow ſticking in its head, having been ſhot quite through the ſkull. The wound was healed ſo perfectly, that not the ſmalleſt veſtige of it appeared on the outſide. A piece of the wood ſtill remained

mained ſticking to the bony point, as well as a few fibres with which it had been tied on; but both the wood and the fibres were ſo rotted, as to crumble into duſt at the touch.

A large reddiſh fiſh, of the ſea-bream kind, was likewiſe caught; but it proved of very noxious quality; for all who eat of it were ſeized with violent pains in the head and bones, attended with ſcorching heat all over the ſkin, and numbneſs in the joints. It affected the dogs and hogs, who had eaten the garbage, in the higheſt degree: and the opinion of the naturaliſts, upon the whole, was, that theſe fiſh may not always be poiſonous, but that, like many ſpecies in the Eaſt and Weſt Indies, they may acquire that quality by feeding on poiſonous vegetables.

The natives of this iſland are deſcribed as remarkably ugly, dark, ill-proportioned, diminutive in ſize, and in every reſpect different from the other iſlanders in the South Sea. They have flat noſes and foreheads, woolly hair, and ſhort beards. To add to their natural deformity, they have a cuſtom of tying a belt or cord, uncommonly tight, round the waiſt, ſo that the belly ſeems in a manner divided, one part being above, and the other below the rope. They wear bracelets of ſhells on the arm, a piece of white carved ſtone in the noſtrils; and on their breaſt hangs a ſhell, ſuſpended by a ſtring round their necks. Some wear tortoiſe-ſhell ear-rings, and others rings of ſhells.

The firſt natives that were ſeen upon the iſland, carried clubs in their hands, and waded into the water, carrying green boughs, the univerſal ſign of peace. In a day's time they ventured to come within a few yards of the ſhip's boat, which was ſent out, when they dipped their hands into the ſea, and gathering ſome water in the palms, poured it on their heads. The officers in the boat, in compliance with their example, did the ſame, with which the Indians appeared to be much pleaſed, repeating the word *tomarr*, or *tomarro*, continually. The greater part being now armed with bows and arrows, they ventured near the ſhip, and received and exchanged a few preſents. They continued about the ſhip talking very loudly, but in ſuch a manner as was very entertaining. Some continued about the ſhip till midnight: finding, however, at length, they were but little noticed, they returned on ſhore, where the ſound of ſinging and drums was heard all night.

Theſe people ſeemed to covet whatever they ſaw, but never repined at a refuſal. They were highly delighted with the looking glaſſes that were given them; and, notwithſtanding their remarkable deformity, were enraptured at viewing themſelves.

The enſuing morning the natives came off to the veſſel in their canoes, and four or five of them went on board without any arms. They ſoon became familiar, and, with the greateſt eaſe, climbed up the ſhrouds to the maſt head. When they came down the commander took them all into the cabin, and gave them preſents of various articles. They appeared the moſt intelligent of any nation that had been ſeen in the South Sea, readily underſtood meanings conveyed by ſigns and geſture, and ſoon taught the officers words in their language, which appeared peculiar to themſelves.

When ſome of the moſt reſpectable of our countrymen went on ſhore, the natives, with great good-will, ſat down on the ſtump of a tree, to teach them their language. They were ſurpriſed at the readineſs of their gueſts in remembering, and ſeemed to ſpend ſome time in pondering how it was poſſible to preſerve the ſound by ſuch means as pencils and paper. Nor were they leſs apt in catching the ſounds of the European languages; from whence it was juſtly remarked, that what they wanted in perſonal beauty, was compenſated in acuteneſs of underſtanding. They expreſſed their admiration by hiſſing like a gooſe.

There appeared but few women amongſt them. Thoſe few, however, were no leſs ugly than the men. They were of ſmall ſtature; and their heads, faces, and ſhoulders were painted red. Some wore a kind of petticoat; others a bag made of a kind of cloth, in which they carry their children. The younger females went ſtark naked, like the males of the ſame age. The women, in general, were not obſerved to have any finery in their ears, or round their necks and arms, it being faſhionable in this iſland for the men only to adorn themſelves; and wherever this cuſtom prevails, the other ſex is commonly oppreſſed, deſpiſed, and in a ſtate of ſervility. Here the men ſeemed to have no kind of regard for them; none of them came off to the ſhip; and they generally kept at a diſtance, when any party landed from the boat.

The houſes, or rather huts, here are low, and thatched with palm leaves. Some few are encloſed with boards; and the entrance is by a ſquare hole at one end.

Their weapons are bows and arrows; and a club, about two feet and a half in length, made of hard wood, commonly knobbed at one end, and well poliſhed. This weapon they hang on their right ſhoulder, from a thick rope made of a kind of graſs. Their arrows are made of a kind of reed, headed with hard wood or bone, ſuppoſed to be poiſoned. They are very careful of them, and keep them in a ſort of quiver made of leaves.

As they apply themſelves to huſbandry, their food ſeems to be principally vegetables: though, as fowls and hogs are bred, theſe may conſtitute a part of their ſubſiſtence, as well as that derived from the ocean.

Their canoes were ſmall, not exceeding two feet in width, of indifferent workmanſhip, and without ornament, but provided with an out-rigger.

One of the lateſt navigators gave the following relation, which we cite as an indication of the genius and diſpoſition of theſe people.

"When the natives ſaw us under ſail for our departure from the iſland, they came off in canoes, making exchanges with more confidence than before, and giving ſuch extraordinary proofs of their honeſty as ſurpriſed us. As the veſſel at firſt had freſh way through the water, ſeveral of the canoes dropped a-ſtern after they received goods, and before they had time to deliver theirs in return. Inſtead of taking advantage of this, they uſed their utmoſt efforts to get up with us, and deliver what they had already been paid for. One man, in particular, followed us a conſiderable time, and did not reach us till it was calm, and the thing was forgotten. As ſoon as he came along aſide, he held up the article, which ſeveral on board were ready to buy; but he refuſed to part with it, till he ſaw the perſon to whom he had before ſold it, and to whom he gave it. The perſon, not knowing the man again, offered him ſomething in return, which he refuſed; and ſhewing him what had been given before, made us ſenſible of the nice ſenſe of honour which had actuated this Indian."

ST. BARTHOLOMEW.

This iſland was ſo called by Captain Cook, from its having been diſcovered on St. Bartholomew's day. It is between ſix and ſeven leagues in circumference, and ſituated in latitude 15 degrees 23 min. ſouth.

ISLE OF LEPERS,

So called, as we are informed by Monſieur de Bouganville, from the number of people afflicted with the leproſy that were ſeen upon it, lies between Eſpiritu Santo and Aurora Iſland, eight leagues from the former, and three from the latter, in latitude 15 deg. 22 min. ſouth. It is of an oval figure, very high, and 18 or 20 leagues in circuit. Many beautiful caſcades of water were ſeen pouring down from the hills. Here the palms grow on the hills. The iſlanders are of two colours. Their lips are thick, their hair woolly, and ſometimes of a yelloviſh caſt. They are ſhort, ugly

ugly, and ill-proportioned, and moſt of them infected with the leproſy. The women are no leſs diſguſting than the men. They go almoſt naked. They have bandages to carry their children on their backs. In the cloth of which theſe bandages are made, are very pretty drawings, of a fine crimſon colour.

None of theſe men have beards. They pierce the noſe, in order to fix ſome ornament to it. They likewiſe wear on the arm, in form of a bracelet, a tooth, of a ſubſtance like ivory. On the neck they have pieces of tortoiſeſhell.

Their arms are bows and arrows, clubs of hard wood and ſtones, which they uſe without ſlings. The arrows are reeds, armed with a long and very ſharp point, made of bone. Some of theſe points are formed in ſuch a manner, as to prevent the arrows being drawn out of a wound.

The natives appeared to be very friendly to M. de Pougainville when he touched here in 1768, until all the men were embarked, when they ſent a flight of arrows after them; which aſſault, although it was attended with no bad conſequences, was revenged by diſcharging a volley of muſquetry, which killed ſeveral of the natives. It is not, therefore to be wondered at, that, when Captain Cook appeared off their coaſt, the natives ſhould be ſo ſhy of any intercourſe with ſtrangers when the haſty reſentment of ſuch had ſtained their ſhores with blood. Indeed, two or three natives put off in a canoe; but no tokens of friendſhip could induce them to come near the ſhip.

A U R O R A.

Inhabitants were diſcovered here, and ſome canoes; but none came off to the ſhip. A fine beach, and moſt luxuriant vegitation, preſented themſelves. The whole country was woody, and a beautiful caſcade poured through a foreſt. The iſland is about twelve leagues long, but not above five miles broad in any part, lying nearly north and ſouth. A channel divides this iſland from

WHIT-SUNDAY ISLE,

Which lies, as was computed, about four miles to the ſouth, runs in the ſame direction, and is of the ſame length, having more ſloping expoſures than Aurora. It appears to be better inhabited, and to contain more plantations.

A M B R Y M

Is about 18 leagues in circuit, and two leagues and a half from the ſouth end of Whit-Sunday Iſle. Its ſhores are rather low; but the land riſes with an unequal aſcent, to an high mountain in the middle of the iſland, which gave occaſion to ſuppoſe that a volcano was ſeated there.

A P E E

Is diſtant from Ambrym about five leagues, and not leſs than twenty leagues in circuit. Its longeſt direction is about eight leagues north weſt and ſouth eaſt. It is of conſiderable height, and richly diverſified with woods and lawns.

SANDWICH ISLE,

So called in compliment to Lord Sandwich, is 10 leagues long, and 25 in circuit. It exhibits a delightful view, the hills gently ſloping to the ſea. Several ſmall iſlands lay diſpoſed about here, to which Captain Cook gave the names of The Shepherd's Iſlands, Three Hills, Two Hills, The Monument, Montagu, and Hinchinbrooke.

E R R O M A N G O

Lies eighteen leagues from Sandwich Iſland, and is between 24 and 25 leagues in circuit. The middle of it lies in 18 deg. 54 min. ſouth latitude. The natives of this iſland ſeem to be of a different race from thoſe of Mallicollo, and ſpeak a different language. They are of the middle ſize, have a good ſhape, and tolerable features. Their colour is very dark; and they paint their faces, ſome with black, and others with red pigmont. Their hair is very curly and criſp, and in ſome degree woolly. But few women were ſeen, and thoſe very ugly. They wore a petticoat made of the leaves of ſome plant. The men were in a manner naked, having only the belt about the waiſt, and a piece of cloth or leaf uſed for a wrapper. No canoes were ſeen in any part of the iſland. They live in houſes covered with thatch; and their plantations are laid out by line and fenced round.

Captain Cook went on ſhore here with two boats. He preſented ſome of the natives with medals and cloth, and received every token of amity in return. Making ſigns that he wanted water, one of them ran to a hovel at a ſmall diſtance, and preſently returned with a little in a bamboo. On aſking for ſomething to eat, he was as readily preſented with a yam and ſome cocoa nuts. During this time the whole groupe were armed with clubs, ſpears, darts, bows and arrows, which excited ſome ſuſpicion, and led Captain Cook to cut ſhort his viſit, telling the chief, by ſigns, that he ſhould ſoon return. Seeing their gueſts about to depart, they endeavoured to haul that boat on ſhore which had the commander on board, whilſt others ſnatched the oars out of the peoples hands. At the head of this party was the chief. Thoſe who could not come at the boat, ſtood behind, armed with weapons, ready to ſupport thoſe that were moſt forward. Signs and threats having no effect on theſe people, perſonal ſafety became the only conſideration. but in this emergency the Britiſh commander was unwilling to fire among the crowd, and reſolved to make the chief alone fall a victim to his own treachery. His muſket, at that critical moment, miſſed fire, which could not fail of giving the natives a very mean opinion of the weapons that were oppoſed to them. They determined, therefore, to ſhew how much more effectual theirs were, by throwing ſtones and darts, and ſhooting arrows. This being the caſe, a general diſcharge of fire-arms could no longer be avoided. It threw them into confuſion: but a ſecond was hardly ſufficient to drive them off the beach. Four lay to all appearance dead on the ſhore; but two of them afterwards crawled into the buſhes. Not half of the muſquets would go off, which ſaved the lives of many of theſe poor miſtaken wretches. One of the men in the boat was wounded in the cheek with a dart: an arrow ſtruck the maſter on the breaſt; but, as its force was ſpent, it hardly penetrated the ſkin. The report of the muſquets on ſhore, alarmed thoſe in the ſhip; and another boat was immediately ſent off; and a ſwivel fired to the part where a number of the natives were aſſembled, and a great gun fired towards the hills, which ſtruck them with a panic, and they all haſtened to ſkreen themſelves in the buſhes. All intercourſe ended with this unhappy ſkirmiſh.

I M M E R

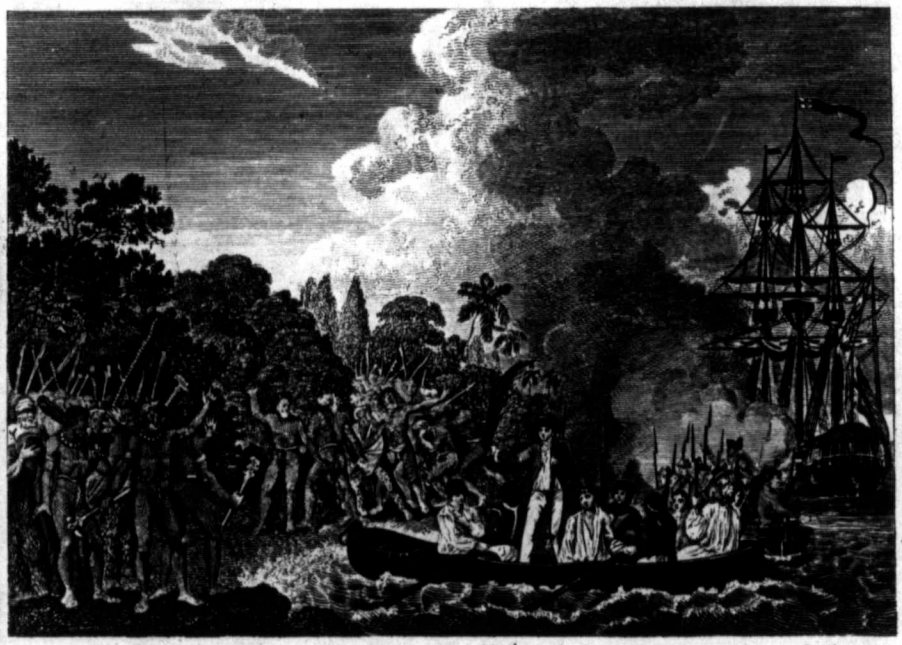
Is the moſt eaſtern iſland of all the Hebrides: It appeared to be about five leagues in circuit, of a conſiderable height, and flattiſh top.

A N N A T O M

Is the ſouthernmoſt iſland, ſituated in latitude 20 deg. 3 min. ſouth; longitude 170 deg. 4 min. eaſt.

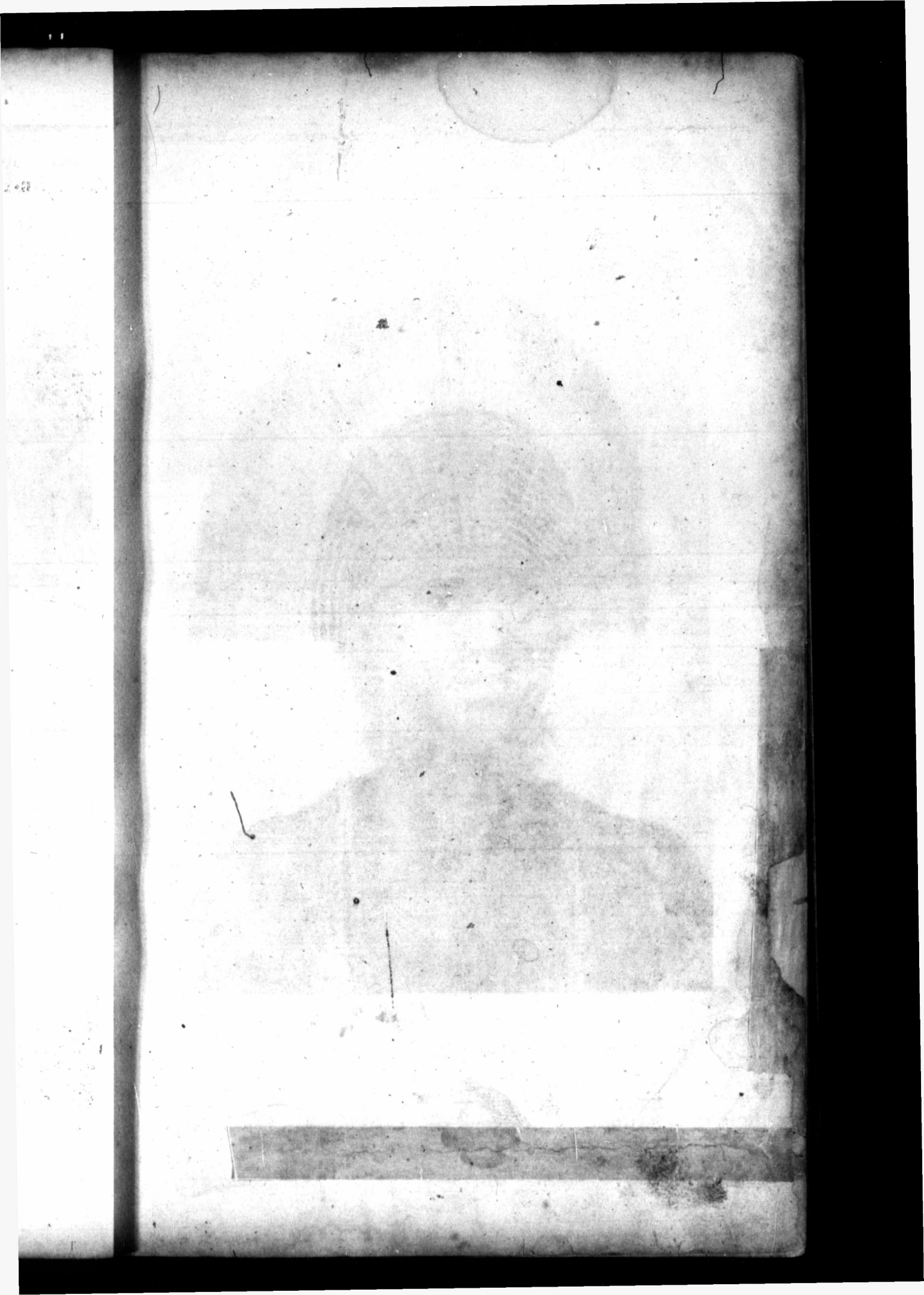
T A N N A

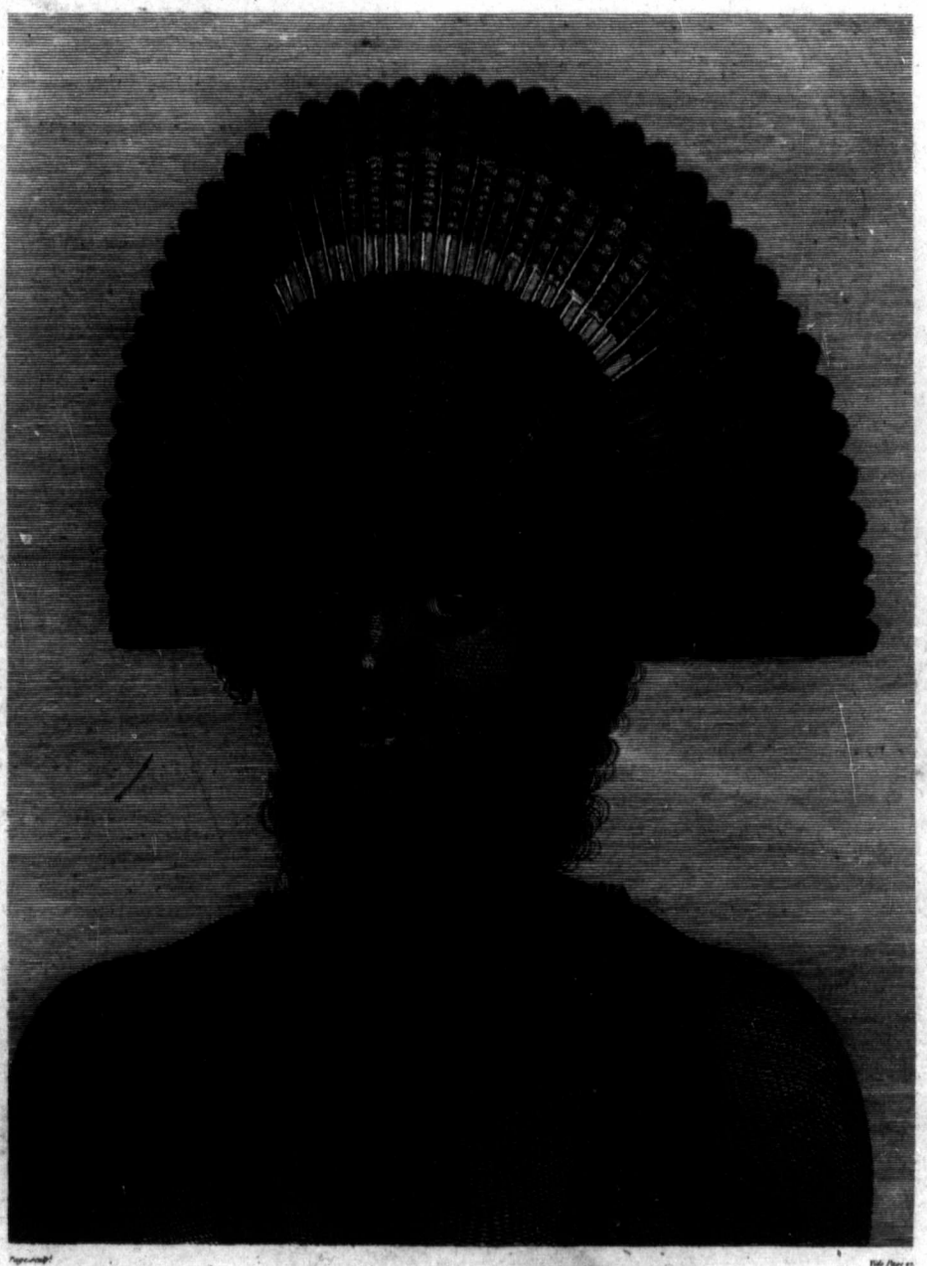
Lies ſix leagues on the ſouth ſide of Erromango. It is about eight leagues long, three or four broad, and twenty-four in circuit. Its latitude is 19 deg. 30 min. ſouth, and longitude 169 deg. 38 min. Its name ſignifies *earth* in the Malay language. The ſoil, in ſome places, is a rich black mould: in other parts it ſeemed



Captain Cook landing at Tanna, one of the Islands in the New Hebrides.

The fortunate escape of Capt.n Cook from the furious Natives of Erramanga.





POULAHO KING OF THE FRIENDLY ISLANDS.

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to be compoſed of decayed vegetables, and the aſhes of a volcano, which was ſeen, about eleven miles to the weſtward of the veſſel, burning with great fury. The country is, in general, ſo covered with trees, ſhrubs and plants, as to choak up the bread-fruit and cocoa-nuts. The country is not populous, nor the houſes conſequently numerous.

During the ſixteen days of Captain Cook's continuance here, the volcano emitted, at different times, vaſt quantities of fire and ſmoak, accompanied with an exploſion about once in five minutes. Some of theſe exploſions reſembled violent claps of thunder. The whole air was filled with ſmoaky particles and aſhes, which occaſioned much pain when they fell into the eye. At one time great ſtones were thrown up into the air, ſome of which were at leaſt as large as the hull of a ſhip's long boat. It firſt preſented a moſt magnificent ſight. The ſmoak, which rolled up, from time to time, in thick and heavy volumes, was coloured with all the various hues of yellow, orange, crimſon, and purple, which died away into a reddiſh grey and brown. As often as the new exploſion happened, the whole country, with its ſhaggy foreſts, were tinged with the ſame orange and purple, according to its diſtance, or particular expoſure to volcanic light. It ſometimes continued quite ſilent for five or ſix days together. It was remarked, that the exploſions of the volcanos recommenced after a ſhower of rain; ſo that it ſhould ſeem that rain excites them, by promoting or increaſing the fermentation of various mineral ſubſtances in the mountain. The black aſhes with which the whole country was ſtrewed, were found to be long, needle-like, and ſemitranſparent, and to contribute greatly to that luxuriance of vegetation which is remarkable on this iſland; many plants here attaining twice the height which they reach in other countries. Their leaves are broader, their flowers larger, and more richly ſcented.

Several new plants were collected here, and a variety of odoriferous ſhrubs; and ſome others were cultivated only for their elegant appearance. The plantations on this iſland conſiſt, for the moſt part, of yams, bananas, eddoes, and ſugar-canes, all which being very low, permit the eye to take in a great range of the country. Here are great numbers of fig-trees, which the natives cultivate for the ſake of the fruit and leaves. They are of two or three different kinds; and one ſort in particular bears figs of the common ſize, which are woolly, like peaches, on the outſide, and have a beautiful crimſon pulp, like pomegranates: they are ſweetiſh and juicy, but rather inſipid.

Some ſmall birds were ſeen here with a very beautiful plumage, and of a kind that had not been ſeen before.

Of the fiſh on this coaſt but little was known; but as the natives were ſeen to have no methods of catching them, but by ſtriking, it is probable that they draw but little of their ſubſiſtence from the water. Upwards of three hundred pounds weight of mullet, and other fiſh, were caught by three hauls with the ſeine.

A young native was ſhewn every part of the ſhip; but nothing fixed his attention a moment, or cauſed in him the leaſt ſurprize. He had no knowledge of goats, dogs, or cats, calling them all hogs, (*booga*). The commander made him a preſent of a dog and a bitch, as he ſhewed a liking to that kind of animal.

They appear to have plenty of hogs, but very few domeſtic fowls. Some rats, of the ſame kind as is common on the other iſlands in the Pacific Ocean, frequent the fields of ſugar-cane, in which they make great depredations: the natives, therefore, dig ſeveral holes all round theſe plantations, in which they catch theſe animals.

The natives of this iſland are of a middle ſize, and tolerably proportioned. Their colour is a dark cheſnut brown, with a very ſwarthy mixture. They go naked, having only a ſtring round the belly, which did not, however, cut the body in ſo ſhocking a manner as that in the iſland of Mallicollo. Their hair is generally black or brown, growing to a tolerable length, and very criſp and curly. Their beards, which are ſtrong and buſhy, are generally ſhort. The women wear their hair cropped, as do the boys, till they approach manhood. They make uſe of a cylindrical piece of alabaſter, two inches long, which they wear in the cartilaginous part between the noſtrils, as a noſe-jewel. Not one ſingle corpulent man was ſeen here: all are active and full of ſpirits. Their features are large, the noſes broad, but the eyes full, and in general agreeable.

They make inciſions chiefly on the upper arm and belly, which are inſtead of punctures. They cut the fleſh with a bamboo, or ſharp ſhell, and apply a particular plant, which form an elevated ſcar on the ſurface of the ſkin after it is healed. Theſe ſcars are formed to repreſent flowers, and other fancied figures, which are deemed a great beauty by the natives. Moſt of them have an open, manly, and good-natured air; though ſome were ſeen, as in other nations, whoſe countenances indicate malevolence.

It is a general remark, that though, like all the tropical nations, they are active and nimble, they were not fond of labour, nor would ever aſſiſt in any work that the ſhip's company were carrying on, which the Indians of the other iſlands uſed to delight in. They throw all the laborious drudgery on the women; from which occaſion was taken to remark that, though they were not beauties, they were handſome enough for the men, and too handſome for the uſe that was made of them.

Their ears are hung full of tortoiſe-ſhell rings, and necklaces of ſhells fall on their boſoms. Some of the elderly women had caps, made of a green plantain leaf, or of matted work; but this head-dreſs was rather uncommon. The number of ornaments conſiderably increaſed with age; the oldeſt and uglieſt being loaded with necklaces, ear-rings, noſe-jewels, and bracelets. The women here are expert cooks. They roaſt and boil the yams and bananas: they ſtew the green leaves of a kind of fig; they bake puddings made of a paſte of bananas and eddoes, containing a mixture of cocoa-nut kernel and leaves.

The domeſtic life of the people of Tanna, though they are rather of a ſerious turn, is not wholly deſtitute of amuſements; and their muſic is in greater perfection than any in the South Seas.

Their European viſitants gave them a variety of airs; in return for which the natives ſang ſeveral times very harmoniouſly. They likewiſe produced a muſical inſtrument, which conſiſted of eight reeds, regularly decreaſing in ſize, and comprehending an octave; though the ſingle reeds were not perfectly in tune.

Their houſes are like the roof of a thatched houſe in England, taken off the walls, and placed on the ground. Some were open at both ends, others cloſed with reeds, and all were covered with a palm thatch. A few of them were thirty or forty feet long, and fourteen or ſixteen broad. Beſides theſe, they have other mean hovels, which were ſuppoſed to be deſigned only to ſleep in.

Their weapons, in point of neatneſs, come far ſhort of ſome that were ſeen in other iſlands. They are clubs, ſpears, or darts, bows and arrows, and ſtones. The clubs are of three or four kinds, and from three to five feet long. They ſeem to place moſt dependence on the darts, with which they kill both birds and fiſh; and are ſure of hitting a mark within the compaſs of the crown of a hat, at the diſtance of eighteen yards; but at double that diſtance, it is a chance if they hit a mark the ſize of a man's body; though they will throw the weapon ſixty or ſeventy yards. The arrows are made of reeds, pointed with hard wood. Some are bearded, and ſome are not; and thoſe for ſhooting birds have two, three, and ſometimes four points. The ſtones they uſe in general are the branches of coral rocks, from eight to fourteen inches long, and from an inch to an inch and a half diameter. Thoſe who uſe ſtones keep them generally in their belts.

Their canoes can boaſt neither art nor ornament: all of them have out-riggers, and ſome may contain twenty people. Their ſails are low triangular mats, of which the broadeſt part is uppermoſt, and the ſharp angle below. A long piece of timber, hollowed out in the middle, forms the bottom of the canoe; and upon this one or two planks are fixed, forming the two ſides, by means of ropes of the cocoa-nut fibres. Their oars are ill-ſhaped, and very clumſily made.

Beſides the common language of the land, and a dialect of the neighbouring iſlands, ſome words were collected of a third language, which was chiefly current among the inhabitants of the weſtern hill. Some of our intelligent voyagers, on comparing their vocabularies, to diſcover that two different words were uſed to ſignify the ſky, applied to one of the natives to know which of the expreſſions was right. He immediately held out one hand, and applied it to one of the words, then moving the other hand under it, he pronounced the ſecond word, intimating, that the upper was properly the ſky, and the lower, clouds that moved under it.

They ſeem to have no other liquor than water and the cocoa-nut juice. They ſignified, in the moſt pointed manner, to our countrymen, that they eat human fleſh, and that circumciſion was practiſed among them. Nay, they introduced the ſubject of eating human fleſh, by aſking our people if it was a practice among them.

They appeared to have ſome national chief with very little authority. One old chief was ſaid to be the king of the iſland. His name was *Geogy*, and they gave him the title of Areekee. Notwithſtanding his advanced years, he had a merry open countenance.

No information could be derived reſpecting the religion of theſe people; only every morning at day break was heard a ſlow ſolemn ſong or dirge, ſung on the eaſtern ſide of the harbour, which laſted more than a quarter of an hour. As this was ſuppoſed to be a religious act, the curioſity of our navigators was excited to enquire further concerning it. But when they attempted to paſs that way, the natives crowded about them, and intreated them with the greateſt earneſtneſs to return. As they ſtill ſeemed to perſiſt, they were at length given to underſtand, that, if they remained obſtinate in their attempt, they would be killed and eaten. They now yielded to their ſolicitations, and turned off towards a hut about fifty yards diſtant, where the ground began to riſe; on which ſeveral of the Indians took up arms out of the hut, apparently meaning to force them to return back. Unwilling, therefore, to give offence, our people checked their curioſity, and were content to leave this point undetermined. Nothing, however, was ſeen, in the general behaviour of theſe people, that bore any reſemblance to a religious act, nor any thing that could be conſtrued into ſuperſtition.

Upon the boat's firſt going on ſhore from the ſhip, the natives were drawn up in great numbers on the beach, armed with clubs, darts, ſpears, ſlings, and ſtones. From this hoſtile appearance, the Britiſh commander was induced to re-embark ſpeedily, to prevent diſagreeable conſequences. In order to terrify, without hurting them, he ordered a muſket to be fired over their heads; but the alarm was only momentary, as the natives inſtantly recovered themſelves, and began to diſplay their weapons. A few great guns, however, being fired from the ſhip, they all diſperſed, leaving the beach free for a ſecond debarkation.

The commander having marked out boundaries on the ſhore with a line, the natives came gradually forward, ſome unarmed. An old man, named *Paowang*, ſhewed a very friendly diſpoſition and intercourſe between the commander and the natives. Such was the honeſty of this old man, that he brought an axe which had been left by the ſhip's company upon the beach. They were extremely jealous of any one going up the country, or even along the ſhore of the harbour; a diſpoſition that greatly obſtructed our naturaliſts in their attempts to explore.

As the carrying of bundles is the office of the women in this country, the natives imagined that thoſe from the ſhip who carried loads were females. A man, who carried a bag, which contained the plants ſelected by the naturaliſts, was followed by ſome of them, who, by their converſation, which was overheard, conſidered him as a woman, until, by ſome means, they diſcovered their miſtake, on which they cried out, *erromangee! erromangee!* It is a man! It is a man!

A tiller to the rudder being wanted, the carpenter was ſent on ſhore to look out a tree for the purpoſe, and with him an officer and a party of men to cut it down, provided leave could be obtained of the natives. The officer underſtanding that there was no objection, the people accordingly went to work; but, as the tree was large, the felling of it was a work of time; and, before it was down, word was brought that Paowang was not pleaſed; orders were therefore ſent from on board to deſiſt. The commander ſoon after went on ſhore, and ſending for Paowang, preſented him with a dog and a piece of cloth, and then explained to him the purpoſe for which the tree was wanted. All the natives preſent diſcovered great ſatisfaction at the means that were uſed to obtain the grant of the tree, and unanimouſly conſented to its being felled.

Many of the natives were afraid to touch the preſents that were offered them; nor did they ſeem to have any notion of exchanging one thing for another. But few refreſhments were obtained on this iſland. Some fruit or roots were daily procured from the natives, though greatly inadequate to the demands of the ſhip's company. As the natives had no knowledge of iron, nails, iron tools, beads, &c. which were ſo current in other parts, they were of no value here; nor was cloth of any uſe in a country where the inhabitants went moſtly naked. The only commodity they ſeemed deſirous of obtaining, was tortoiſe-ſhell; but as no demand was expected for ſuch an article, there were only a few ſmall pieces remaining in the ſhip, which had been purchaſed, at another iſland. The ſailors, however, notwithſtanding the loathſomeneſs of ſalt proviſions of long ſtanding, had not a ſingle provident thought for the future, but exchanged their tortoiſe-ſhell for bows and arrows, inſtead of furniſhing themſelves with a ſtock of yams.

A party from the ſhip, paſſing through a ſhrubbery, obſerved a native at work cutting ſticks, and ſeeing him make a very ſlow progreſs with his hatchet, which was only a bit of ſhell in lieu of a blade, they ſet about helping him with an iron hatchet, and, in a few minutes, cut a much greater heap than he had done the whole day. Several Indians who were witneſſes to this diſpatch, expreſſed the greateſt aſtoniſhment at the utility of this tool; and ſome were very deſirous of poſſeſſing it, by offering their bows and arrows for it. This was conſidered as a favourable opportunity for procuring hogs; but they were deaf to every propoſal of that kind, and never exchanged a ſingle hog; one pig only was obtained as a preſent to the commander from Paowang.

As there is great reaſon to ſuppoſe that the inhabitants of Tanna are harraſſed by frequent wars, the diſtruſt which they expreſſed on their firſt debarkation from the ſhips is not ſurpriſing. But as ſoon as they were aſſured of the pacific diſpoſition of their new viſitants, all ſuſpicions entirely ſubſided. They did not trade, indeed, becauſe they had not the means in proportion to the other iſlanders; but they were as aſſiduous in offering their ſervices, and from leſs intereſted motives. If any of the botaniſts had procured a plant, of which he was deſirous of having other ſpecimens, he had only to ſignify it to ſome native, who would immediately haſten to the ſpot where it was to be found, and bring it with the moſt engaging alacrity. The civility of the natives was conſpicuous in this particular inſtance. If they met any officer or gentleman of the ſhip in a narrow path, they always ſtepped aſide, in order

order to make way for them. If they happened to know their names, they pronounced them with a ſmile, which could be extremely well underſtood as a ſalutation. If they had not ſeen them before, they commonly enquired their names, in order to know them again. They have, upon the whole, the ſame engaging manner of expreſſing their friendſhip, by a mutual exchange of names, as is common in the moſt eaſtern iſlands of this ſea.

CHAP V.

THE FRIENDLY ISLANDS.

THE Friendly Iſlands (ſo called from the amicable intercourſe that ſubſiſts amongſt the natives, and their hoſpitable treatment of ſtrangers) form a cluſter, extending about three deg. of latitude, and two of longitude. The principal are Middleburg; Rotterdam, or Annamooka; Hapace; and Amſterdam, or Tongataboo. There are alſo others, which have been ſeen and viſited by more modern navigators. We ſhall attend to them ſeverally in their reſpective order.

SECTION I.

MIDDLEBURG, called by the Natives EOOA.

THIS iſland, which, being diſcovered, was alſo named, by Taſman, in 1642-3, is about ten leagues in circumference and lies in 21 deg. 17 min. ſouth latitude, and 174 deg. 44 min. weſt longitude.

Middleburg, from the nature of its ſituation, forms a very beautiful landſcape. Its ſkirts are, in general, laid out in plantations, eſpecially thoſe on the north-weſt and ſouth-weſt ſides. The interior parts are not, indeed, ſo well cultivated as they might be: but this heightens the proſpect; for, while the other iſles of this cluſter are level, the eye can diſcover nothing but the trees that cover them; here they land, riſing gradually upwards, preſents an extenſive view, where groves of trees are only interſperſed at irregular diſtances, in a kind of beautiful diſorder. It is ſhaded, near the ſhore, with various trees; amongſt which are the habitations of the natives, laid out in ſuch order as convenience requires; and they may boaſt a more delightful ſituation.

About half way up the iſland, in a deep valley, the bottom and ſides of which, though compoſed of hardly any thing but coral rock, are clothed with trees. The ſoil, in general, is a reddiſh clay, which, in many places, ſeems to be very deep. On the moſt elevated part of the iſland is a round platform, or mount of earth, ſupported by a wall of coral ſtones, to bring which to ſuch an height, muſt have coſt much labour. This mount, called by the natives Etchee, is ſaid to have been erected by order of one of their chiefs. Not many paces from this (though, on a former voyage, complaint was made of a dearth of water) was found an excellent ſpring; and, about a mile lower down, a running ſtream, which, it was ſaid, found its way to the ſea, when the rains were copious. It appeared, from information, that all, or moſt of the land in this iſland belonged to the great chiefs of Amſterdam, or Tongataboo, and that the inhabitants were only tenants, or vaſſals, to them. This, indeed, is repreſented to be the caſe at all the other neighbouring iſles, except Rotterdam, or Annamooka, where there are ſome chiefs who ſeem to act with a degree of independence.

The principle articles of food here are yams, with other roots, bananas, and bread-fruit; but the latter appeared to be ſcarce. The pepper tree, or *ava-ava*, of which they make a favourite intoxicating liquor, alſo grows here. There are many odoriferous trees and ſhrubs, and one, in particular, of the lemon ſpecies: the naturaliſts likewiſe met with divers new kinds of plants. The *caſuaria*, or club-wood, as in ſome neighbouring iſlands, points out alſo the repoſitories of their dead. The ſhaddock, and ſeveral other trees, are found upon the iſland.

The common complexion of the natives is mahogany, or cheſnut-brown, and black hair. Some are of an olive colour; and ſome of the women much fairer, which may be the effect of being leſs expoſed to the ſun. The men, in general, are of the middle ſtature; though ſome meaſured ſix feet. Their bodies are well proportioned, though muſcular, which ſeems a conſequence of much exerciſe. Their features are various; nor are they characteriſed by any general likeneſs, unleſs it be a fulneſs at the point of the noſe, which is very common.

The women, in general, are not ſo tall as the men: their bodies and limbs are well proportioned; and what particularly diſtinguiſhes them, is the uncommon ſmallneſs and delicacy of their fingers, which may be put in competition with the fineſt in any part of the world. Puncturing, or tattowing the ſkin, is in full faſhion amongſt the men here. On the tendereſt part of the body are marked configurated ſcars, which muſt be very painful, as well as dangerous. The chiefs are exempted from this cuſtom. The dreſs of both men and women are much the ſame, and conſiſts of a piece of cloth, or matting (though moſtly the former) about two yards wide, and two and an half long, ſo as to wrap in great abundance round the waiſt, to which it is confined by a girdle or cord. Before it is double, and hangs down, like a petticoat, as low as the middle of the leg, This, as to form, is the general dreſs; but large pieces of cloth, and fine matting, are worn only by thoſe of ſuperior rank. The inferior claſs are ſatisfied with ſmall pieces, and often wear nothing but a covering made of leaves of plants, or the *maro*, which is a narrow piece of cloth, or matting, like a ſaſh. This they paſs between the thighs, and wrap round the waiſt; but the uſe of it is chiefly confined to the men. They have various dreſſes, made for the purpoſe of their *havias* or grand entertainment; but the form is always the ſame; and the richeſt are adorned more or leſs with red feathers. Both ſexes ſometimes ſcreen their faces from the ſun with little bonnets, made of divers materials.

The ſexes differ as little in their ornaments as their clothing. Of theſe the moſt common are necklaces, made of various ſweet ſcented flowers, which go under the general name of *kabulla*. Others conſiſt of ſeveral ſtrings of ſmall ſhells, ſharks teeth, and other things, which hang looſe upon the breaſt, In the ſame manner they likewiſe wear a mother of pearl ſhell, neatly poliſhed; and a ring of the ſame ſubſtance carved, on the upper part of the arm; as alſo rings of tortoiſe-ſhel on the fingers; and a number of theſe joined together, as bracelets, on the wriſts.

The lobes of the ears are perforated with two holes, in which they wear cylindrical pieces of ivory, ſtuck through both ſides of the holes. Some uſe reeds, filled with a yellow pigment. This ſeems to be a fine powder of *turmeric*, with which the women rub themſelves all over, in the ſame manner as the European females uſe dry rouge upon their cheeks.

But what particularly characterizes theſe people, and was remarked by Taſman, is, that moſt of them want the little finger on one, and ſometimes on both hands;

nor did the difference of age or ſex exempt from this amputation, for the very children were obſerved to have ſuffered that loſs. They had alſo a round ſpot on each cheek bone, which appeared to have been burned or bliſtered. On ſome it ſeemed to have been recently made; on others it was covered with ſcurf, and the mark was ſlight; but the purport of it could not be diſcovered.

The women, in general, here are repreſented as modeſt and reſerved in their behaviour; though, as in other iſlands, there were ſome exceptions.

The natives of theſe iſlands are much commended by voyagers for their cleanlineſs, to produce which they are ſaid to bathe frequently in ponds, which ſeem to ſerve no other purpoſe. Though the water in moſt of them is naufeous to a degree, they prefer them to the ſea, imagining that ſalt water hurts their ſkins. When neceſſity obliges them to bathe in the ſea, they commonly have ſome cocoo-nut ſhells filled with freſh water poured over them, to waſh it off. The cocoa-nut oil has an admirable effect on the ſkin in rendering it ſmooth; for which theſe people hold it in ſuch eſtimation, that they not only pour a great quantity of it upon their heads and ſhoulders, but rub the body all over briſkly with a ſmaller quantity. The language here is ſoft, and not unpleaſing; and whatever they ſay is ſpoken in a kind of ſinging tone.

They do not diſcover much taſte or ingenuity in building their houſes; though the defect is rather in the deſign than the execution. Thoſe of the lower people are poor huts; thoſe of the better are larger, and more comfortable. Their houſes, properly ſpeaking, are thatched roofs or ſheds, ſupported by poſts and rafters, diſpoſed in a tolerable judicious manner. The floor is a little raiſed, covered with ſtrong thick matting, and kept very clean. They are moſtly cloſed on the weather ſide with the ſame ſort of matting, the other being open. A thick ſtrong mat, of two or three feet broad, bent into the form of a ſemicircle, and ſet upon its edge, with its ends touching the ſide of the houſe, in ſhape reſembling the fender of a fire-hearth, encloſes a ſpace for the maſter and miſtreſs of the family to ſleep in. The latter, indeed, ſpends moſt of her time, during the day, within it. The reſt of the family ſleep upon the floor, wherever they pleaſe to lie down, the unmarried men and women apart from each other. If the family be large, there are ſmall huts, adjoining to which the ſervants retire in the night; ſo that privacy is as much obſerved here as can be expected. They have mats made on purpoſe for ſleeping on; and the clothes they wear in the day, ſerve for their covering in the night. Their houſehold furniture conſiſts of ſome bowls and platters; cocoa-nut ſhells; ſome ſmall wooden ſtools, which ſerve them for pillows; and, perhaps, a large ſtool, for the maſter of the houſe to ſit on.

Their weapons are clubs, ſpears, bows and arrows. The former are of a great variety of ſhapes, and many of them ſo heavy as not to be managed with one hand, but with difficulty. The moſt common form is a quadrangular. The far greater part were carved all over, in many chequered patterns, which ſeem to have required great patience, and a long time to work up, as a ſharp ſtone, or piece of coral, are the only tools made uſe of. The whole ſurface of the plain clubs was as highly poliſhed as if finiſhed by an European artiſt, with the beſt inſtruments. Their ſpears are ſometimes plain ſharp pointed ſticks, and ſometimes barbed. Their bows and arrows are of a peculiar conſtruction. The former which is about ſix feet long, is about the ſize of a little finger, and when ſlack, forms a ſlight curve; the convex part is channelled with a ſingle deep groove, in which the bow-ſtring is lodged. The arrow is made of reed, near ſix feet long, and pointed with hard wood. When the bow is to be bent, inſtead of drawing it ſo as to increaſe the natural curve, they draw it the contrary way, make it perfectly ſtrait, and then form the curve on the other ſide.

Much ingenuity is diſplayed in the conſtruction of their canoes. They have out-riggers made of poles, and their workmanſhip is admirable. Two of theſe are joined together with ſurpriſing exactneſs, and the ſurface is poliſhed in a very curious manner. Their paddles have ſhort blades, and are very neatly wrought.

A circumſtance occurred in this place, which afforded an opportunity of obſerving how theſe people treat conjugal infidelity. Some of our people, on their return from an excurſion, being informed that a party of the natives had ſtruck one of their own countrymen with a club, which laid bare, or, as others ſaid, fractured his ſkull, and then broke his thigh with the ſame, enquired the reaſon of ſuch treatment, and were given to underſtand that he had been diſcovered in a ſituation rather indelicate, with a woman that was *tabooed*, that is, forbidden. But the female delinquent had by far the ſmaller ſhare of puniſhment for her miſdemeanor, as our people were told, ſhe would only receive a ſlight beating.

Our navigators, when they firſt viſited this iſland, obſerved that ſeveral of both ſexes were afflicted with leprous diſorders in the moſt virulent degree, in various parts of their bodies. The face of one woman was corroded by the acrid humours ſo as to exhibit a moſt horrid ſpectacle. Many others were likewiſe ſo diſfigured by the diſorder, that they could not be beheld without a mixture of diſguſt and pity.

The amicable diſpoſition of the natives is fully evinced from the friendly reception all ſtrangers have met with who have viſited them. When Captain Cook firſt anchored on the W. N. W. ſide of this iſland, two canoes, with ſeveral men in each, came along-ſide the ſhip. One of them came on board, without any heſitation, preſented a root of the pepper-tree, touched the noſes of the officers with his own, in token of friendſhip, and then ſat down on the deck without ſpeaking a word. The native was preſented with a nail, which, on receiving, according to the general cuſtom of the iſland, he held over his head, pronouncing the word *fagafetai*, or *fagafatie*. This was moſt probably meant as an expreſſion of his thankfulneſs. No people could give greater proofs of liberality of diſpoſition, for they came in great numbers about our veſſels, threw bales of cloth into them, and retired, without ſo much as waiting for a return.

As an inſtance of their hoſpitality, Captain Cook, with ſeveral officers and gentlemen, were conducted, on their landing, by a chief, named *Tioony*, to his manſion, delightfully ſituated, about three hundred yards from the ſea, at the head of a fine lawn, and under the ſhade of ſome ſhaddock trees, and there elegantly entertained. The very ſame chief, on the commander's laſt viſit, then called *Taoofa*, viſited him on board immediately he came to an anchor, and, with the utmoſt cordiality, rendered him every friendly ſervice within his power. The European ſtrangers, indeed, were careſſed by old and young men and women, who embraced them, kiſſed their hands, and laid them on their breaſts, with the moſt expreſſive looks of affection. It was very remarkable, that the diſcharge of guns neither excited their admiration or their fear, which plainly proved that their civility aroſe from the bent of natural diſpoſition, and not from a motive of conciliating the favour of their gueſts, becauſe they knew them able to deſtroy them.

The only glaring defect that ſullies their character is a propenſity to theft, which, in one of the narratives of the firſt voyages, is ſaid to be confined to nails, on which they ſet ſo high a value that they would endeavour to poſſeſs them at any rate: but, we are ſorry to ſay, that truth and candour obliges us to confeſs, that, from later experience, in many inſtances, the propenſity in ſome appeared to be ſo univerſal as to admit of no bound or reſtraint.

SECTION

SECTION II.

Deſcription of the cuſtoms, manners, religion, government, language, &c. &c. of the inhabitants of the Friendly Iſlands in general.

AS there appears to be a ſimilarity in the perſons, genius, manners, cuſtoms, rites, ceremonies, &c. of the inhabitants of the Friendly Iſlands in general, we preſume it may not be unentertaining to our readers to ſelect them from the beſt authorities, and preſent them in one point of view.

The inhabitants of theſe iſlands are ſo agreeably circumſtanced, as neither to be ſubject to exceſſive labour on the one hand, or ſupine indolence on the other. Their occupations are agreeably diverſified, and their recreations and amuſements follow in pleaſing ſucceſſion, ſo that they neither diſguſt or tire. To the women is committed the care of making the cloth, and to them is alſo conſigned the manufactures of their mats.

Conformable to the powers peculiar to their ſex, the men are aſſigned the moſt arduous and laborious employments. Architecture, boat-building, agriculture, and fiſhing, are the principal objects of their care. As cultivated roots and fruits form their chief ſubſiſtence, they find it neceſſary to practiſe huſbandry, which they have brought by their diligence to ſome degree of perfection. In planting yams and plantains, they dig ſmall holes for their reception, and afterwards root up the ſurrounding graſs. The inſtruments uſed by them for this purpoſe are called hooo; and are nothing more than ſtakes of various lengths, flattened and ſharpened to an edge at one end: and the largeſt ones have a ſhort piece fixed tranſverſely, by means of which they preſs the implement into the ground with the foot. When they plant the two above-mentioned vegetables, they obſerve ſuch particular exactneſs, that, which ever way you turn your eyes, the rows preſent themſelves complete and regular.

Some of their vegetable productions, and, in particular the bread-fruit and cocoa-nut trees, are ſcattered without order, and reared without pains. The ſame may be ſaid of another large tree, which produces a roundiſh compreſſed nut, called *eeefee*; and of a ſmaller tree bearing an oval nut, with two or three triangular kernels. The *kappe* is in general, planted regularly; and in large ſpots; but the *mawhaba* is interſperſed among other things, as are alſo the yams and *jeefee*. Sugar-cane is uſually in ſmall ſpots, cloſely crowded. The tree of which the cloth is made, is kept very clean, and has a good ſpace allowed for it. The *pandanus* is commonly planted in a row, cloſe together, at the ſides of the fields.

The ſtructure of their houſes (if ſo they may be called) afford proofs neither of deſign or execution. Thoſe of the lower claſs of people are wretched huts, ſcarce ſufficient to ſhelter them from the weather. Thoſe of the better ſort are larger, as well as more commodious and comfortable. An houſe of a middling ſize is of the following dimenſions, viz. about twelve feet in height, twenty in breadth, and thirty in length. Their houſes, are, properly ſpeaking, thatched roofs or ſheds, ſupported by rafters and poſts. The floor is raiſed with earth ſmoothed, and covered with thick matting. Some of their habitations are open all round, but the major part of them are encloſed on the weather ſide with ſtrong mats, or with branches of the cocoa-nut tree, plated or interwoven with each other. A thick mat, about three feet broad, bent into a ſemicircular form, and placed edgeways, with the ends touching the ſide of the houſe, encloſes a ſufficient ſpace for the maſter and miſtreſs to ſleep in. The reſt of the family ſleep upon any part of the floor, the unmarried men and women lying apart from each other. If the family is large, there are little huts adjoining, in which the ſervants ſleep. Their whole furniture conſiſts of ſome wooden ſtools, which ſerve them for pillows; baſkets of different ſizes, in which they put their combs, fiſh-hooks, and tools: two or three wooden bowls, in which they make *kava*; ſome cocoa-nut ſhells, a few gourds, and a bundle or two of cloth.

But the deficiency ſo apparent in the building of their houſes is amply compenſated in the conſtruction of their canoes, which diſplay much taſte and ingenuity. The double ones are made ſufficiently large to carry about fifty perſons, and ſail at a great rate. Upon them they generally fix a hut or ſhed, for the reception of the maſter and his family. They are made of the bread-fruit tree, and the workmanſhip is extremely neat. They appear on the outſide as if they were compoſed of one ſolid piece; but, upon cloſer inſpection, they are found to conſiſt of a great number of pieces, which fit each other exactly, and by means of a ledge on the inſide are ſecured together with cocoa-nut line. The ſingle canoes are furniſhed with an outrigger. The only tools which they make uſe of in the conſtruction of theſe boats, are hatchets or adzes, of a ſmooth black ſtone; augers, made of ſharks teeth; and raſps, compoſed of the rough ſkin of a fiſh, faſtened on flat pieces of wood. The ſame tools are all they have for other works, except ſhells, which ſerve them for knives. Their cordage is made of the fibres of the cocoa-nut huſk, which, though not above ten inches long, they plait about the ſize of a quill, to whatever length is required, and roll it up in balls; from which the ropes of a larger ſize are made, by twiſting ſeveral of thoſe together. Their fiſhing lines are as ſtrong and even as our beſt cord. Their ſmall hooks conſiſt entirely of pearl ſhells; but the large ones are only covered with it on the back; and the points of both, are, in general, of tortoiſe-ſhell. With the large hooks they catch albicores, and bonnetos, by putting them to a bamboo end, about twelve feet long, with a line of the ſame length. They have alſo numbers of ſmall ſeines, ſome of which are of the moſt delicate texture.

Their muſical reeds or pipes, which reſemble the ſyrinx of the ancients, have eight or ten pieces placed parallel to each other, moſt of which are of unequal lengths. Their flutes are made of a joint of bamboo, about eighteen inches long, and are cloſed at both ends, having a hole near each end, and four others: two of which, and only one of the firſt, are uſed by them in playing. They cloſe the left noſtril with the thumb of the left hand, and blow into the hole at one end with the other noſtril. The fore-finger of the right hand is applied to the loweſt hole on the right, and the middle finger of the left to the firſt hole on that ſide. In this manner, with only three notes, they produce a pleaſing though ſimple muſic.

Their warlike weapons are clubs, curiouſly ornamented, ſpears, and darts. They alſo make bows and arrows; but theſe are intended for amuſement, ſuch as ſhooting at birds, and not for the purpoſe of war. Their ſtools, or rather pillars, are about two feet long, but only four or five inches in height, and near four in breadth, inclining downwards towards the middle, with four ſtrong legs and circular feet; the whole compoſed of brown or black wood, neatly poliſhed, and ſometimes inlaid with ivory. They likewiſe inlay with ivory handles of fly-flaps; and, with a ſhark's tooth, ſhape bones into figures of men, birds, &c.

Plantains, cocoa-nuts, bread-fruit and yams, compoſe the greater part of their vegetable food. Their chief articles of animal food are hogs, fiſh and fowls; but the common people frequently eat rats. Their hogs, fowls, and turtle, however, ſeem to be only occaſional dainties ſerved for people of rank. Their food is, in general, dreſſed by baking; and they make, from different ſorts of fruit, ſeveral diſhes which are very good. They ſometimes boil their fiſh in the green leaves of the plantain tree, which ſerve as a bag to hold both fiſh and water: having tied them up, they wrap them again in three or four other leaves, and place them upon ſtones heated for the purpoſe: when they are ſufficiently done, they not only eat the fiſh, but drink the liquor or ſoup. They are not very cleanly either in their cook-

ery or their manner of eating. Their uſual drink at their meals is water, or cocoa-nut milk, *kava* being only their morning beverage. The food that is ſerved up to the chiefs is generally laid upon plantain-leaves. The king, at his meals, is commonly attended upon by three or four of the natives, one of whom cuts large pieces of the fiſh, or of the joint, another afterwards divides it into mouthfuls, and the reſt ſtand by with cocoa-nuts, and whatever elſe he may happen to want. The women are not excluded from taking their meals with the men; but there are certain ranks that are not allowed either to eat or drink together. This diſtinction begins with his majeſty, but we know not where it ends.

According to thoſe rules which are moſt conducive to health of body and vigour of mind, they riſe at day-break, and retire to reſt as ſoon as it becomes dark. They, for the moſt part, ſleep alſo in the day time when the weather is very hot. They are fond of aſſociating together; in conſequence of which it is not uncommon to find ſeveral houſes empty, and the poſſeſſors of them aſſembled in ſome other houſe, or upon ſome convenient ſpot in the neighbourhood, where they relax themſelves by converſation and other amuſements. Their private diverſions chiefly conſiſt of dancing, ſinging, and muſic. When two or three women ſnap their fingers, and ſing in concert, it is called *oobai*; but when there are more, they form ſeveral parties, each of which ſings in a different key, which conſtitutes an agreeable melody, and is termed *heeva* or *havia*. The ſongs are generally accompanied with the muſic of their flutes. The dances both of the men and women are performed with an eaſe and grace which are difficult to be deſcribed.

The nature of their marriages could not be aſcertained, either in point of form, or obligation; it is certain, however, that the major part of the men content themſelves with one wife. The chiefs, indeed, commonly have ſeveral women, though only one is conſidered in the light of miſtreſs of the family.

They diſplay a ſtriking inſtance of humanity in the manner in which they are affected by the loſs of their friends and relations. Beſides the *tooge*, and burnt circles and ſcars, they ſtrike a ſhark's tooth into their heads till the blood flows conſiderably, beat their teeth with ſtones, and thruſt ſpears not only through their cheeks into their mouths, but alſo into the inner parts of their thighs, and into their ſides. The more painful operations, however, are only practiſed when they mourn for the death of thoſe who are moſt nearly connected with them. When one of them dies, he is wrapped up in mats and cloth, and then interred. The *fiatookas* ſeem to be appropriated to the chiefs and other perſons of diſtinction, as their burial places; but the inferior people have no particular ſpot ſet apart for their interment. It is uncertain what part of the mourning ceremony follows immediately afterwards; but there is ſomething beſides the general one which is continued for a conſiderable time. They ſeem to conſider death as a great evil, to avert which they practiſe a very ſingular cuſtom. When Captain Cook, during his ſecond voyage, firſt viſited theſe iſlands, he obſerved that many of the natives had one or both of their little fingers cut off; of the reaſon of which mutilation he could not then obtain a ſatisfactory account. But he was now informed, that they perform this operation when they are afflicted with ſome dangerous diſorder, which they imagine may bring them to the grave. They ſuppoſe, that the little finger will be accepted by the Deity, as a kind of propitiatory ſacrifice, ſufficiently efficacious to procure their recovery. In cutting it off, they make uſe of a ſtone hatchet. There is ſcarcely one perſon in ten who is not thus mutilated; and they ſometimes cut ſo cloſe, as to encroach upon that bone of the hand which joins the amputated finger. It is alſo common for the lower claſs of people to cut off a joint of their little finger, on account of the ſickneſs of the chiefs to whom they reſpectively belong.

From the ſingular ceremonies they obſerve on the occaſion before mentioned, it might be expected that they endeavoured thereby to ſecure themſelves eternal happineſs; but their principal object regards things merely temporal; for they have apparently little conception of future puniſhment for ſins committed in the preſent life. They believe, however, that they meet with juſt puniſhments upon earth; and, therefore, put every method in practice to render their divinities propitious. They admit a plurality of deities, all of them inferior to *Kallafoogonga*, who they ſay is a female, and the ſupreme author of moſt things, reſiding in the heavens, and directing the wind, rain, thunder, &c. They are of opinion, that when ſhe is much diſpleaſed with them, the productions of the earth are blaſted, many things conſumed by lightning, and themſelves afflicted with ſickneſs and death; but that when her anger abates, every thing is immediately reſtored to its former ſtate. Among their ſubordinate deities, they mention *Futtafaihe* or *Footafooa*, who has the adminiſtration of the ſea, and its productions; *Toofooa-bolootoo*, god of the clouds and fog, *Talleteboo*, *Mattaha*, *Tareeava*, and others. The ſame ſyſtem of religion does not extend all over the Friendly Iſlands; the ſupreme deity of Hapaee, for inſtance, being called *Alo Alo*. They entertain very abſurd opinions relative to the power and various attributes of theſe beings, who they ſuppoſe have no farther concern with them after death. They have however juſter ſentiments of the immortality and immateriality of the ſoul; which they call life, the living principle, or an *Otooa*, that is, a divinity. They imagine that, immediately after death, the ſouls of their chiefs are ſeparated from their bodies, and go to a delightful region called *Boolootoo*, the god of which is named *Goolebo*. By this *Goolebo* they probably perſonify death. His country, according to their mythology, is the general repoſitory of the dead; and thoſe who are once conveyed thither are no more ſubject to death, but feaſt on all the favourite productions of their native ſoil, with which this bliſsful abode is plentifully furniſhed. As for the ſouls of people of an inferior claſs they are ſuppoſed by them to ſuffer a kind of tranſmigration; or are eaten up (they ſay) by a bird called *loala*, which walks on the graves with that intent.

They do not worſhip any viſible part of the creation, or any things made by their own hands. They make no offering of dogs, hogs, or fruit, unleſs emblematically. But there ſeems to be no reaſon to doubt of their offering up human ſacrifices. Their *fiatookas* or *morais* are, in general, burying grounds and places of worſhip: ſome of them, however, appear to be appropriated only to the former purpoſe: but theſe are ſmall, and greatly inferior to the reſt.

Our navigators could derive but little information as to their mode and form of government. A ſubordination, reſembling the feudal ſyſtem of our anceſtors in Europe, is eſtabliſhed among them: but of its ſubdiviſions, and the conſtituent parts, we are ignorant. Though ſome of them aſſerted, that the king's power is unbounded, and that he has the abſolute diſpoſal of the lives and properties of his ſubjects, yet the few circumſtances that offered themſelves to our obſervation, contradicted, rather than confirmed, the idea of deſpotic ſway. Mareewagee, Feenau, and Old Toobou acted each the part of a petty ſovereign, and not unfrequently counteracted the meaſures of the king. Nor was his court ſuperior in ſplendor to thoſe of Old Toobou and Mareewagee, who, next to his majeſty, were the moſt potent chiefs in theſe iſlands; and next after them, Feenau appeared to ſtand higheſt in rank and authority. But, however independent of the king the principle men may be, the inferior people are totally ſubject to the will of the chiefs to whom they ſeverally belong.

The iſland called Tongataboo is divided into a great number of diſtricts, each of which has its peculiar chief, who diſtributes juſtice, and decides diſputes, within his own territory. Moſt of theſe chiefs have eſtates

eſtates in other iſlands, whence they procure ſupplies. The king, at ſtated times, receives the product of his diſtant domains at Tongataboo, which is not only the uſual place of his reſidence, but the abode of moſt perſons of diſtinction among theſe iſlands. Its inhabitants frequently call it the Land of Chiefs, and ſtigmatize the ſubordinate iſles with the appellation of Lands of Servants.

Great deference, and even worſhip may be ſaid to be paid to their chiefs, who are ſtyled Lords of the earth, and alſo of the ſun and ſky. The royal family aſſume the name of Futtafaihe, from the god diſtinguiſhed by that appellation, who is probably conſidered by them as their titular patron. The king's peculiar title is ſimply *Tooee Tonga*. The order and decorum obſerved in his preſence, and likewiſe in that of the other chiefs, are truly admirable. Whenever he ſits down, all the attendants ſeat themſelves before him, forming a ſemicircle, and leaving a ſufficient ſpace between them and him, into which no one, unleſs he has particular buſineſs, preſumes to come. Nor is any one ſuffered to ſit or paſs behind him, or even near him, without his permiſſion. When a perſon wiſhes to ſpeak to his majeſty, he comes forward, and having ſeated himſelf before him, delivers in a few words what he has to ſay; then, after being favoured with an anſwer, retires. If the king ſpeaks to any one, the latter gives an anſwer from his ſeat, unleſs he is to receive an order; in which caſe he riſes from his place, and ſeats himſelf croſs-legged before his majeſty. To ſpeak to the king ſtanding, would here be conſidered as a glaring mark of rudeneſs.

In implicit obedience to the commands of their chiefs, in decorum and order of behaviour, as well as in harmony and unanimity, none of the civilized nations have excelled them. Such a behaviour manifeſts itſelf in a remarkable manner, whenever their chiefs harangue a body of them aſſembled together, which frequently happens. The greateſt attention and moſt profound ſilence, are obſerved during the harangue; nor is there ever ſeen a ſingle inſtance of any one preſent ſhewing ſigns of being diſpleaſed, or ſeeming in the leaſt inclined to diſpute the declared will of the ſpeaker.

It is a peculiar privilege annexed to the perſon of the king, not to be punctured or circumciſed, or rather ſupercíſed, as his ſubjects are. Whenever he walks out, all who meet him muſt ſit down till he has paſſed. No perſon is ſuffered to be over his head: but, on the contrary, all muſt come under his feet. The method of doing homage to him, and the other chiefs, is as follows; the perſon who is to pay obeiſance ſquats down before the great perſonage, and bows the head down to the ſole of his foot, which he taps or touches with the under and upper ſide of the fingers of each hand; then, riſing up, he retires. His majeſty cannot refuſe any one who is deſirous of paying him this homage, which is called by the natives *moe moea*; for the people frequently think proper to ſhew him theſe marks of ſubmiſſion, when he is walking; and he is on theſe occaſions obliged to ſtop, and hold up one of his feet behind him, till they have performed this reſpectful ceremony. The hands, after having been thus applied, become, in ſome caſes, uſeleſs for a little time; for, till they are waſhed, they muſt not touch food of any ſort. This prohibition, in a country where water is far from being plentiful, would be attended with inconvenience, if a piece of any juicy plant, which they can immediately procure, being rubbed over the hands, did not ſerve for the purpoſe of purification. When the hands are in this ſituation, they term it *taboo rema*; the former word generally ſignifying forbidden, and the latter implying hand. When the *taboo* is incurred by doing homage to a perſon of rank. It may thus eaſily be waſhed off: but, in ſeveral other caſes, it muſt continue for a certain period. Women, who have been *taboo rema*, are not fed by themſelves, but by others. The interdicted perſon, after the limited time has elapſed, waſhes herſelf in one of their baths, which are in general dirty ponds of brackiſh water. She then waits upon the ſovereign, and having paid the cuſtomary obeiſance, takes hold of his foot, which ſhe applies to her ſhoulders, breaſt, and other parts; he then embraces her on both ſhoulders, and ſhe immediately retires, purified from her uncleanneſs. If it be always neceſſary to have recourſe to his majeſty for this purpoſe, it may be one reaſon of travelling from one iſland to another.

Divers ſignifications are annexed to the word *taboo*. They call human ſacrifices *tangata taboo*; and when any particular thing is prohibited to be eaten, or made uſe of, they ſay it is *taboo*. If the king goes into a houſe belonging to one of his ſubjects, that will, in conſequence, become *taboo*, and can never be again inhabited by the owner of it; ſo that, wherever his majeſty travels, there are houſes peculiarly aſſigned for his accommodation. A certain perſon is appointed as an inſpector of all the produce of the iſland, who takes care that each individual ſhall cultivate and plant his quota, at the ſame time directing what ſhall, and what ſhall not, be eaten. By ſo prudent a regulation, they take effectual precautions againſt a famine; ſufficient ground is employed in raiſing proviſions; and every article is ſecured from unneceſſary conſumption. By another good regulation, an officer is appointed to ſuperintend the police, whoſe buſineſs it is to puniſh all delinquents: he is alſo generaliſſimo, or commander in chief of the forces of the iſlands. If this commander ſhould act inconſiſtent with the duties of his office, or govern in ſuch a manner as may be injurious to the public welfare, he would, by the collective body of the people, be depoſed from his ſovereignty and put to death. A monarch thus ſubject to controul and puniſhment for abuſe of power, cannot juſtly be deemed a deſpotic prince.

It was natural to ſuppoſe, on a review of theſe iſlands, and the remote diſtance at which ſome of them are ſituated from the ſeat of government, that many efforts would have been made to throw off the yoke of ſubjection. But ſuch a circumſtance never happens. One reaſon of their not being thus embroiled in domeſtic commotions may be this; that all the principal chiefs take up their reſidence at Tongataboo. They alſo ſecure the dependence of the other iſles, by the deciſive celerity of their operations; for, if a ſeditious and popular man ſhould ſtart up in any of them, the commander is immediately diſpatched thither to put him to death, by which means they extinguiſh an inſurrection while it is yet in embryo.

The different claſſes of their chiefs ſeem to be nearly as numerous, as among us; but there are few, comparatively ſpeaking, that are lords of extenſive diſtricts of territory. It is ſaid, that when a perſon of property dies, all his poſſeſſions devolve on the ſovereign; but that it is cuſtomary to give them to the eldeſt ſon of the deceaſed, with this condition annexed, that he ſhould provide, out of the eſtate, for the other children. The crown is hereditary; and it is known, from a particular circumſtance, that the Futtafaihes have reigned, in a direct line, for the ſpace of at leaſt one hundred and thirty-five years, which have elapſed between our countrymen viſiting theſe iſlands, and Taſman's diſcovery of them. Upon enquiring of them, whether any traditional account of the arrival of Taſman's ſhips had been preſerved among them till this time, it was found that this hiſtory had been delivered down to them from their anceſtors, with great accuracy: for they ſaid, that his two ſhips reſembled ours, and alſo mentioned the place where they had lain at anchor, their having continued but a few days, and their quitting that ſtation to go to Annamooka; and, for the purpoſe of informing us how long ago this affair had happened, they communicated to us the name of the Futtafaihe who reigned at that time, and thoſe who had ſucceeded him in the ſovereignty, down to Poulaho, who is the fifth monarch ſince that period.

Their

Their rank of precedence ever appeared a matter of great difficulty to aſcertain. It was generally ſuppoſed that the preſent ſovereign of the Friendly Iſles had the higheſt rank of any perſon in his dominions. But it was found to be otherwiſe; for Latooliboolo and three women, are ſuperior, in ſome reſpects, to Poulaho himſelf. Theſe great perſonages are diſtinguiſhed by the title of *Tammaha*, which implies a chief. The late king, father of Poulaho, left behind him a ſiſter of equal rank, and older than himſelf; ſhe, by a native of Feeje, had a ſon and two daughters; and theſe three perſons, as well as their mother, are of higher rank than the king. Endeavours were made to diſcover the reaſon of this pre-eminence of the *Tammaha*, but without effect. The mother, and one of her daughters named Tooeela-kaipa, reſided at Vavaoo. The other daughter, called Moungoulakaipa, and Latooliboolo the ſon, dwelt at Tongataboo. Latooliboolo was ſuppoſed, by his countrymen to be diſordered in his ſenſes.

According to the obſervations of the more ſpeculative part of our countrymen, the language of the natives of the Friendly Iſlands bears a ſtriking reſemblance to thoſe of New Zealand, of Otaheite, and the Society Iſles. The pronunciation of theſe people differs, indeed, in many inſtances, from that both of Otaheite and New Zealand, but, notwithſtanding that, a great number of words are either very little changed, or exactly the ſame. The language, as ſpoken by the Friendly Iſlanders, is ſufficiently copious to expreſs all their ideas; and, beſides being tolerably harmonious in common converſation, is eaſily adapted to the purpoſes of muſic. They have terms to ſignify numbers as far as an hundred thouſand, beyond which they either would not, or could not, reckon.

The latitude of that part of Tongataboo where our countrymen erected an obſervatory, and which was near the middle of the north ſide of the iſland, is, according to the moſt accurate obſervations, 21 deg. 8 min. 19 ſec. ſouth; and its longitude, 184 deg. 55 min. 18 ſec. eaſt.

The tides are more conſiderable at the Friendly Iſlands, than at any other of Captain Cook's diſcoveries in this ocean, that are ſituate within either of the tropics. At Annamooka the tide riſes and falls about ſix feet upon a perpendicular. At Tongataboo it riſes and falls four feet and three quarters on the full and change days, and three feet and a half at the quadratures.

SECTION III.

ROTTERDAM, called by the Natives ANNAMOOKA.

Diſpoſition, Cuſtoms and Manners peculiar to the Inhabitants.

THIS iſland being likewiſe diſcovered by Taſman, the Dutch navigator, in the ſame year with the former, was alſo named by him. It lies in latitude 20 deg. 15 min. ſouth, and longitude 174 deg. 31 min. weſt. The ſhore conſiſts of a ſteep rugged coral rock, about nine or ten feet high; but therefore two ſandy beaches, which are defended from the ſea by a reef of the ſame kind of rock. In the center of the iſland is a ſalt water lake, in breadth about a mile and an half. On the riſing parts, and eſpecially towards the ſea, the ſoil is either of a blackiſh mould or reddiſh clay, though not a ſtream of water was to be found upon the iſland but what was brackiſh. The perſons, diſpoſitions, dreſs, manners, cuſtoms, language, &c. of the inhabitants here are almoſt the ſame as thoſe of the natives of Middleberg, and indeed of the Friendly Iſlands in general, as before deſcribed.

Upon the whole, the land appears to be well cultivated, and if ſome parts lie waſte, the deſign is evidently that they might recover that ſtrength which had been exhauſted by too frequent culture. The chief plantations were yams and plantains. Bread fruit and cocoa-trees are alſo interſperſed without regular order, but are chiefly found near the habitations of the natives. The iſland is in general covered with luxuriant trees and buſhes, but particularly thoſe parts towards the ſea and round the lake.

They gave proof of that courteous diſpoſition from which their country is denominated, to all the ſtrangers they met from our veſſels, bowing their heads, and uſing the expreſſion, *lelei woa*, good friend, or ſome word to that import.

They readily undertook to conduct ſuch as applied to them into the receſſes of their country, climbed the higheſt trees to procure them flowers, and took to the water, like ſpaniels, after birds that were ſhot: they pointed out the fineſt plants, and gave them their proper names, and whenever any intimation was given that ſpecimens of a certain kind of plant were wanted, they would go to any diſtance to procure them.

Theſe people manage their canoes with the greateſt agility, and ſwim with ſurpriſing eaſe. Their common trailing canoes are neatly made and curiouſly poliſhed. They conſiſt of two, faſtened to a tranſverſe platform of planks, in the midſt of which they erect an hut, where they place their goods, their arms, and utenſils, and where they paſs great part of their time. They have alſo holes which give into the body of each canoe: their maſts are ſtrait poles, which can be ſtruck at pleaſure; and their ſails are very large and triangular, but not very proper to make way before the wind. Their cordage, in general, is excellent, and they have alſo contrived a very good ground tackle, conſiſting of a ſtrong rope, with large ſtones at the end, by means of which they come to an anchor.

It was evident, from the enquiry of a great number of the natives on the arrival of the veſſel in the iſland that the fame of theſe voyagers had already reached this ſpot. They ſupplied their European viſitors with plenty of fruit and roots. A few fowls and one or two ſmall pigs, were all the animal food procured here.

No king, on the firſt viſit was diſtinguiſhed amongſt theſe people, and their method of government was entirely unknown. A young dog and a bitch were left here, as they had no ſuch animal among them, and were the firſt of thoſe they ſaw. The people here are more afflicted with the leproſy, or ſome ſcrophulous diſorder, than at any of the other iſlands.

When Captain Cook re-viſited theſe iſlands in 1777, he reſumed the ſame ſtation for anchorage as he had before occupied, and, as he thought, moſt probably in the ſame place where the firſt diſcoverer of this, and ſome of the neighbouring iſlands anchored in 1643. The officers ſometimes amuſed themſelves in walking up the country, and ſhooting wild ducks, reſembling our widgeon, which are very numerous on the ſalt lake, as well as on the pool where water was procured. They found, in theſe excurſions, that the inhabitants frequently deſerted their houſes to repair to the trading place, without entertaining the leaſt ſuſpicion that ſtrangers would take away or deſtroy any property that belonged to them. From this circumſtance it migh be ſuppoſed, that moſt of the natives were ſometimes collected on the beach, and that there would be no great difficulty in forming an accurate computation of their number; but the continual reſort of viſitors from other iſlands rendered it impoſſible. However, as they never ſaw more than a thouſand perſons collected at one time, it may be reaſonably ſuppoſed, that there are about twice that number upon the iſland.

The natives, as upon a former occaſion, ſhewed their European viſitors every mark of civility. In the courſe of a few days they were viſited by a great chief from Tongataboo, or Amſterdam, whoſe name was Ereenou, and to whom the commander was introduced as king of all the Friendly Iſles. He was alſo given to underſtand that on his arrival a canoe had been diſpatched to Tongataboo with the news, in conſequence of which this chief immediately paſſed over to Annamooka.

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an iſland, or rather a gr

from him, brought on board by one of his ſervants, he came up to him immediately on his landing. He appeared to be about thirty years of age, tall, but thin, and had more of the European features than had been ſeen before. Captain Cook, after the firſt ſalutation, aſked if he was the king; for, notwithſtanding the information he had received, finding he was not the man he had remembered to have ſeen under that character, during a former voyage, he began to entertain doubts. Taipa, a friendly chief, who had accompanied him ſince his laſt arrival, officiouſly anſwered for him, and mentioned many iſlands of which he ſaid Fenou was the ſovereign. The monarch and five or ſix of his attendants having done the European viſitor the honour of accompanying him on board, he gave ſuitable preſents to them all, and having entertained them in ſuch a manner as he thought would be moſt agreeable, attended them on ſhore in the evening, and received a return for the preſents he had made.

There now happened an accident of which the relation will convey ſome idea of the extent of the authority exerciſed here over the common people, very little of which was known before. While Fenou was on board the ſhip, an inferior chief, for what reaſon our people on ſhore did not know, ordered all the natives to retire from the poſt they occupied. Some of them having ventured to return, he took up a large ſtick and beat them moſt unmercifully. He ſtruck one man on the ſide of his face with ſo much violence, that the blood guſhed out of his mouth and noſtrils, and after laying ſome time motionleſs, he was removed from the place in convulſions. The perſon who had inflicted the blow, being told that he had killed the man, only laughed at it, and it was evident that he was not in the leaſt ſorry for what had happened. It was heard afterwards, however, that the poor ſufferer had been ſo fortunate as to recover.

One of the natives having ſtolen a large junk axe out of the ſhip on the firſt day of arrival, opportunity was taken of an invitation to apply to Fenou to exert his authority to get it reſtored; and ſuch was the effect of his mandate, that it was brought on board before the captain's departure.

The natives, upon this ſecond viſit, gave frequent proofs of their expertneſs in theft. And it is remarked from experience, that even ſome of their chiefs did not think this profeſſion beneath them. For one of them was detected carrying out of the ſhip, concealed under his clothes, the bolt belonging to the ſpun-yard winch, for which he was ſentenced by the commander to receive a dozen laſhes, and kept in confinement till he paid for his liberty. Their ſervants, or ſlaves, however, were ſtill employed in this dirty work, and ſeems at the inſtigation of their maſters, who, nevertheleſs, when any of them happened to be caught in the fact, ſo far from interceding for them, would adviſe the European to kill them. As this was a puniſhment they did not chuſe to inflict, and flogging ſeemed to make no greater impreſſion on them, than it would have done on the main maſt, a mode of treatment was deviſed, which was thought to have had ſome effect. The delinquents were put under the hands of the barber, who compleatly ſhaved their heads, thus pointing them as objects of ridicule to their countrymen, and enabling our people to deprive them of future opportunities for a repetition of their rogueries, by keeping them at a diſtance.

Fenou was ſo fond of aſſociating with his European friends, that he viſited them daily, and gave the ſtrongeſt proofs of his eſteem and reſpect. But the commander, finding that the iſland was exhauſted of almoſt every article of food that it afforded, determined to proceed directly to Tongataboo. Fenou, underſtanding his reſolutions, importuned him ſtrongly to alter his plan, to which he expreſſed as much averſion as if he had ſome particular intereſt to anſwer by diverting him from it. In preference to it, he warmly recommended an iſland, or rather a group of iſlands, called Hapaee, lying to the north-eaſt, where he aſſured him he might obtain a plentiful ſupply of every refreſhment in the eaſieſt manner; and to add weight to his advice, he engaged to attend his new friends thither in perſon. Arguments ſo founded could not fail of having full weight, and Hapaee was accordingly made choice of for the next ſtation. Indeed, as it had never been viſited by any European ſhips, the examination of it became an object of importance.

SECTION IV.

Iſles of HAPAEE.

Various forms, ceremonies, and entertainments.

TO the north and north-eaſt of Annamooka, and in the direct track to Hapaee, whither our voyagers are now bound, the ſea is ſprinkled with a great number of very ſmall iſles. As from the ſhoals and rocks adjoining to this group there was no aſſurance that there was a free and ſafe paſſage for large veſſels, though the natives ſailed through the intervals in their canoes, it was deemed expedient to go to the weſtward of the above iſlands, the courſe was framed N. N. W. towards Kao and Toofa, the two moſt weſterly iſlands in ſight, and remarkable for their great height.

Theſe iſles lie ſcattered at unequal diſtances, and are in general nearly as high as Annamooka. Moſt of them are entirely cloathed with trees; among which are many cocoa-palms, and each forms a proſpect like a beautiful garden placed in the ſea.

When Hapaee was in ſight; our navigators could judge it to be low land, from the trees only appearing above the water. On a nearer view, they could ſee it plainly forming three iſlands, almoſt of an equal ſize, and ſoon after a fourth to the ſouthward as large as the others. Each ſeemed to be about ſix or ſeven miles long, and of a ſimilar height and appearance. The northernmoſt of them is called Haanno; the next Foa, the third Leſooga, and the ſouthernmoſt Hoolaiva; but all four are included under the general name of Hapaee.

When the European veſſels came to an anchor at Hapaee they were viſited by the natives, and ſurrounded by a multitude of their canoes, filled alſo with them. They brought from the ſhore hogs, fowls, fruit, and roots. Fenou and Omai having come on board after it was light, in order to introduce the commander to the people of the iſland, he accompanied them on ſhore for that purpoſe, landing at the north part of Leſooga, a little to the right of the ſhip's ſtation.

Being aſked how long he intended to ſtay, and replying five days, Taipa was ordered by the king to proclaim to the people, (as by Omai, his interpreter, he was given to underſtand, that they were all, both old and young, to look upon the viſitor before them as a friend, who intended to remain with them a few days; that during his ſtay, they muſt not ſteal any thing, nor moleſt him any other way, and that it was expected they ſhould bring hogs, fowls, fruit, &c. to the ſhips, where they would receive in exchange for them a great variety of articles, which he enumerated. Taipa then took occaſion to ſignify to the commander that it was neceſſary he ſhould make a preſent to the chief of the iſland, whoſe name was Earoupa, in conſequence of which ſuch articles were preſented him as far exceeded his expectation. Fenou then ordered Earoupa to ſit by him, and to harangue the people as Taipa had done before him, and to the ſame purpoſe.

The ſupply of proviſions at this place was copious, for in the courſe of one day our people got by barter, along ſide the ſhips, about twenty ſmall hogs, beſides a large quantity of fruit and roots. The commander was informed that on his firſt landing in the morning a man came off to the ſhips, and ordered every one of the natives to go on ſhore. Probably this was done

with a view to have the whole body of inhabitants preſent at the ceremony of his reception; for when that was over multitudes of them returned again to the ſhip.

Soon after Fenou, attended by Omai, came on board, to require the preſence of the commander upon the iſland. In landing, he was conducted to the ſame place where he had been ſeated the day before, and where, ſeeing a large concourſe of people already aſſembled, he conjectured that ſomething more than ordinary was in agitation, but could obtain no information as to particulars.

He had not been long ſeated before near an hundred of the natives appeared in ſight, and advanced, laden with yams, bread-fruit, cocoa-nuts, and ſugar-canes. They depoſited their burthens in two heaps or piles upon the left hand. Soon after arrived a number of others, bearing the ſame kind of articles, which were collected into two piles on the right. To theſe were tied two pigs and ſix fowls, and to thoſe upon the left-hand ſix pigs and two turtles.

Earoupa ſeated himſelf before the ſeveral articles to the left, and another chief before thoſe on the right; they being, as was judged, the two chiefs who had collected them, by order of Fenou, who ſeemed to be as implicitly obeyed here as he had been at Annamooka; and, in conſequence of his commanding ſuperiority over the chiefs of Hapaee, had laid this tax upon them for the preſent occaſion.

As ſoon as this munificent collection of proviſions was laid down in order, and diſpoſed to the beſt advantage, the bearers of it joined the multitude, who formed a large circle round the whole. Preſently a number of men entered the circle, armed with clubs, made of green branches of the cocoa-nut-tree, theſe paraded about for a few minutes and then retired, the one half to the one ſide, and the other half to the other ſide, ſeating themſelves before the ſpectators. Soon after they ſucceſſively entered the liſts, and entertained them with ſingle combats. One champion, riſing up, and ſtepping forward from one ſide, challenged thoſe on the other ſide, by expreſſive geſtures, more than by words, to ſend one of their body to oppoſe him. If the challenge was accepted, the two combatants put themſelves in proper attitudes, and then began the engagement, which continued till one or other owned himſelf conquered, or till their weapons were broken. As ſoon as each combat was over, the victor ſquatted himſelf down oppoſite to the chief, then roſe up and retired. At the ſame time ſome old men, who ſeemed to ſit as judges, gave their plaudits in a few words; and the multitude, eſpecially thoſe on the ſide to which the victor belonged, celebrated the glory he had acquired in two or three loud huzzas.

During the intervals of ſuſpenſion from this entertainment there were both wreſtling and boxing matches, the latter differed very little from the method practiſed in England. But what moſt ſurpriſed our people was, to ſee two luſty wenches ſtep forth and begin boxing without ceremony, and with as much art as the men. This conteſt, however, did not laſt above half a minute before one of them gave it up. The conquering heroine received the ſame applauſe from the ſpectators which they beſtowed upon the ſucceſsful combatants of the other ſex. The Europeans expreſſed ſome diſlike at this entertainment, which, however, did not prevent two other females from entering the liſts. They ſeemed to be girls of ſpirit, and would certainly have given each other a good drubbing, if two old women had not interpoſed to part them. All the combats were exhibited in the midſt of, at leaſt, three thouſand people, and were conducted with the greateſt good humour on all ſides; though ſome of the champions, women as well as men, received blows which they muſt have felt for ſome time after.

When the diverſions were ended, the chief gave the commander to underſtand, that the heaps of proviſion on the right hand were a preſent to Omai, and thoſe on the left hand, being about two thirds of the whole quantity, were given to himſelf. He aſſured him that a guard was needleſs, as not the ſmalleſt article would be taken away by the natives. So, indeed, it proved; for when the proviſions were removed on board, not a cocoa nut was miſſing. It was remarked, that this preſent of Fenou excelled any that had been made the commander, by any of the ſovereigns of the various iſlands he had viſited in the Pacific Ocean. His liberality, indeed, was compenſated by the beſtowal of ſuch commodities, as were ſuppoſed to be moſt valuable in his eſtimation.

Fenou having expreſſed a deſire to ſee the marines go through their military exerciſe, they were accordingly ordered on ſhore from both ſhips; and having performed various evolutions, and fired ſeveral vollies to the gratification of the ſpectators, the chief entertained his viſitors, in his turn, with an exhibition, which, as acknowledged by all, was performed with dexterity and exactneſs, far ſurpaſſing the ſpecimen the Europeans had given of their military manœuvres. This was a dance performed by men, and in which no leſs than one hundred and five perſons bore their parts. Each of them had in his hand an inſtrument neatly made, in ſhape reſembling a paddle, of two feet and an half in length, with a ſmall handle and a thin blade, ſo that they were very light. With this inſtrument they made many and various flouriſhes, each of which was accompanied with a different attitude of the body, or a different movement. At firſt, the performers ranged themſelves in three lines, and by various evolutions, each man changed his ſtation in ſuch a manner, that thoſe who had been in the rear came into the front. Nor did they remain long in the ſame poſition, but theſe changes were made by pretty quick tranſitions. At one time they extended themſelves in one line; they then formed into a ſemicircle, and, laſtly, into two ſquare columns. While this laſt movement was executing, one of them advanced and performed an antic dance before the commander, with which the whole ended. It was the general opinion of the party preſent, that ſuch a performance would have met with univerſal applauſe upon an European ſtage; and it ſo far exceeded any attempt our people had made to entertain them, that they ſeemed to plume themſelves upon their ſuperiority.

They held none of our muſical inſtruments in the leaſt eſteem, except the drum. The French-horns in particular ſeemed to be held in great contempt, for neither here, or at any other of the iſlands, would they pay the leaſt attention to them.

In order to give the natives a more favourable opinion of Engliſh amuſements, and to have their minds fully impreſſed with a ſenſe of our ſuperior attainments, the commander directed ſome fire-works to be prepared; and, after dark, cauſed them to be played off, in the preſence of Fenou, the other chief, and a vaſt concourſe of their people. They ſucceeded in general ſo well, as to anſwer the end propoſed. The water and ſky-rockets in particular, pleaſed and aſtoniſhed them beyond all conception.

As a prelude to another entertainment of dances which Fenou had prepared for his gueſts, a band of muſic, or chorus of eighteen men, ſeated themſelves before them in the centre of the circle compoſed by the numerous ſpectators, the area of which was to be the ſcene of the exhibitions. Four or five of this band had pieces of large bamboo, from three to five or ſix feet long, each managed by one man, who held it nearly in a vertical poſition, the upper end open, but the other cloſed by one of the joints. With this cloſe end the performers kept conſtantly ſtriking to the ground, though ſlowly, thus producing different notes, according to the different lengths of the inſtruments, but all of them of the hollow or baſe ſort; to counteract which, a perſon kept ſtriking quickly, and with two ſticks, a piece of the ſame ſubſtance, ſplit and laid along the ground, and by that producing a tone as acute as thoſe pro-

proceeding from the others were grave. The reſt of the band, as well as thoſe who performed on the bamboo, ſung a ſlow and ſoft air, which ſo tempered the harſher notes of the above inſtruments, that no by-ſtander, however accuſtomed to hear the moſt perfect modulations of ſweet ſounds, could avoid confeſſing the vaſt power and pleaſing effect of this ſimple harmony.

When this concert had continued about a quarter of an hour, twenty women entered the circle. Moſt of them had upon their heads garlands of crimſon flowers of China roſe, or others; and many of them had ornamented their perſons with leaves of trees, cut with great nicety about the edges. They formed a circle round the chorus, turning their faces towards it, and began by ſinging a ſoft air, to which reſponſes were made by the chorus in the ſame tone, and theſe were repeated alternately. All this while the women accompanied their ſong with ſeveral very graceful motions of their hands towards their faces, and in other directions; at the ſame time making conſtantly a ſtep forward and then back again with one foot, while the other was fixed. They then turned their faces to the aſſembly, ſung ſome time, and retreated ſlowly in a body, to that part of the circle which was oppoſite to the ſpot where the principal ſpectators ſat. After this one of them advanced from each ſide, meeting and paſſing each other in the front, and continuing their progreſs round till they came to the reſt. On which two advanced from each ſide, two of whom alſo paſſed each other, and returned as the former; but the other two remained, and to theſe came one from each ſide by intervals, till the whole number had again formed a circle about the chorus.

Their manner of dancing was now changed to a quicker meaſure, in which they made a kind of half turn by leaping, and clapped their hands and ſnapped their fingers, repeating ſome words in conjunction with the chorus. Towards the end, as the quickneſs of the muſic encreaſed, their geſtures and attitudes were varied with wonderful vigour and dexterity, and ſome of their motions by our countrymen might be deemed indecent: though, probably, this part of the performance was not meant to convey any wanton ideas, but merely to diſplay the aſtoniſhing variety of their movements.

This exhibition of females was followed by another, performed by fifteen men; and, though ſome of them were old, time ſeemed to have robbed them of but little of their agility. They were diſpoſed in a kind of circle, divided at the front. Sometimes they ſung ſlowly, in concert with the chorus, making ſeveral graceful motions with their hands, but differing from thoſe of the women; at the ſame time inclining the body alternately to either ſide, by raiſing one leg outward, and reſting on the other; the arm of the ſame ſide being alſo ſtretched upward. They then recited ſentences, which were anſwered by the chorus; and occaſionally increaſed the meaſure of the dance, by clapping the hands, and quickening the motions of the feet. Towards the concluſion, the rapidity of the muſic and dancing ſo much increaſed, that the different movements were hard to be diſtinguiſhed.

After the concluſion of this dance, twelve other men advanced, placing themſelves in double rows, fronting each other. On one ſide was ſtationed a kind of prompter, who repeated ſeveral ſentences, to which reſponſes were made by the performers and the chorus. They ſung and danced ſlowly; and gradually grew quicker, like thoſe whom they had ſucceeded.

The next who exhibited themſelves were nine women, who ſat down oppoſite the hut where the chief had placed himſelf. A man immediately roſe, and gave the firſt of theſe women a blow on the back with both his fiſts joined. He treated the ſecond and third in the ſame manner; but when he came to the fourth, he ſtruck her upon the breaſt. Upon ſeeing this, a perſon inſtantly riſing from among the crowd, knocked him down with one blow on his head, and he was quietly carried away. But this did not excuſe the other five women from ſo extraordinary a diſcipline; for they were treated in the ſame manner by a perſon who ſucceeded him. When theſe nine women danced, their performance was twice diſapproved of, and they were obliged to repeat it again. There was no great difference between this dance and that of the firſt women, except that theſe ſometimes raiſed the body upon one leg, and then upon the other, alternately, by a ſort of double motion.

Soon after a perſon entered, making ſome ludicrous remarks on what had been exhibited, which extorted a burſt of laughter from the crowd. The company had then a dance by the attendants of Fenou; they formed a double circle of twenty-four each round the chorus, and joining in a gentle ſoothing ſong, accompanied with motions of the head and hands. They alſo began with ſlow movements, which gradually became more and more rapid, and finally cloſed with ſeveral very ingenious transformations of the two circles.

The entertainments of this memorable night concluded with a dance, in which the principal people preſent exhibited, and which was performed with ſo much ſpirit, and ſo great exactneſs, that they met with univerſal approbation. The native ſpectators who no doubt were perfect judges whether the ſeveral performances were properly executed, could not with-hold their applauſes of ſome particular parts; and even a ſtranger, who never ſaw the diverſion before, felt ſimilar ſatisfaction at the ſame inſtant.

The place where theſe dances were performed, was an open ſpace amongſt the trees, juſt by the ſea, with lights at ſmall intervals placed round the inſide of the circle. The concourſe of people was pretty large, though not equal to the number aſſembled, when the marines went through their exerciſe. Some gueſſed there might be preſent about five thouſand perſons, others thought there were more; but the firſt eſtimate ſeems the neareſt approach to truth.

Curioſity being now ſufficiently gratified on both ſides, by the exhibition of the various entertainments deſcribed; the commander next day took a tour into the iſland of Leſooga, of which he was deſirous to obtain ſome knowledge, and found it to be in ſeveral reſpects ſuperior to Annamooka. The plantations were more numerous and more extenſive. in many places, indeed, towards the ſea, eſpecially on the eaſt ſide, the country is ſtill waſte, owing probably to the ſandy ſoil, as it is much lower than Annamooka and its ſurrounding iſles. But towards the middle of the iſland the ſoil is better, and the marks of conſiderable population and of improved cultivation were every where ſeen. The party which went on the excurſion, obſerved large ſpots covered with the paper mulberry-trees, and the plantations in general were well ſtocked with ſuch roots und fruits, as are the natural produce of the iſland. To theſe ſome addition was made by our countrymen in ſowing the ſeeds of Indian corn, melons, pumpkins, and the like.

The iſland is not above ſeven miles long, and in ſome places not above two or three broad. The eaſt ſide of it, which is expoſed to the trade-wind, has a reef running to a conſiderable breadth from it, on which the ſea breaks with great violence. It is a continuation of this reef that joins Leſooga to Foa, which is not above half a mile diſtant, and at low water the natives can walk upon this reef, which is then partly dry, from one iſland to another. The ſhore itſelf is either a coral rock ſix or ſeven feet high, or a ſandy beach; but higher than the weſt ſide, which in general is not more than three or four feet from the level of the ſea, with a ſandy beach its whole length.

A party in a walk happened to ſtep into a houſe where a woman was dreſſing the eyes of a young child who ſeemed blind, the eyes being much inflamed, and a film ſpread over them. The inſtruments ſhe uſed were two ſlender wooden probes, with which ſhe had

bruſhed

bruſhed the eyes ſo as to make them bleed. It ſeems worth mentioning that the natives of thoſe iſlands ſhould attempt an operation of this ſort, though our countrymen entered the houſe too late to deſcribe exactly how this female oculiſt employed the wretched tools ſhe had to work with.

They were, however, fortunate enough to ſee a different operation go on in the ſame houſe, of which they were able to give a tolerable account. They there found another woman ſhaving a child's head with a ſhark's tooth, ſtuck into the end of a piece of ſtick. It was obſerved that ſhe firſt wetted the hair with a rag dipped in water, applying her inſtrument to that part which had been previouſly ſoaked. The operation ſeemed to give no pain to the child, although the hair was taken off as cloſe as if one of our razors had been employed. A perſon of curioſity amongſt the party, encouraged by what he ſaw, ſoon after tried one of theſe ſingular inſtruments upon himſelf, and found it to be an excellent ſhift. The men of theſe iſlands, however, have recourſe to another contrivance when they ſhave their beards. They perform the operation, as beforementioned, with two ſhells, and there are thoſe amongſt them who ſeem to profeſs this trade. It was as common, according to the account of our voyagers, to ſee the ſailors go on ſhore to have their beards ſcraped off, after the manner of Hapaee, as it was to ſee their chiefs come on board to be ſhaved by our barbers.

Near the ſouth end of the iſland Lefooga was an artificial mount. From the ſize of ſome trees that were growing upon it, and from other appearances, it was ſuppoſed to have been raiſed in remote times. At the bottom of this mount ſtood a ſtone, which muſt have been hewn out of coral rock. It was four feet broad, two and an half thick, and fourteen high, and our people were told by the natives preſent, that not above half its length appeared above ground. They called it *tangala areekee*, (tangata in their language is man, arekee, king) and ſaid that it had been ſet up, and the mount raiſed, by ſome of their forefathers, in memory of one of their kings; but how long ſince they could not tell.

The party that landed at Hoolaiva did not find the leaſt mark of cultivation or habitation upon it, except a ſingle hut, the reſidence of a man employed to catch fiſh and turtle. Uninhabited as Hoolaiva is, an artificial mount, like that at the adjoining iſland, has been raiſed upon it, as high as the ſurrounding trees.

While the ſhips lay at this place, a large ſailing canoe came under the commander's ſtern, in which was a perſon named Tuttafaihe or Poulaho, or both, who, as the natives then on board informed our people, was king of Tongataboo, and was king of all the neighbouring iſlands that we had ſeen or heard of. The commander was ſurpriſed at having a ſtranger introduced to him, under that dignified character, which he had been before aſſured belonged to another; but the natives perſiſted in their declaration, and for the firſt time confeſſed that Fenou was not the king, but only a ſubordinate chief, though of great power, as he was often ſent from Tongataboo to the other iſlands on warlike expeditions, or to decide differences.

It being the intereſt as well as inclinations of the commander to pay court to all the great men without enquiring into the validity of their aſſumed titles, Poulaho was invited on board. Nor was he an unwelcome gueſt, for he brought with him as a preſent two good fat hogs, though not ſo fat as himſelf. If weight of body could give weight in rank or power, he was certainly the moſt eminent man in that reſpect, who had been ſeen; for, though not very tall, he was very unweildy, and almoſt ſhapeleſs with corpulence. He appeared to be a ſedate ſenſible man, viewed the ſhip and the ſeveral new objects with uncommon attention, and aſked many pertinent queſtions.

Poulaho ſoon became as ſolicitous himſelf as his people were, to convince his new friends that he was king, and not Fenou, who had paſſed with them as ſuch. For he ſoon perceived they had ſome doubts about it, which Omai, from his attachment to Fenou, was not very deſirous of removing.

Poulaho ſat down to table, eat little, drank leſs, and, on riſing, deſired the commander to accompany him on ſhore. This was accordingly complied with, after preſenting him with ſuch articles as he was obſerved to value moſt, and were even beyond his expectations to receive. This munificence was however amply compenſated both by preſents and honours, as ſoon as they reached the ſhore. The commander was placed at his ſide, while he received the ſeveral articles his people had got by trading on board the ſhips. At length he ordered every thing to be reſtored to the reſpective owners, except a glaſs bowl, with which he was ſo much pleaſed that he reſerved it to himſelf. The perſons who brought theſe things to him firſt ſquatted themſelves down before him, then depoſited their ſeveral purchaſes, and immediately roſe up and retired. The ſame reſpectful ceremony was obſerved in taking them away, and not one of them preſumed to ſpeak to him ſtanding. The commander ſtaid till ſeveral of his attendants left him, firſt paying him obedience by bowing the head down to the ſole of his feet, and touching or tapping the ſame with the upper and under ſide of the fingers of both hands. The commander was charmed with the decorum that was obſerved, and declared that he had no where ſeen the like, even amongſt more civilized nations.

Poulaho continued to heap favours on his new friend, and, in particular, preſented the commander with one of their caps, which were known to be valued at Otaheite, one of the places of their future deſtination. Theſe caps, or rather bonnets, are compoſed of the tail feathers of the tropic bird, with the red feathers of the parroquets wrought upon them, or jointly with them.

After various courſes, hazards, and difficulties, they arrived and landed at Kotoo, in order to examine that iſland. It is ſcarcely acceſſible by boats, on account of coral reefs that ſurround it. It is not more than a mile and an half, or two miles long, and not ſo broad. The north-weſt end of it is low, like the iſlands of Hapaee, but it riſes ſuddenly in the middle, and terminates in reddiſh clayey cliffs at the ſouth-eaſt end about thirty feet high. The ſoil in that quarter is of the ſame ſort as in the cliffs; but in the other parts it is a looſe black mould. It produces the ſame fruits and roots which were found at the other iſlands, and is tolerably cultivated, but thinly inhabited.

CHAP VI.

ISLANDS between the Equator and the Southern Tropic.

AS ſome of theſe are comprehended under the liſt of the Friendly Iſlands, as ſuch they will be pointed out and firſt attended to.

From the beſt accounts, we may include not only the group at Hapaee, viſited by our late navigators, but thoſe diſcovered nearly under the ſame meridian to the north, as well as ſome others under the dominion of Tongataboo, which, though not the largeſt is the capital ſeat of government.

This archipelago muſt be very extenſive, for the natives reckon a great number of iſlands. Fifteen of them were ſaid to be very lofty.

The principal of thoſe ſeen on the laſt voyage have been deſcribed, viz. Eooa, Annamooka, Hapace, and Tongataboo.

PYLSTART ISLAND was ſo called by Taſman, who firſt ſaw it. The name ſignifies *arrow-tail*. This iſland lies in latitude 22 deg. 26 min. ſouth, and longitude 170 deg. 59 min. weſt: it is mountainous, barren, and about two or three miles in circumference.

AMMATTAFOA. It was concluded, from the appearance of a thick ſmoke ariſing from this iſland, and a fire iſſuing from it in the night, that there was a volcano upon it; and this opinion was confirmed by information received from the natives that the appearances are conſtant. Near to this iſland is a high peak, called Oghoa. They are both inhabited, ſeem barren, and are about twelve leagues diſtant from Annamooka.

Captain Cook doubts not but that Prince William's Iſlands, diſcovered, and ſo named, by Taſman, are included in this liſt; and aſſigns, as the reaſon, that, while he lay at Hapace, he received information, from one of the natives, that, at the diſtance of three or four days ſail from thence to the north-weſt, there was a cluſter of ſmall iſlands; and this account correſponds with that given in Taſman's voyage.

From the beſt information our late navigators could obtain (and this was deemed authentic) the moſt conſiderable in this neighbourhood are Hamoa, Vavavoo, and Feejee. Each of theſe was repreſented to them as larger than Tongataboo. Our countrymen, in their late voyages, did not viſit them.

HAMOA lies two days ſail north-weſt from Vavavoo. It is ſaid to be the largeſt of all their iſlands; affords harbours and good water, and produces, in abundance, all the articles of refreſhment that are found at the places our people viſited. Poulaho frequently reſides upon this iſland; and the people here are in high eſtimation at Tongataboo.

FEEJEE lies in the direction of north-weſt by weſt, about three days ſail from Tongataboo. It abounds with hogs, dogs, fowls, and ſuch fruits and roots as are to be found in any of the others, and is much larger than Tongataboo; but not ſubject to its dominion, as the other iſlands of this archipelago are. Feejee and Tongataboo frequently engage in war againſt each other; and the inhabitants of the latter are often ſo much afraid of this enemy, that they bend the body forward and cover the face with their hands, to expreſs the ſenſe of their own inferiority to the Feejee men. This is, indeed, no matter of ſurprize; for thoſe of Feejee have rendered themſelves formidable by their dexterity in the uſe of bows and ſlings; but more ſo by their ſavage practice of eating ſuch of their enemies as they kill in battle.

It has been maintained that extreme hunger (to juſtify the practice of canibals) firſt occaſioned men to feed on human fleſh; but where could be the inducement for the Feejee people to continue it in the midſt of plenty? It is held in deteſtation by the inhabitants of Tongataboo, who ſeem to cultivate the friendſhip of their ſavage neighbours of Feejee through fear; though they, occaſionally, venture to ſkirmiſh with them on their own territory, and carry off large quantities of red feathers as trophies. When a profound peace reigns between the two iſlands, they have frequent intercourſe together? though, it is probable, they have not long been known to each other; or it might be ſuppoſed that Tongataboo, and its neighbouring lands, would, before this time, have been ſupplied with a breed of dogs, which are numerous at Feejee, and were not introduced at Tongataboo when firſt viſited by our countrymen in 1773.

The colour of the natives of Feejee, met with here, was a ſhade darker than any of the inhabitants of the other Friendly Iſlands. One of the natives was ſeen who had his left ear ſlit, and the lobe ſo ſtretched, that it almoſt extended to his ſhoulder; which ſingularity had been obſerved at other iſlands in the South Seas during a former voyage. The Feejee men were much reverenced here; not only on account of their power and cruelty in war, but alſo for their ingenuity; for they greatly excelled the inhabitants of Tongataboo in workmanſhip. Specimens were ſhewn of their clubs and ſpears, which were ingeniouſly carved. Some of their beautifully chequered cloth, variegated mats, earthen pots, and other articles, alſo diſplayed a ſuperiority in the execution.

As has been already mentioned, Feejee is three days ſail from Tongataboo; theſe people having no other method of expreſſing the diſtance from iſland to iſland, but by mentioning the time required for the voyage in one of their canoes. That this might be aſcertained with ſome preciſion, Captain Cook ſailed in one of their canoes, and by repeated trials with the log, found that ſhe went cloſe hauled, in a gentle gale, ſeven miles in an hour. He judged from this, they could ſail, with ſuch breezes as in general blow in their ſeas, ſeven or eight miles an hour on an average. Each day, however, is not to be reckoned at twenty-four hours; for when they talk of one day's ſail, they mean no more than from the morning to the evening, or ten or twelve hours at the moſt. From the morning of the firſt day till the evening of the ſecond, is, with them, two days ſail. In the day they are guided by the ſun, and in the night by ſtars. When theſe are obſcured, they can only have recourſe to the points from whence the winds and waves came upon the veſſel. If at that time, the winds and the waves ſhould ſhift, they are quite bewilderred, often miſſing their intended port, and being never heard of more,

TRAITOR'S, or KEPPEL'S ISLAND, lying in 15 deg. 55 min. latitude, 175 deg. 3 min. longitude, weſt, is three miles and a half in extent, and two in breadth. It was ſeen by Le Mair in 1716, and by him named The Iſland of Traitors. When Captain Wallis arrived here, in the Dolphin, in 1765, he found a good landing place. The natives appear to be of a diſpoſition ſimilar to what we have deſcribed of thoſe of the Friendly Iſlands in general, and reſemble them in the cloathing, and the amputation of the little fingers. At that time no hogs were ſeen upon this iſland, and the refreſhments procured were trifling.

Captain Cook founds his reaſon for comprehending both this, and the following, called Boſcawen's Iſland, in the liſt, from the following circumſtances. Enquiring one day of Poulaho, the king, in what manner the inhabitants of Tongataboo had acquired the knowledge of iron, and from what quarter they had procured a ſmall iron tool, which he had ſeen amongſt them when he firſt viſited their iſland, he was informed they had received it from an iſland, which he called Neeootabootaboo. On a more minute enquiry, the king ſaid, that one of thoſe iſlanders ſold a club for five nails to ſome of the crew of a ſhip that had touched there, and that theſe five nails were afterwards ſent to Tongataboo. He added, that this was the firſt iron known amongſt them; ſo that what Taſman left of that metal muſt have been worn out and forgotten long ago. On ſtill further enquiry, the leading facts appeared to be freſh in his memory. He ſaid there was but one ſhip, that ſhe did not come to anchor, but left the iſland after her boat had been on ſhore. From ſeveral particulars, which he mentioned, it could not be many years ſince this had happened. It appeared further, from his account, that there were two iſlands near each other, at which he had been himſelf. The one he deſcribed as high and peaked, like Kao; and he called it Kootahee: the other, where the people of the ſhip landed, called Neeootabootaboo, he repreſented as much lower. He added, that the natives of both are

the ſame ſort of people with thoſe of Tongataboo; build their canoes in the ſame manner; that their iſlands had hogs and fowls, and, in general, the ſame vegetable productions. Upon the whole, it appeared evident to Captain Cook, that the ſhips ſo pointedly referred to, in this converſation, could be no other than the Dolphin, the only ſhip from Europe, as far as could be learned, that had touched, of late years, at any iſland in this part of the Pacific Ocean, prior to his former viſit of the Friendly Iſlands.

COCOS, or BOSCAWEN'S ISLAND. This iſland received the former name from Le Mair and Schouten, who firſt viſited it in 1716; and the latter from Captain Wallis, who ſaw it the ſame voyage as he did the foregoing. It lies in latitude 15 deg. 50 min. ſouth, and longitude 175 deg. weſt.

The natives of this, as well as Traitor's Iſland, are of a ſavage diſpoſition. Their cloathing conſiſts of ruſhes or mats: they have their hair in different forms; and are robuſt and well proportioned. The flaps of their ears are ſlit, and hang down almoſt to their ſhoulders. They wear whiſkers, and a ſhort tuft under the chin; and their bodies are punctured, or tattowed.

On the arrival of the firſt Europeans at this ſpot, one of the chiefs put off from the ſhore, in a canoe covered with a mat, in the form of a tent, and accompanied by a number of people in thirty canoes. As they approached Schouten's ſhip, the chief cried out three times with a loud voice, and at the fourth all the attendants joined him. He preſented the commander with a paper dreſs, and a fine mat; for which he received due compenſation. Theſe people ſoon gave proofs of an irreſiſtible propenſity to theft, attempting to pilfer every thing they ſaw: they even tried to draw out the nails from the ſhip's ſide with their teeth: nay, ſome ſwam under the very keel, and ſtrove to draw the nails from thence, till being fired at, they deſiſted. A vaſt number of them, however, next day put off from ſhore with ſome hogs, bananas, fowls, and cocoa nuts, of which they have plenty. When the chief, or Latow, as he is there called, gave the ſignal from his double canoe, there was a general ſhout, followed by a volley of ſtones thrown on board the ſhip. The chief, indeed, was ſo abſurd, as to ſuppoſe that he could run down the ſhip with his canoe, and made the ridiculous attempt, in which he ſtruck the head of it to pieces. This exaſperated the ſavages, and they renewed the attack; but they were ſoon put to flight by the diſcharge of ſmall arms, and a few great guns.

HERVEY'S ISLAND, ſo called by Captain Cook, in honour of the earl of Briſtol, was diſcovered by him in 1773. It is ſituated low, in latitude 19 deg. 8 min. ſouth, longitude 158 deg. 4 min. weſt.

When Captain Cook reviſited this iſland, on his laſt voyage, our people obſerved, on their approach, ſeveral canoes coming from the ſhore towards the ſhips; a circumſtance which occaſioned much ſurpriſe, as no traces or ſigns of inhabitants were ſeen when the iſland was firſt diſcovered. It might, indeed, be owing to a briſk gale that then blew, and prevented their canoes from coming out.

The canoes that came off ſtopped at a ſhort diſtance from the veſſel: it was with difficulty they were prevailed on to come along ſide; but could not be induced, by any means, to come on board. They ſoon, however, began to evince their propenſity to theft, ſo univerſally prevalent in this part of the globe, in ſtealing oars, cutting away a net, containing meat, that hung over the ſtern of one of the ſhips, and other acts of pilfering. It appeared that they had a knowledge of bartering, for they exchanged ſome fiſh for ſome of our ſmall nails, of which they were extravagantly fond, and called them *goore*. Pieces of paper, or any other trifling article that was thrown them, they caught with the greateſt avidity; and if what was thrown fell into the ſea, they immediately plunged in to ſwim after it.

The colour of the natives of Hervey's Iſland is of a deep caſt; and ſeveral of them had a fierce ſavage aſpect, like the natives of New Zealand, though ſome were fairer. Their hair was long and black, either hanging looſe about their ſhoulders, or tied in a bunch on the top of the head. Some few, indeed, had it cropped ſhort; and in two or three of them it was of a red or browniſh colour. Their cloathing was a narrow piece of mat, bound ſeveral times round the lower part of the body, and paſſing between the thighs. A fine cap of red feathers was ſeen lying in one of the canoes; and ſome amongſt them were ornamented with the ſhell of a pearl-oyſter, poliſhed and hung about the neck.

The boats, that were ſent to reconnoitre the coaſt, could advance no farther than the other edge of the reef, which was computed almoſt a quarter of a mile from the dry land. A number of the natives came upon the reef, armed with clubs and long pikes, meaning, as we ſuppoſed, to oppoſe the people's landing; though, at the ſame time, they threw cocoa-nuts to them, and requeſted them to come on ſhore; yet, notwithſtanding this ſeemingly friendly treatment, the women were very active in bringing down a freſh ſupply of darts and ſpears.

PALMERSTON'S ISLAND was diſcovered by Captain Cook in 1774, and lies in latitude 18 deg. 4 min. ſouth, and longitude 163 deg. 10 min. weſt. This iſland conſiſts of a group of ſmall iſlets, about nine or ten in number, connected by a reef of coral rocks, and lying in a circular direction. It appeared, from obſervation, made by ſome of our people in going on ſhore upon the laſt voyage, that the iſland does not exceed a mile in circumference, and is not elevated above three feet beyond the level of the ſea. It conſiſts almoſt entirely of a coral ſand, with a ſmall mixture of blackiſh mould, which appeared to be produced from rotten vegetables.

The ſoil, poor as it is, however, is covered with ſhrubs and buſhes. A great number of man of war birds, tropic birds, and alſo two ſorts of boobies, were perceived, which were then laying their eggs, and ſo exceedingly tame, as to ſuffer themſelves to be taken off their neſts, which conſiſted only of a few ſticks looſely put together.

Theſe tropic bids differ eſſentially from the common ſort, being of a beautiful white, ſlightly tinged with red, and having two long tail-feathers of a deepiſh crimſon. Our people killed a conſiderable number of each ſort, which, though not the moſt delicate kind of food, were highly acceptable to ſuch as had been a long time confined to a ſalt diet. There were plenty of red crabs creeping among the trees; and ſeveral fiſh caught, which, when the ſea retreated, had been left in holes upon the reef.

At one part of the reef, which bounds the lake within, almoſt even with the ſurface, there appeared a large bed of coral, which afforded a moſt enchanting proſpect. Its baſe, which was fixed to the ſhore, extended ſo far that it could not be ſeen, ſo that it appeared to be ſuſpended in the water. The ſea was then unruffled, and the refulgence of the ſun expoſed the various ſorts of coral, in the moſt beautiful order; ſome parts luxuriantly branching into the water; others appearing in vaſt variety of figures; and the whole greatly heightened by ſpangles of the richeſt colours, glowing from a number of large clams interſperſed in every part. Even this delightful ſcene was greatly improved by the multitude of fiſhes, whoſe colours were the moſt beautiful that can be imagined; blue, yellow, red, &c. far excelling any thing that can be produced by art. The richneſs of this view was greatly increaſed by their various forms; and the whole could not poſſibly be ſurveyed without a moſt pleaſing tranſport.

No traces were diſcoverable of inhabitants having been here, except a piece of a canoe that was found upon

upon the beach; and probably that might have been drifted from ſome other iſland. Some ſmall brown rats were found on this iſland; a circumſtance, perhaps, not eaſily accounted for, unleſs the poſſibility of their being imported in the canoe, of which the remains were ſeen, be admitted.

Here was found an ample ſupply for the ſubſiſtence of the cattle, conſiſting principally of tender branches of the wharra-tree, palm-tree, palm-cabbage, and young cocoa-nut trees. Amongſt the great number of fiſh found upon the reefs, were ſome beautiful large ſpotted eels, which would raiſe themſelves out of the water, and endeavour to bite their purſuers. There were alſo ſnappers, parrot-fiſh, and a brown ſpotted rock-fiſh, not larger than a haddock, ſo tame that it would remain fixed, and gaze at the people. If they had been really in want, a ſufficient ſupply might eaſily have been had. There were alſo ſome ſhell-fiſh; and when the tide flowed, ſeveral ſharks came with it, ſome of which were killed by our people; but their preſence rendered it, at that time, unſafe to walk in the water. Muſquitos abound here.

The iſlets, comprehended under the name of Palmerſton's Iſland, may be ſaid to be the ſummits of a reef of coral-rock, covered only with a thin coat of ſand; though cloathed with trees and plants, like the low grounds of the high iſlands of this ocean.

Our late navigators, in their courſe to Annamooka, paſſed

Savage Island, diſcovered by Captain Cook in 1774. It lies in latitude 19 deg. 1 min. ſouth, and longitude 169 deg. 37 min. weſt. On his firſt landing the inhabitants diſcovered a moſt ſavage ferocity, and withſtood every poſſible intimation of good will. They gave ſuch evident tokens of hoſtile deſigns, in darting a ſpear which grazed the commander's ſhoulder, and other inſtances, that a party poſted on a rock, to ſecure a retreat in caſe of an attack, found it neceſſary to fire on the natives to reſcue him, and thoſe who were with him, from impending deſtruction. From the general aſpect and conduct of theſe iſlanders, Captain Cook was induced to call this ſpot Savage Iſland. It is in circuit about ſeven leagues, of a round form, good height, and has deep water cloſe to its ſhores. As no ſoil was to be ſeen towards the coaſts, and the rocks alone ſupplied the trees with moiſture, the interior parts are ſuppoſed to be barren.

Eimo, or Wallis's Duke of York's Island, was firſt diſcovered by Captain Wallis, in 1767. It was viſited by Captain Cook in 1777.

The harbour, which is called Taloo, is ſituated on the north ſide of the iſland. It runs between the hills about two miles ſouth, or ſouth by eaſt. For ſafety and ſoundneſs of bottom, it is pronounced by our navigators equal to any harbour met with in this ocean; to which is added this peculiar convenience, that a veſſel can ſail both in and out with the reigning trade wind. A rivulet falls into it ſufficiently capacious to admit boats a quarter of a mile up, where the water was found perfectly freſh. The banks of the rivulet are covered with what the natives call the Pooroo tree, which is in no eſtimation, and ſolely uſed for firing. From theſe two cauſes wood and water abound here.

There is another harbour, called Parowroah, about two miles to the eaſtward, on the ſame ſide of the iſland. Though much larger within than Taloo, the opening in the reef lies to leeward of it, and is in no degree ſo wide. From theſe two defects the harbour of Taloo is evidently ſuperior. On the ſouth ſide of the iſland are one or two more harbours, but they are inconſiderable when compared with thoſe above deſcribed.

Great numbers of the natives came on board the European veſſels as ſoon as they had anchored, from mere curioſity, as appeared by their bringing out commodities for the purpoſe of traffic. Several canoes, however, arrived the next day, from more remote quarters, with an abundant ſupply of bread-fruit, cocoa-nuts, and a few hogs, which were exchanged for beads, nails, and hatchets.

The chief of the iſland, whoſe name was Maheme, accompanied by his wife, viſited the commander on board; but, through extreme caution and deliberation, betrayed much diſtruſt. They were preſented with ſuch articles as appeared moſtly to engage their attention, which they took with them on ſhore, and returned with a hog in compenſation; but received an additional preſent to its full value.

The chief was between forty and fifty years of age, and bald headed, which, in theſe iſlands, was rather ſingular at that time of life. From what cauſe could not be aſcertained; but he ſeemed deſirous of concealing this baldneſs, as he wore a turban; from whence was inferred that it was held diſgraceful; a very probable ſuppoſition, as one of the natives had his head ſhaved, as a puniſhment for theft. This propenſity to pilfering prevailed here in common with the iſlanders in general; and the loſs of a goat, on the part of the Europeans, had nearly been attended with the moſt ſerious conſequences. The natives were guilty of great duplicity of conduct upon this occaſion. The chief retired to a remote part of the iſland. Their replies were equivocal on demanding reſtoration of the animal, inſomuch that it was deemed expedient to ſend on ſhore an armed party, which drove the natives before them. However as aſſurance was given them of their ſafety, it put a ſtop to their flight. Perſiſting in their denial of any knowledge of the animal, ſix or eight of their houſes were ſet on fire, two or three canoes were conſumed; and a meſſenger was diſpatched to Maheme, with a peremptory declaration, that, on his refuſing immediate reſtoration of the goat, a ſingle canoe ſhould not be left on the iſland; nor ſhould hoſtilities ceaſe while the ſtolen animal continued in his poſſeſſion. Theſe means had the deſired effect; the goat was returned; and it appeared, from good intelligence, that it was brought from the very place where the inhabitants, but the day before, declared their total ignorance of the matter.

The produce of this iſland is nearly the ſame with that of thoſe adjoining. The women are remarkable for being of a dark hue, low of ſtature, and of diſagreeable features. The country is hilly, has little low land, except ſome vallies, and the flat border that almoſt ſurrounds the ſea. Theſe hills, though rocky, are generally covered almoſt to their tops with trees. At the bottom of Taloo harbour the ground gradually riſes to the foot of the hills; but the flat border on each ſide becomes quite ſteep at a very ſmall diſtance from the ſea. This gives it a romantic caſt, pleaſing to the view. In the low grounds the ſoil is of a yelloviſh ſtiff mould; on the lower hills it is blacker and looſer; and the ſtone that compoſes the hills is of a bluiſh colour, with ſome particles of glimma interſperſed. Near where the veſſels lay were two large ſtones, or rather rocks, concerning which the natives entertain ſome ſuperſtitious notions, conſidering them as brother and ſiſter, and holding them to be *Eatooas*, or divinities, brought thither by ſupernatural agency.

O-Heteroa. This iſland is thirteen miles in circumference, ſituated in latitude 22 deg. 27 min. ſouth, and longitude 150 deg. 47 min. weſt. Though more even and uniform, it is neither ſo populous or fertile as the adjacent iſlands. The inhabitants are not hoſpitable, nor have they an harbour for the accommodation of ſhipping. There is a bay on the weſtern ſide of the iſland; but the bottom is foul and rocky; and the water is ſo clear, that the bottom can be ſeen at the depth of 25 fathom, or 150 feet.

The natives are of an hoſtile diſpoſition, and generally armed with lances, near twenty feet long, made of a very hard wood, poliſhed, and ſharpened at one end. They differ much in the form of their dreſs from the other iſlanders, though the materials are the ſame.

Some

Some of them wear caps made of the tail feathers of the tropic bird; and cover their bodies with ſtripes of different coloured cloth, as yellow, red and brown. Their habit is a kind of ſhort jacket of cloth, which reaches to the knee. It is of one piece; and having a hole in the middle, with long ſtitches round it, is thereby rendered different from the dreſs of all the other iſlanders. Through this hole the head is put; and the whole being bound round the body by a piece of yellow cloth, or ſaſh, which, paſſing round the neck behind, is croſſed upon the breaſt, and collected round the waiſt like a belt, which paſſes over another belt of red cloth; ſo that they are repreſented as making a very gay and warlike appearance. They take ſingular pains in adorning their canoes, by the embelliſhments of carving, and ſome rows of white feathers hanging down from head to ſtern.

Islands of Danger, ſo called by Commodore Byron, from the hazard to which a veſſel is expoſed from the rocks and broken ground between them, which being ſo low, a ſhip may be cloſe in with them before they are ſeen. They are three in number; and their ſituation is differently laid down by Commodore Byron and Captain Cook; the former placing them in latitude 12 deg. 33 min. ſouth, longitude 167 deg. 47 min. weſt. The length of the moſt extenſive of theſe iſlands is about three leagues. From the extreme point runs out a reef, upon which the ſea breaks to a tremendous height. Innumerable rocks and ſhoals ſtretch near two leagues into the ſea, on the north-weſt and weſt ſides, and are extremely dangerous. Theſe iſlands are populous, and appear fertile and beautiful; but they are ſecluded from inveſtigation by their very dangerous ſituation.

Byron's Duke of York's Island. This iſland being diſcovered, was named by Commodore Byron in 1765. It lies in latitude 8 deg. 41 min. ſouth, and longitude 173 deg. 3 min. weſt. It is a dreary ſpot, uninhabited; a dreadful ſea breaks upon almoſt every part of the coaſt, nor could ſoundings be any where found. The boats landed with great difficulty, and procured ſome cocoa-nuts, which greatly refreſhed the crew amidſt a dearth of wholeſome food. The iſland appeared as if it never had been trodden by a human being before. Innumerable ſea-fowls were ſeen ſitting upon their neſts, built upon high trees; but ſo tame that they ſuffered themſelves to be knocked down without leaving their neſts. No other animal was ſeen but land-crabs, with which the ground was covered.

Turtle-Island, ſo denominated by Captain Cook, who firſt viſited it, from the number of turtles with which it abounded, lies in latitude 19 deg. 48 min. ſouth, and longitude 178 deg. 2 min. weſt.

Queen Charlotte's Islands. When theſe iſlands were firſt diſcovered by Captain Carteret, ſeven of them were counted; but there was reaſon to ſuppoſe there were more diſperſed within the cluſter. The water here is excellent; but there is a dearth of wholeſome vegetables. The colour of the natives is black, their hair is woolly, and they go ſtark naked. A party ſent on ſhore upon this iſland by Captain Wallis, to procure proviſions, by their inſolent behaviour, brought upon themſelves the reſentment of the natives, and thereupon enſued a ſkirmiſh, in which the maſter of the ſhip, and three ſeamen, were wounded by arrows, and afterwards died, while the Dolphin lay here. To protect the Engliſh on ſhore from the fury of the natives, grape ſhot was fired from the ſhip's guns, which ſo intimidated them, that they abandoned that part of the iſland, and left the people to fill water without annoyance. Here candour obliges us to exculpate the commander from being acceſſary to the carnage, as the inſult given to the natives was contrary to his expreſs orders, and he was under an indiſpenſable neceſſity of procuring water by any means.

The inhabitants of theſe iſlands are very nimble and vigorous, and of an amphibious compound, as they were in and out of their canoes every minute.

Theſe iſlands lie in latitude 11 deg. longitude 164 deg. eaſt.

Byron's Island, ſo called from Commodore Byron, who diſcovered it in 1765, lies in 1 deg. 18 min. ſouth latitude, and 179 deg. 50 min. eaſt longitude. There being no part favourable for anchorage, the people could not go on ſhore, nor procure any refreſhments. It was ſuppoſed to be about four leagues in extent, and was evidently very populous; for, as ſoon as the veſſels came in ſight, the natives aſſembled on the beach, to the number of above a thouſand; and more than ſixty canoes, or proas, put off from the ſhore, made towards it, and ranged themſelves in a circle round it. Having gazed for ſome time, one of them jumped out of his proa, ſwam to the ſhip, and ran up the ſide like a cat. Having ſtepped over the gunwale, he ſat down upon it, burſt into a fit of exceſſive laughter, and ſtarting up ſuddenly, ran up and down the ſhip, ſeemingly deſirous of ſtealing whatever he could lay his hands on; but could not effect his deſign, as being ſtark naked, it was impoſſible to conceal his booty. Much merriment was produced in the ſailors dreſſing him in a jacket and trowſers, as he then diſplayed all the droll geſticulations of an ape. He eat ſome bread, which was given him, with a moſt voracious appetite; and having played a number of antic tricks, leaped overboard in his new garb, and ſwam to his proa.

The natives of this iſland are of good ſtature, proportion, and features. Their complexion is of a bright copper; and the mixture of chearfulneſs and intrepidity diſcoverable in their countenances, ſtrikes the beholder. They have long black hair. Some had long beards; others only whiſkers; and others nothing more than a ſmall tuft at the point of the chin. They were all ſtark naked, except ornaments, which conſiſted of ſhells, fancifully diſpoſed, and ſtrung together, which they wore round their necks, wriſts, and waiſts. Their ears were perforated; but they had no ornaments in them; though it ſeemed that they had worn very heavy ones, for their ears hung down almoſt to their ſhoulders, and ſome were ſplit quite through. A perſon amongſt them, of apparent importance, had a ſtring of human teeth tied about his waiſt, which was ſuppoſed to be a badge of his valour, as he would not part with it upon any conſideration. Some were armed with a kind of ſpear, very broad at the end, and ſtuck full of ſhark's teeth, which were as ſharp as a lancet. They were evidently of a moſt ſavage diſpoſition; for when our people ſhewed them ſome cocoa-nuts, and indicated, by ſigns, that they wanted more, inſtead of ſupplying them, they diſcovered a deſire of depriving them of thoſe few they had remaining.

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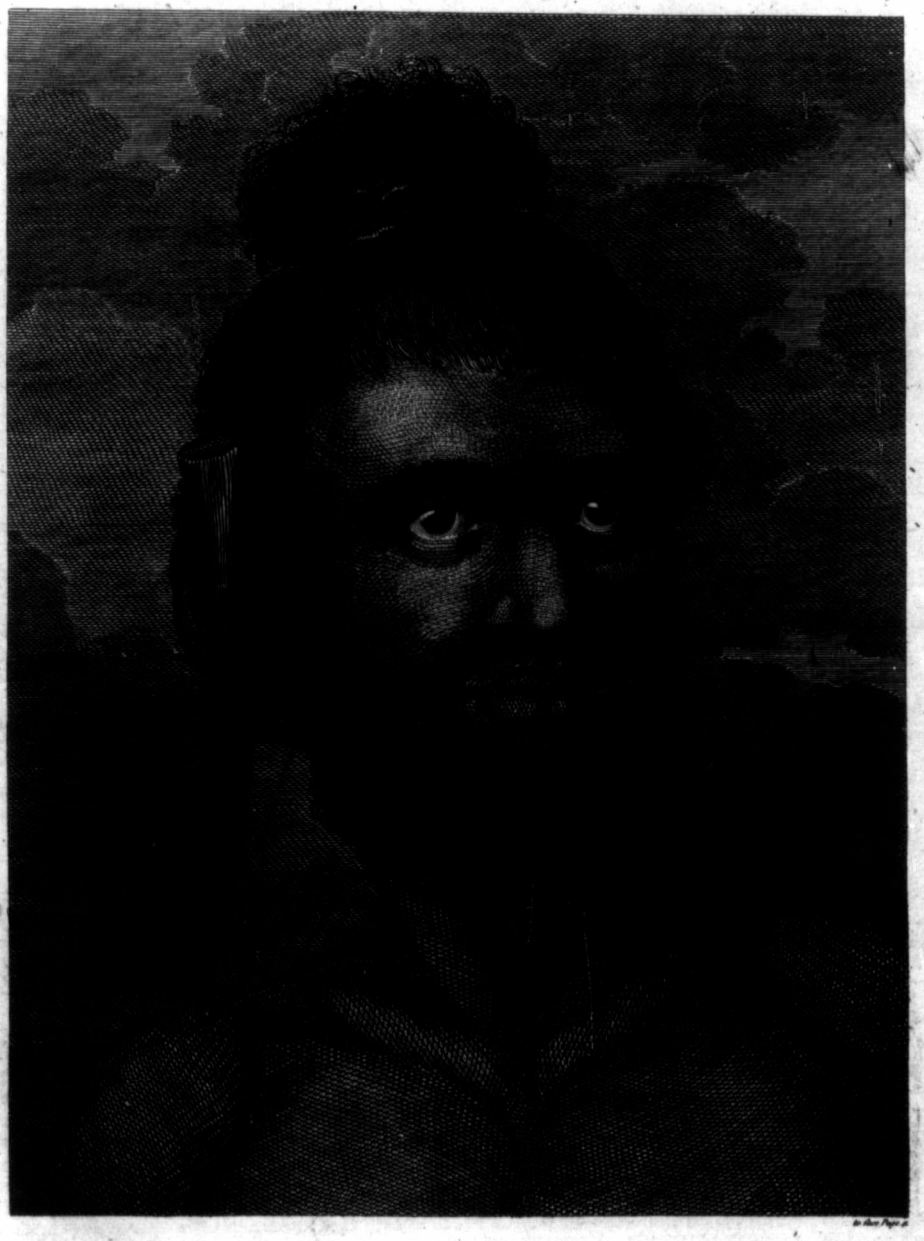

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CHAP. VII.

Deſcription of the Iſlands of MANGEEA, WATEEOO and OTAKOOTAIA.

SECTION I.

Deſcription of the iſland. Dreſs, complexion and ſize of the inhabitants; their canoes, language and manners.

THIS iſland is ſituated in 21 deg. 59 min. ſouth latitude, and 201 deg. 53 min. eaſt longitude, and was diſcovered by Captain Cook in March 1777. As an attempt to land from boats appeared impracticable, on account of the ſurf; and no bottom could be found for anchorage till they came within a cable's length of the breakers, our late navigators were obliged to leave this iſland unviſited.

Such parts of the coaſt, however, that fell under obſervation, are guarded by a reef of coral rock, againſt which a heavy ſurf is continually breaking. This iſland is about five leagues in circumference, and though of a moderate and pretty equal height, may be ſeen in clear weather at the diſtance of ten leagues. In the interior parts it riſes into ſmall hills, whence there is an eaſy deſcent to the ſhore, which, in the ſouth-weſt part, is ſteep, though not very high, and has ſeveral excavations made by the daſhing of the waves againſt a browniſh ſand ſtone, of which it conſiſts. The deſcent here abounds with trees of a deep green, which ſeem to be all of one ſort, except neareſt the ſhore, where was obſerved a number of that ſpecies found in the woods of New Zealand. The ſhore of the north-weſt part terminates in a ſandy beach, beyond which the land is broken into ſmall chaſms, and has a broad border of trees, which reſemble tall willows. Farther up, on the aſcent, the trees were of the deep green abovementioned. Some trees of the higher ſort were thinly ſcattered on the hills, the other parts of which were either covered with ſomething like fern, or were bare, and of a reddiſh colour. The iſland, upon the whole, has a pleaſing appearance, and might, by proper cultivation, be made a beautiful ſpot.

From the numbers and aſpect of the natives, it is highly probable, that ſuch articles of proviſions as the iſland produces are found in great abundance. Our countrymen were informed, that they had no hogs or dogs, though they had heard of both thoſe animals; but that they had plantains, taro, and bread-fruit. The only birds obſerved were ſome terns, noddies, white egg-birds, and one white heron.

Our people, as they approached the ſhore, ſaw many of the natives running along the beach, and, by the aſſiſtance of glaſſes, could perceive that they were armed with long ſpears and clubs, which they brandiſhed in the air with ſigns of threatening, or, as ſome ſuppoſed, with invitations to land. Moſt of them were naked, except having a kind of girdle, which was brought up between the thighs; but ſome of them wore about their ſhoulders pieces of cloth of various colours, white, ſtriped, or chequered; and almoſt all of them had about their heads a white wrapper, in ſome degree reſembling a turban. They were of a tawny complexion, robuſt, and about the middle ſize.

At this time a man getting into a ſmall canoe, at a diſtant part of the beach, put off, as with a view of reaching the ſhip; but his courage failing, he quickly returned towards the ſhore. Another man ſoon after joined him in the canoe; and then both of them paddled towards it. They ſeemed, however, afraid to approach till their apprehenſions were partly removed by Omai, who addreſſed them in a language they underſtood. Thus encouraged, they came near enough to receive ſome nails and beads, which, being tied to ſome wood, were thrown into the canoe. They, however, put the wood aſide without untying the things from it, which might perhaps have proceeded from ſuperſtition; for Omai told our people, that when they obſerved them offering preſents they requeſted ſomething for their *Eatooa*. On being aſked by Omai whether they ever eat human fleſh, they replied in the negative, with equal abhorrence and indignation. One of them, named Mouroa, being queſtioned with regard to a ſcar on his forehead, ſaid it was the conſequence of a wound he had received in fighting with the natives of an iſland lying towards the north-eaſt, who ſometimes invaded them. They afterwards laid hands on a rope, but would not venture on board, telling Omai, that their countrymen on ſhore had ſuggeſted to them this caution; and had likewiſe directed them to enquire whence our ſhip came, and to learn the name of the captain. Their chief, they ſaid, was called Orooaeeka, the name of the iſland *Mangya* or *Mangeea*, to which they ſometimes added *nooe, nai, naiwa*.

One of the natives was rather corpulent, and though not tall well proportioned. As his perſon was agreeable ſo was his diſpoſition, as appeared from ſome droll geſticulations, which indicated humour and good-nature. He alſo made others of a ſerious kind, and repeated ſome words with an air of devotion, before he would venture to take hold of the rope at the ſtern of the ſhip. His complexion was nearly of the ſame caſt with that of the natives of the moſt ſouthern parts of Europe. His companion was not ſo handſome. They both had ſtrong, ſtrait, black hair, tied together on the top of their heads with a piece of white cloth. They had long beards; and the inſide of their arms, from the elbow to the ſhoulder, and ſome other parts, were tatooed or punctured. The lobes of their ears were ſlit to ſuch a length, that one of them ſtuck therein a knife and ſome beads that were given him. The ſame perſon had hung about his neck, by way of ornament, two poliſhed pearl-ſhells and a bunch of human hair, looſely twiſted together. They wore a kind of girdle, of a ſubſtance manufactured from the *morus papyrifera*, and glazed like thoſe uſed in the Friendly Iſlands. They had on their feet a ſort of ſandals, made of a graſſy ſubſtance interwoven, which were obſerved to be all worn by thoſe ſeen on the beach. The canoe in which they came was the only one of the natives ſeen. It was very narrow, and not above ten feet long, but ſtrong and neatly made. The lower part was of white wood; but the upper part black, and their paddles were made of wood of the ſame colour; theſe were broad at one end and blunted, and about three feet long. The fore part had a flat board faſtened over it, which projected out, to prevent the water from getting in. It had an upright ſtern, five feet high, which terminated at top in a kind of fork. They paddled indifferently either end of the canoe forward.

During the time that our officers were employed in reconnoitering the coaſt in two boats the natives thronged down upon the reef all armed. Mouroa, who was in the boat with Captain Cook, thinking, perhaps, that this war-like appearance deterred them from landing, commanded his own people to retire. As many of them complied, it was imagined that he was a perſon of ſome conſequence. Several of them inſtigated by curioſity, ſwam from the ſhore to the boats, and came on board them without reſerve. It was difficult to keep

them out, and prevent their pilfering whatever they could lay hands upon. At length, when they obſerved our people returning to the ſhips, they all departed except Mourooa, who, though not without manifeſt indication of fear, accompanied the commodore on board the Reſolution. The cattle and other new objects that he ſaw there did not ſtrike him with much ſurpriſe; his mind, perhaps being too much occupied about his own ſafety, to allow him to attend to other things. He ſeemed very uneaſy, gave but little new intelligence; and therefore, after he had continued a ſhort time on board Captain Cook ordered a boat to carry him towards the land. In his way out of the cabin, happening to ſtumble over one of the goats, he ſtopped, looked at the animal, and aſked Omai what bird it was; but not receiving an immediate anſwer from him, he put the ſame queſtion to ſome of the people who were upon deck. The boat having conveyed him near the ſurf, he leaped into the water and ſwam a-ſhore. His countrymen, eager to learn what he had ſeen, flocked round him as ſoon as he had landed; in which ſituation they remained till our people loſt ſight of them.

Theſe iſlanders ſpeak a language reſembling that ſpoken at Otaheite, but their pronounciation is more guttural, and they have ſome words peculiar to themſelves. It was remarked that they ſeemed to reſemble the natives of Otaheite in their perſons more than any other nation ſeen in theſe ſeas, having a ſmoth ſkin and not being muſcular. Their general diſpoſition and method of living, as far as there were opportunities of judging, were ſuppoſed to be ſimilar. One houſe was obſerved near the beach. It was pleaſantly ſituated in a grove of trees, and appeared to be about 30 feet long, and ſeven or eight feet high, with an open end.

Their mode of ſalutation is that of joining noſes, with the additional ceremony of taking the hand of the perſon whom they ſalute, and rubbing it with a degree of warmth upon their noſe and mouth.

SECTION II.

WATEEOO.

Diſcovery. Situation. Soil. Perſons, dreſs, diſpoſition, and manners of the natives.

THIS iſland, diſcovered alſo by Captain Cook in 1777, is ſituated in latitude 20 deg. 1 min. ſouth, and longitude 201 deg. 45 min. eaſt. It is a beautiful ſpot, about ſix leagues in circuit, with a ſurface covered with verdure, and compoſed of hills and plains. The ſoil of ſome parts are light and ſandy, but on the riſing ground of a reddiſh caſt.

Some of the natives, ſoon after the arrival of the European veſſels, put off from the ſhore in ſeveral canoes, and came along ſide of them. Their canoes are long and narrow, and ſupported with out-riggers; the head is flat above, but prow-like below, and the ſtern about four feet high. They ſeemed to have no idea of barter or traffic; as after having received ſome preſents of knives, beads and other trifles, they gave our people ſome cocoa-nuts in conſequence of having aſked for them, but not by way of exchange. One of them with a little perſuaſion came on board, and others ſoon followed his example. They appeared to be perfectly free from all apprehenſion of danger.

When introduced into the cabin, and conducted to other parts of the ſhip, though ſome objects ſeemed to ſurpriſe them, nothing could fix their attention. They were afraid to venture near the cows and horſes, of whoſe nature they could form no conception. As for the ſheep and goats, they gave us to underſtand, that they knew them to be birds. It is matter of aſtoniſhment that human ignorance could ever make ſo groſs a miſtake, as there is not the ſmalleſt reſemblance between any winged animal and a ſheep or a goat. But theſe people ſeemed unacquainted with the exiſtence of any other land animals, than hogs dogs, and birds; and as they ſaw that our goats and ſheep were very different from the two former, they abſurdly inferred, that they muſt belong to the latter claſs, in which they knew there were a great variety of ſpecies. Though the commodore beſtowed on his new friends what he ſuppoſed would be moſt acceptable, yet they ſeemed rather diſappointed.

Such of the natives as were ſeen in theſe canoes were in general of the middle ſtature, and not unlike thoſe of Mangeea. Their hair either flowed looſe over their ſhoulders, or was tied on the crown of the head; and though in ſome it was frizzed, yet that, as well as the ſtrait ſort, was long. Some of the young men were handſome. Like the inhabitants of Mangeea, they wore girdles of glazed cloth, or fine matting, the ends of which were brought between their thighs. Their ears were bored, and they wore about their necks, by way of ornament, a ſort of broad glaſs, ſtained with red, and ſtrung with berries of the night ſhade. They were punctured or tatooed from the middle downwards, particularly upon their legs; which made them appear as if they wore boots. Their beards were long, and they had a kind of ſandals on their feet. They were frank and cheerful in their deportment, and very friendly and good-natured.

There were ſome cocoa-nuts and plaintains, and a hog, brought in ſome canoes, for which the natives demanded a dog in return, refuſing every other thing offered by way of exchange. Though one of our people on board had a dog and bitch, which were a great nuiſance in the ſhip, and which might have ſerved to propagate a race of ſo uſeful an animal in this iſland, yet he could not be prevailed upon to part with them, However, to gratify them Omai gave them a favourite dog he had brought from Great Britain; with which acquiſition they were highly pleaſed.

Some of them, now and then, brought a few cocoa nuts to the ſhips, and exchanged them for whatever was offered. The following account of tranſactions, which is very circumſtantial, and includes ſome obſervations on the iſland and its inhabitants, is preſented as a general diſplay.

Some of our people rowed towards the ſandy beach, where a great number of the natives had aſſembled, and came to anchor at the diſtance of an hundred yards from the reef. Several of the iſlanders ſwam off, bringing cocoa-nuts with them; and Omai gave them to underſtand, that our people were deſirous of landing. Soon after two canoes came off; and to inſpire the natives with greater confidence, they reſolved to go unarmed. The conductors of the canoes watching with great attention the motion of the ſurf, landed them ſafely on the reef A native took hold of each of them with a view of ſupporting them in walking over the rugged rocks to the beach, where ſeveral others, holding in their hands the green boughs of a ſpecies of *mimoſa*, met them, and ſaluted them by the junction of noſes. They were conducted from the beach amidſt a vaſt multitude, who flocked round them with the moſt eager curioſity; and being led up an avenue of cocoa palms, ſoon came to a number of men, arranged in two rows, and armed with clubs. Proceeding onward among theſe, they found a perſon who appeared to be a chief, ſitting croſs-legged on the ground, and cooling himſelf with a kind of triangular fan, made from the leaf of the cocoa-palm, with a poliſhed handle of black wood. He wore in his ears large bunches of beautiful feathers of a red colour; but had no other mark to diſtinguiſh him from the reſt of the people. Our countrymen having ſaluted him as he ſat, marched on a mong the men armed with clubs, and came to a ſecond chief, adorned like the former, and occupied like him in fanning himſelf. He was remarkable for his ſize and corpulence, though he did not appear to be above thirty years of age. They were conducted in the ſame manner to a third chief, who ſeemed older than the two,

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former: he alſo was ſitting, and was ornamented with red feathers. After they had ſaluted him as they had done the others, he deſired them to ſit down; which they willingly conſented to, being greatly fatigued with walking, and with the extreme heat they felt amidſt the ſurrounding multitude.

The people being ordered to ſeparate, they ſaw, at a ſmall diſtance, about twenty young women, adorned like the chiefs with red feathers, engaged in a dance, which they performed to a ſlow and ſolemn air, ſung by them all. They roſe up, and walked forward to ſee theſe dancers, who, without paying them the ſmalleſt attention, ſtill continued their dance. They ſeemed o be directed by a man, who mentioned the ſeveral motions they were to make. They never changed the ſpot, as Europeans do in dancing, though their feet were not entirely at reſt: this exerciſe conſiſted chiefly in moving their fingers very nimbly, holding their hands at the ſame time near the face, and occaſionally clapping them together. Their dancing and ſinging were performed in the exacteſt concert. They were in general very ſtout, and of an olive complexion, with black hair flowing with ringlets down their necks. Their ſhape and limbs were elegantly formed; their dreſs conſiſted only of a piece of glazed cloth tied round the waiſt, which ſcarcely reached ſo low as the knees. Their features were rather too full to conſtitute a perfect beauty. Their eyes were of a deep black, and their countenances expreſſed a great degree of modeſty and complacency.

During the time of the dance a noiſe was heard by our countrymen, as if ſome horſes had been galloping towards them; and, on turning their eyes aſide, they ſaw the people armed with clubs, who had been deſired to entertain them, as they ſuppoſed, with an exhibition of their mode of fighting; which they now did, one party purſuing another which ran away.

One of our people found that the natives pilfered ſeveral trifling things which were in his pocket; and on his complaining of this treatment to the chief he juſtified their behaviour. From theſe circumſtances it was apprehended, that they deſigned to detain the party among them. In this ſituation he aſked for ſomething to eat; upon which they brought him ſome cocoa-nuts, bread-fruit, and a ſort of ſour pudding; and when he complained of the heat, occaſioned by the multitude of people, the chief himſelf condeſcended to fan him.

To try whether their ſuſpicions were well founded or not, they attempted to get to the beach; but were ſoon ſtopped by ſome of the natives, who ſaid they muſt return to the place which they had left. On their coming up, they found Omai under the ſame apprehenſions; but he had, as he imagined, an additional motive of terror; for, having obſerved that they had dug a hole in the ground for an oven, which they were now heating, he could aſſign no other reaſon for it, than that they intended to roaſt and devour our party: he even went ſo far as to aſk them whether that was their intention, at which they were much ſurpriſed, aſking, in return, whether that cuſtom prevailed among us.

Our party were continually in a croud, who frequently deſired them to uncover parts of their ſkin, the ſight of which ſtruck the iſlanders with admiration. They at the ſame time rifled their pockets; and one of them ſnatched from an officer a bayonet which hung by his ſide. This being repreſented to one of the chiefs, he pretended to ſend a perſon in ſearch of it, but probably countenanced the theft; for Omai, ſoon after, had a dagger ſtolen from his ſide in the ſame manner. They now brought ſome green boughs as emblems of friendſhip, and ſticking the ends of them in the ground deſired that our party would hold them as they ſat, giving them to underſtand, that they muſt ſtay and eat with them. The ſight of a pig lying near the oven which they had prepared and heated, removed Omai's apprehenſions of being put into it himſelf, and made him think that it might be intended for the repaſt of him and his friends. The chief alſo ſent ſome of his people to provide food for the cattle, and they returned with a few plantain trees, which they conveyed to the boats. In the mean time our party made a ſecond attempt to get to the beach; but, on their arrival, they found themſelves watched by people who ſeemed to have been ſtationed there for that purpoſe; for, when one of them endeavoured to wade it upon the reef, a native dragged him back by his cloaths. They alſo inſiſted upon his throwing down ſome pieces of coral that he had picked up, and, on his refuſal to comply, took them from him by force. Nor would they ſuffer him to retain ſome ſmall plants which he had gathered. They likewiſe took a fan from an officer, which, on his coming aſhore, he had received as a preſent. Finding that obedience to their will was the only method of procuring better treatment, our people returned to the place they had quitted; and the natives now promiſed, that, after they had partaken of a repaſt which had been prepared for them, they ſhould be furniſhed with a canoe to carry them off to their boats. Accordingly, the ſecond chief to whom they had been preſented, having ſeated himſelf on a low ſtool, and directed the multitude to form a large ring, made them ſit down by him. A number of cocoa nuts were now brought, with a quantity of baked plantains, and a piece of the pig that had been dreſſed was placed before each of them. Their fatigue, however, had taken away their appetites; but they eat a little to pleaſe their entertainers. It being now near ſun-ſet, the iſlanders ſent down to the beach the remainder of the proviſions that had been dreſſed, to be carried to the ſhips. Our people found a canoe prepared to put them off to their boats, which the natives did with great caution; but as they were puſhing the canoe into the ſurf, one of them ſnatched a bag out of her, which contained a pocket piſtol, but the owner calling out to the thief with marks of the higheſt diſpleaſure, he ſwam back to the canoe with the bag. The iſlanders then put them on board the boats, with the cocoa nuts, plantains, and other proviſions; and they immediately rowed back to the ſhips.

The reſtrained ſituation of the party gave them very little opportunity of obſerving the country: for they were ſeldom an hundred yards from the place where they had been introduced to the chiefs, and conſequently were confined to the ſurrounding objects. The firſt thing that attracted their notice was the number of people, which muſt have been at leaſt two thouſand. Except a few, thoſe who had come on board the ſhips were all of an inferior claſs; for a great number of thoſe ſeen on ſhore had a ſuperior dignity of demeanor, and their complexion was much whiter. In general, they had their hair, which was long and black, tied on the crown of the head. Many of the young men were perfect models in ſhape, and of a delicate complexion. The old men were, many of them, corpulent; and they, as well as the young, had a remarkable ſmoothneſs of ſkin. Their general dreſs conſiſted of a piece of cloth wrapped about the waiſt, but ſome had pieces of mats moſt curiouſly variegated with black and white, formed into a kind of jacket without ſleeves; while others wore conical caps made of the core of a cocoa nut, interwoven with beads. In their ears, which were pierced, they hung pieces of the membranous part of ſome plant, or ſtuck there ſome odoriferous flower.

The chiefs, and other perſons of rank, had two little balls, with a common baſe, made of bone, which they hung round their necks with ſmall cord. Red feathers are here conſidered as a particular mark of diſtinction; for none but the chiefs, and the young women who danced, aſſumed them. Some of the men were punctured all over the ſides and back, and ſome of the women had the ſame ornament (if it deſerves that name) on their legs. The elderly women had their hair cropped ſhort, and many of them were cut all over the fore part of the body in oblique lines. The wife of a chief appeared with her child laid in a piece of red cloth, which had been preſented to her huſband;

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ſhe ſuckled the infant much after the manner of our women. Another chief introduced his daughter, who was young, beautiful and modeſt. No perſonal deformities were obſerved in either ſex, except in a few individuals, who had ſcars of broad ulcers remaining on their face, and other parts.

Their weapons were ſpears and clubs, the latter of which were generally about ſix feet long, made of a hard black wood neatly poliſhed. The ſpears were formed of the ſame wood ſimply pointed, and were in general twelve feet long; but ſome were ſo ſhort as to ſeem intended for darts.

Our party continued all the day under the ſhade of various trees, where they preſerved their canoes from the ſun. They ſaw eight or ten of them, all double ones, that is, two ſingle ones faſtened together by rafters laſhed acroſs.

Moſt of the trees obſerved were cocoa-palms, ſome ſpecies of *bibicus*, a ſort of *euphorbia*, and many of the ſame kind as had been ſeen at Mangeea. The latter are tall and ſlender, reſembling a cypreſs, and are called by the natives *etoa*. Here was ſeen a ſpecies of *convolvulus*, and ſome treacle-muſtard. The ſoil, towards the ſea is nothing more than a bank of coral, generally ſteep and rugged, which, though it has been for many centuries expoſed to the weather, has ſuffered no further change than becoming black on its ſurface.

The party which landed upon this occaſion were gratified in no particular except that of curioſity in ſpeculation; for they did not procure any article that could be ranked among the grand objects in view. Omai was queſtioned by the natives concerning us, our country, our ſhips and arms: in anſwer to which he told them, among many other particulars, that our country had ſhips as large as their iſland, on board of which were implements of war (deſcribing our guns) of ſuch dimenſions as to contain ſeveral people within them; one of which could demoliſh the iſland at one ſhot. As for the guns in our two ſhips, he acknowledged they were but ſmall in compariſon with the former; yet even theſe he ſaid could with great eaſe, at a conſiderable diſtance, deſtroy the iſland and all its inhabitants. On their enquiring by what means this could be done, Omai produced ſome cartridges from his pocket, and having ſubmitted to inſpection the balls, and the gunpowder by which they were to be ſet in motion, he diſpoſed the latter upon the ground, and, by means of a piece of lighted wood, ſet it on fire. The ſudded blaſt, the mingled flame and ſmoke, that inſtantaneouſly ſucceeded, filled the natives with ſuch aſtoniſhment, that they no longer doubted the formidable power of our weapons. Had it not been for the terrible ideas they entertained of the guns of our ſhips, from this ſpecimen of their mode of operation, it was imagined they would have detained the party on ſhore the whole night; for Omai aſſured them, that, if he and his friends did not return on board the ſame day, they might expect that the commodore would fire upon the iſland.

But the Europeans were not the only ſtrangers upon this iſland, as was diſcovered by Omai's accompanying our countrymen on ſhore. He had ſcarcely landed on the beach, when he found among the crowd three of his own countrymen, natives of the Society Iſles. The mutual ſurpriſe and pleaſure in which they engaged in converſation may eaſily be imagined. Their ſtory is a very affecting one. About twenty perſons, male and female, had embarked in a canoe at Otaheite, with an intention of croſſing over to Ulietea; but were prevented by contrary winds from reaching the latter, or returning to the former iſland. Their ſtock of proviſion being ſoon exhauſted, they ſuffered inconceivable hardſhips. They paſſed many days without ſuſtenance, in conſequence of which their number gradually diminiſhed, worn out by famine and fatigue. Only four men ſurvived, when their canoe was overſet. The deſtruction of this ſmall remnant now ſeemed inevitable; however, they continued hanging by the ſide of the veſſel, during ſome of the laſt days, till they providentially came in ſight of the inhabitants of this iſland, who ſent out canoes and brought them on ſhore. One of theſe four died. The other three were ſo well ſatisfied with the generous treatment they met with here, that they refuſed the offer made them by our party, at the requeſt of Omai, of taking them on board our ſhips, and reſtoring them to their native iſlands. They had arrived upon this coaſt at leaſt 12 years before. Their names were Tavee, Otirreroa, Orououte: the former was born at Huaheine, the ſecond at Ulietea, and the latter at Otaheite. This circumſtance will ſerve to explain, in a more ſatisfactory manner than the conjectures of ſome ſpeculative reaſoners, how the detached parts of the world, and, in particular, the iſlands of the Pacific Ocean, may have been firſt peopled; thoſe eſpecially that lie at a conſiderable diſtance from each other, or from any inhabited continent.

Several of the houſes of the natives were obſerved to be long and ſpacious. The produce of this iſland is nearly the ſame with that of Mangeea.

According to Omai's report of what he learned from his three countrymen in the courſe of converſation, the manners of the people of Wateeoo, their general habits of life, and their method of treating ſtrangers, greatly reſemble thoſe at Otaheite, and its neighbouring iſlands. There is alſo a great ſimilarity between their religious opinions and ceremonies. From every circumſtance, indeed it may be conſidered as indubitable, that the inhabitants of Wateeoo derive their deſcent from the ſame ſtock, which has ſo remarkably diffuſed itſelf over the immenſe extent of the Southern Ocean. Omai aſſured our people, that they dignified their iſland with the pompous appellation of *Wenoca no te Eatooa* implying *a land of gods*; eſteeming themſelves a kind of divinities, poſſeſſed with the ſpirit of the *Eatooa*. Their language was equally well underſtood by Omai, and by the two New Zealanders who were on board.

From divers particulars already mentioned, it appears that Wateeoo can be of little ſervice to any ſhip that wants refreſhment, unleſs in a caſe of the moſt abſolute neceſſity.

The natives being ignorant of the value of ſome of our commodities, might be induced to bring off fruits and hogs to a ſhip ſtanding off and on, or to boats lying off the reef, as the boats of our lateſt circumnavigators did. It is doubtful, however, if any freſh water could be produced; for though ſome was brought in cocoa-nut ſhells to the party who went on ſhore, they were told, that it was at a conſiderable diſtance; and probably it is not to be met with but in ſome ſtagnate pools, as no running ſtream was any where ſeen.

SECTION. III.

OTAKOOTAIA.

THIS iſland lies in latitude 16 deg. 15 min. ſouth, and longitude 201 deg. 37 min. eaſt. It was diſcovered by Captain Cook in 1777. It is about three or four leagues diſtant from Wateeoo, and ſuppoſed not to exceed three miles in circuit.

The natives unhappily labour under a dearth of water. The only common trees found here was the cocoa palms, of which there were ſeveral cluſters, and great quantities of the *wharra* or pandanus. There were alſo the *callophyllum*, *ſuriana*, with a few other ſhrubs, alſo a ſort of *bind-weed*, *treacle-muſtard*, a ſpecies of *ſpurge*, and the *metinda citri-folia*.

The only bird ſeen among the trees was a beautiful cukoo, of a cheſnut brown, variegated with black; but upon the ſhore was a ſmall ſort of curleu, blue and white herons, ſome egg-birds, and a great number of noddies.

A lizard was caught running up a tree, and though ſmall, had a forbidding aſpect. Many of another kind were likewiſe ſeen. Infinite numbers of a kind of moth elegantly

elegantly ſpeckled with black, white, and read, ſwarmed on the buſhes towards the ſea. Other ſorts of moths, and pretty butterflies, were ſeen.

Though our countrymen ſaw no fixed inhabitants upon this iſland, they diſcovered a few empty huts, which proved that it had been at leaſt occaſionally viſited. Monuments, conſiſting of ſeveral large ſtones, were alſo erected under the ſhade of ſome trees: there were alſo ſome ſmaller ones, with which ſeveral places were encloſed, where it was thence inferred their dead had been buried. As many cockle-ſhells were found, very large, and of a particular kind, it was ſuppoſed that the iſland muſt have been viſited by people who ſometimes feed on ſhell-fiſh.

CHAP. VII.

OTAHEITE, OR KING GEORGE's ISLAND.

SECTION I.

Diſcovery. Various entertaining Incidents. Situation, Climate, Soil, and Face of the Country. Vegetable Productions, &c.

VARIOUS have been the opinions of authors concerning the firſt diſcovery of this iſland; but as many of them have not been duly authenticated, we ſhall attend only to thoſe accounts which are founded upon indubitable facts.

Captain Wallis, who ſailed from England, in Auguſt, 1766, in the Dolphin, with the Swallow ſloop under his command, for the grand purpoſe of exploring foreign climes, having paſſed ſeveral ſmall iſlands in the South Seas in 1767, diſcovered, in his progreſs from the laſt of thoſe iſlands a high ſpot of land, where he came to an anchor, as the weather was hazy. When the fog was diſperſed, there was every reaſon to ſuppoſe the ſpot diſcovered was populous, and therefore an object worthy of particular attention; for a great number of canoes, in which were ſome hundreds of natives, ſurrounded the ſhip. They gave ſigns of amazement in ſeeing the veſſel, and ſeemed to hold a conference on the novelty of the incident. Several trinkets were exhibited to allure them on board, accompanied by ſignificant motions; in conſequence of which, after ſome apparent deliberations and previous ceremonies, an individual of ſingular reſolution ventured to embark. To promote confidence, and diſpel timidity, preſents were offered him; but he rejected them all; till a conſultation being held with his countrymen from the canoes that approached the veſſel, and ſeveral branches of the plantain-tree being thrown on board in token of amity, many others joined him: but the very aukward manner in which they aſcended was generally remarked. One of them, terrified by the attack of a goat on board, which butted him with his horns, to prevent a ſecond onſet, made a precipitate leap over the ſhip's ſide, and his countrymen immediately followed his example. The alarm, however, was ſoon over, and they came on board again. Articles were then offered in exchange for others of their own produce; but they could not comprehend the deſign of our countrymen.

Like the natives of theſe parts in general, they had ſcarcely reimbarked, than they gave proof of their univerſal propenſity to theft; for one of them took an opportunity of ſnatching a new laced hat from an officer, leaping into the ſea, and carrying it off.

As the ſhip ſailed along the ſhore, the canoes made towards land, not being able to keep pace with them; but when ſhe came to, and the boats were ſent out in queſt of a ſpot for anchorage, they ſurrounded them. The natives at length, from a gun being fired over their heads by way of awe, giving ſigns of hoſtile intentions, a muſquet was diſcharged, which wounding one of their countrymen, who had commenced hoſtilities, they retired in the utmoſt conſternation.

After ſailing along the coaſt, and coming to an anchor as often as neceſſity required, during which time canoes occaſionally came on board, and exchanged fruits, fowls, and hogs, for nails, toys, and other European commodities, and hoſtilities frequently commenced and ſubſided, the ſhip reached the ſpot of intended anchorage, and came to within a little diſtance of a fine river.

The natives, on the firſt arrival of our people amongſt them, were ſometimes inclined to a friendly intercourſe, and ſometimes to hoſtile attacks, diſcharging ſtones from ſlings, with ſingular dexterity, at the ſhip, from a great diſtance. A commerce being now carried on between the ſhip's company, ſome canoes came off, having on board a number of women, whoſe behaviour, in divers inſtances, exceeded the bounds of modeſty. Soon after a number of large canoes ſurrounded the ſhip, loaded with pebble ſtones; the Indians on board playing on a kind of flute; ſome ſinging, and others blowing a ſort of ſhells.

One of theſe canoes advanced, in which was a canopy or awning, under which ſat one of the natives, indicating, by ſigns, a deſire to come on board. The captain conſenting, he came along ſide, and delivered to one of the ſailors a bunch of red and yellow feathers, making ſigns that they were intended as a preſent for the captain, who readily accepted them. But whilſt a preſent was preparing for him in return, the canoe put off from the ſhip, and a branch of the cocoa-nut tree was thrown into the air. This was evidently the ſignal for an engagement; for there was a general ſhout from the canoes; which, approaching the ſhip, poured vollies of ſtones into every part of her. It being found unavoidably neceſſary to have recourſe to fire-arms, two of the ſhip's guns were diſcharged, together with the muſquetry, which, at firſt, diſconcerted the Indians, though they ſoon rallied, and returned to the attack. Obſerving thouſands of them on ſhore embarking with all poſſible ſpeed, in canoes prepared to receive them, orders were given for firing the cannon, ſome of which were brought to bear upon the Indians, who ceaſed hoſtilities for a ſhort time; but they ſoon advanced again, and poured in vollies of ſtones that wounded ſeveral of the ſeamen. At length they were totally diſmayed by a ſhot from a gun, which ſtruck a canoe that appeared to have a chief on board, and put a final cloſe to the conteſt; for the canoes rowed off, and the people, that crouded the ſhore, ran for ſhelter behind the hills.

Information being received, from a party ſent to reconnoitre the coaſt, that they had diſcovered a ſpot for procuring excellent water, and that there was not a canoe to be ſeen, Lieutenant Furneaux was diſpatched on ſhore, with the boats well armed, and a party of marines, with orders to land his men under cover of the ſhip and boats. The lieutenant, having executed his orders, took poſſeſſion of the ſpot in the name of his majeſty the king of Great Britain, and diſplayed a broad pendant upon a ſtaff ſet up for the purpoſe.

An old man was obſerved on the oppoſite ſide of a river near which they had taken their ſtation, in a ſupplicating poſture, and apparently terrified. On ſigns being made him to croſs it, he crawled on his hands

and knees towards the lieutenant, who pointed at ſome ſtones that had been thrown at the veſſel, and gave him intimation, that the natives need not be apprehenſive of injury, unleſs they were the aggreſſors. He then cauſed ſome hatchets to be produced, and ordered two of the water-caſks to be filled, to point out to the Indian that they wiſhed to barter for proviſions, and to obtain a ſupply of water. To conciliate the friendſhip of the old man, the lieutenant ordered ſome trifles to be preſented him, and then reimbarked his men on board the boats. The old man, to expreſs his joy, danced round the flag-ſtaff, and then retired. He ſoon returned, accompanied with ſeveral natives; who, in a humiliating poſture, drew near the flag-ſtaff; but ſeeing the pendant ſhaken by the wind, they retreated with evident tokens of alarm. They ſoon returned, however, bringing two large hogs, which they laid down before the flag-ſtaff, and began to dance round it as before. The hogs were then put into a canoe, which the old man having brought along ſide the ſhip, he pronounced a formal ſpeech, and, between the ſeveral parts, delivered, one by one, a number of plantain-leaves, and then expreſſed a deſire of going on ſhore. He would not accept of any preſents, but put off his canoe, and rowed back again.

The natives, notwithſtanding their late appearances of amity, ſoon renewed their hoſtile practices, in attacking a party going on ſhore for water, who deeming it prudent to retreat, they ſeized upon the caſks, and gloried in their plunder. They had alſo the hardineſs to take away the flag-ſtaff, embark in their canoes, and make towards the ſhip. Upon this, orders were given to fire, which had the deſired effect, and cauſed them to diſperſe in the utmoſt conſternation. To put a final end to the conteſt, by convincing the natives of the force which they ſo peremptorily oppoſed, orders were given, by the commander, to fire firſt into the woods, and afterwards towards the hills, where ſome thouſands had retreated; ſo that, alarmed at the diſtance to which the guns were brought to bear, they inſtantly diſappeared.

To prevent the execution of future miſchievous deſigns, the carpenter and crew were diſpatched on ſhore under a ſtrong guard, with orders to deſtroy all the canoes they could meet with, which they accordingly effected, to the number of upwards of fifty and more of the larger ſize. Theſe proceedings produced ſome tokens of amity from the natives, a ſmall party of whom came to the beach, ſtuck up ſome green boughs, and then retreated to the woods. They ſoon returned, and brought ſome hogs and dogs, with their legs tied, together with bundles of cloth, all which they left on the ſhore, making ſigns for the people on board to take them away. A boat was ſent on ſhore for that purpoſe; and, in return, hatchets, nails, and other things were left on the beach, which were carried off by the natives with tokens of joy.

A perfect friendſhip now ſubſiſted between the natives and our people, through the mediation of the old man before mentioned, on the one part, and that of the officers on ſhore on the other. To this deſirable end the following trivial accident very materially conduced. The ſhip's ſurgeon being on ſhore to ſuperintend the care of the ſick, he happened on a walk to ſhoot a wild duck, which dropping on the other ſide of the river, in the preſence of many of the natives, they ran away affrighted; but ſtopping within a ſhort ſpace, the ſurgeon made ſigns to bring the duck over, which one of them at length was perſuaded to do, but not without evident tokens of fear. Several other ducks flying over his head at the ſame inſtant, a ſecond ſhot brought three of them down. The natives by this incident had ſuch terrible apprehenſions of the effect of fire-arms, that the levelling of a cannon, or pointing a muſket, was ſufficient to diſperſe bodies collected to the amount of thouſands.

The ſhips, on reaching Otaheite, or, as it was lately named by our people, King George the Third's Iſland, anchored in Port Royal harbour, within half a mile of the ſhore.

The ſhip had not been in the harbour many days, when a tall female, of majeſtic deportment, with a pleaſing countenance, came on board, and was introduced to the captain by the gunner. She appeared, on her firſt entrance, perfectly eaſy, free from all reſtraint, and indicated, by her general behaviour, a ſuperiority of birth, and a mind interſperſed with a conſcious ſupremacy. The captain, by way of introduction, preſented her with an elegant blue mantle, that reached from her ſhoulders to her feet, which he tied on himſelf with ribbons; alſo a looking-glaſs, beads of ſeveral ſorts, and divers other articles, which ſhe accepted, with a ſtriking air of complacency, and was attended by the gunner on ſhore.

The captain, who had been indiſpoſed for ſome time, being in ſome degree reſtored, next day viſited her at her houſe, which was a very capacious building. Perceiving that his diſorder had rendered him very weak, ſhe ordered ſome of her attendants to take him in their arms, and carry him not only through the river, but all the way to her houſe. As he was proceeding thither, a vaſt concourſe of people thronged around, but were diſperſed on the bare motion of her hand, without uttering a word. As ſoon as the captain's attendants entered the houſe, the royal hoſteſs made them ſit down, and calling for ſome young girls, ſhe aſſiſted them herſelf in taking off the captain's ſhoes, drawing down his ſtockings, and pulling off his coat, and then directed them to ſmooth down the ſkin, and chafe it gently with their hands. The ſame operation was alſo performed on Mr. Furneaux, the firſt lieutenant, and the purſer; but upon none of thoſe who ſeemed to be in health.

During the performance of theſe good offices, the ſurgeon, who was very warm with walking, to cool and refreſh himſelf, took off his wig. This circumſtance, occaſioning a ſudden exclamation from one of the natives, drew the attention of the reſt, ſo that in a moment every eye was fixed on the prodigy, and every operation ſuſpended. The whole aſſembly ſtood motionleſs in ſilent aſtoniſhment, which could not have been more forcibly expreſſed, if they had even diſcovered that the limbs of their gueſt had been ſcrewed on to his trunk. The young women, however, who were chafing the ſick, in a little time reſumed their employment, and having continued it about half an hour, dreſſed them again. This operation produced very ſalutary effects.

On his return, the queen herſelf took the captain by the arm, as he choſe to walk, and, whenever they came to any water or dirt, ſhe lifted him over with as much care as a man would lift a child.

The natives of this iſland having no veſſel in which water could be ſubjected to the motion of fire, they, of courſe, had no more idea that it could be made hot, than that it could be made ſolid; a circumſtance that led to the following humorous incident.

As the queen was one morning at breakfaſt with the captain and ſuperior officers on board the ſhip, one of her attendants (a man of ſome rank, and one who, from his appearance, was ſuppoſed to be a prieſt) ſaw the ſurgeon fill the tea-pot, by turning the cock of an urn that ſtood upon the table. The attendant having remarked this with great curioſity, preſently turned the cock, and received the water upon his hand. As ſoon as he felt himſelf ſcalded, he roared out, and began to dance about the cabin with the moſt extravagant and ridiculous expreſſions of pain and aſtoniſhment. The other natives, not being able to conceive what was the matter with him, ſtood ſtaring in amazement, and not without great fear and concern. The ſurgeon, who had been the innocent cauſe of the miſchief, applied a remedy, which appeaſed the excruciating pain of the poor native.

The gunner, who was appointed comptroller of the traffic eſtabliſhed on ſhore with the natives, uſed to dine on the ſpot. The aſtoniſhment of the natives was great to ſee him dreſs his pork and poultry in a pot.

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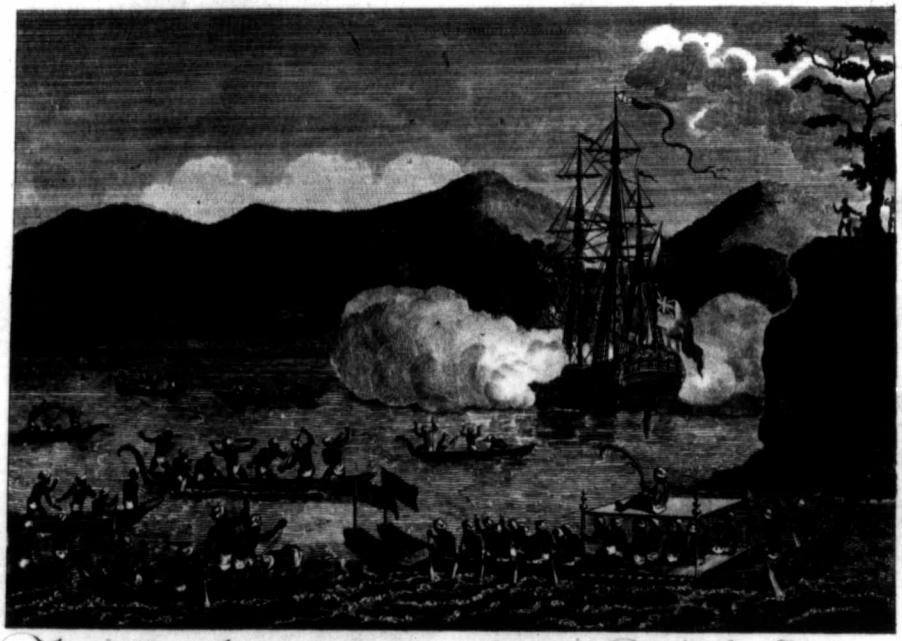

The Natives of Otaheite attacking Capt.n Wallis the first Discoverer of that hospitable Island.

The Interview between Capt.n Wallis and Oberea, after Peace being established with the Natives.

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The captain, in return fo
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Captain Wallis went to
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At length an old man, who was exceeding ſerviceable in bringing down proviſions to be exchanged, was put into poſſeſſion of one iron pot, and, from that time, he and his friends eat boiled meat every day.

The captain, in return for the number of preſents received from the queen, ſent her two turkies, two geeſe, three Guinea hens, a cat big with kitten, ſome china, looking-glaſſes, ſhirts, needles, thread, cloth, ribbons, peas, kidney-beans, about ſix different ſorts of garden ſeeds, a ſhovel, and a conſiderable quantity of cutlery wares, conſiſting of knives, ſciſſars, bill hooks, and other articles. Our people had already planted ſeveral ſorts of the garden ſeeds, and afterwards had the pleaſure of ſeeing them come up in a very flouriſhing manner.

Captain Wallis went to the queen's houſe, and, as a curioſity, ſhewed her a reflecting teleſcope. After ſhe had admired its ſtructure, he endeavoured to make her comprehend its uſe, fixing it ſo as to command ſeveral diſtant objects with which ſhe was well acquainted, but which could not be diſtinguiſhed with the naked eye. He brought her to look through it. As ſoon as ſhe ſaw the objects ſhe ſtarted back with aſtoniſhment, and directing her eye as the glaſs was pointed, ſtood ſome time motionleſs and ſilent. She looked through the glaſs again, and again ſought, in vain, with the naked eye, for the objects which the teleſcope diſcovered. As by turns they vaniſhed, or re-appeared, her countenance and geſtures diſcovered a ſtrong mixture of ſurprize and ſatisfaction, which no language can deſcribe.

At length, after an intimacy had been ſome time eſtabliſhed, the captain intimated to her his intention of departing. She received this intimation with great concern; but when ſhe found her perſuaſions to keep him longer were ineffectual, on the day of his departure ſhe viſited him on board the ſhip. When the anchor was weighed, and the ſhip under ſail, with extreme reluctance ſhe got into the boat, where ſhe ſat weeping with inconſolable ſorrow. The captain made her many valuable preſents, which ſhe ſilently accepted, but took little notice of any thing. A freſh breeze then ſpringing up, a laſt farewel was taken, with ſuch tenderneſs of affection and grief, as filled both the hearts and eyes of each party.

This iſland, which is ſituated in latitude 17 degrees 46 min. ſouth, and longitude 149 deg. 13 min. weſt, and known by the general name of Otaheite, forms two diſtinct kingdoms, which are united by a narrow neck of land. The largeſt of theſe kingdoms is called, by the natives, *Tiarrabou*, or *Otaheite-Nue*; the ſmaller *Opoureonu*, or *Otaheite-Ete*.

It is ſurrounded by a reef of coral rocks, forming ſeveral bays, among which the principal is Port Royal, called, by the natives, Matavai. The country affords a beautiful proſpect. It riſes in ridges, forming mountains in the middle of the iſland, that may be ſeen at the diſtance of ſixty miles. Towards the ſea it is level, and covered with fruit-trees of divers kinds, but particularly the cocoa-nut. In this part are the houſes of the inhabitants, which do not form villages, being ranged along the whole border, at about fifty yards diſtance from each other.

The ſoil, which is of a blackiſh colour, being watered by a number of rivulets, is rich, and of courſe luxuriant in its products. On the borders of the valley through which the river flows, there are ſeveral houſes with walled gardens, and plenty of fowls and hogs. Channels are cut in many places to conduct the water from the hills to the plantations. Streams meander through various windings, and ſtupendous mountains overhang the vallies. Towards the ſea the view is delightful, the ſides of the hills being covered with trees, and the vallies with graſs. No underwood was found beneath the trees, neither on the ſides or bottoms of the hills, but there was plenty of good graſs. Many fine ſprings guſh from the borders of the mountains, all of whom are covered with wood on the ſides, and fern on the ſummits. Sugar cane grew, without cultivation, on the high land, as did alſo turmeric and ginger.

This iſland is not only one of the moſt delightful but healthy ſpots in the world. The heat is tempered by the pureſt air. It is not ſubject conſtantly to the bleak winds from the eaſt, but generally under the milder breezes from eaſt to ſouth-ſouth-eaſt. It is remarked, upon the whole, by Monſ. Bougainville, that the climate is ſo healthy, that the greateſt part of the ſeamen ſent on ſhore for the cure of diſorders in general, contracted from heat, ſalt proviſions, and a variety of cauſes incidental upon long voyages, and more particularly the ſcurvy, regained their ſtrength. From theſe ſingular endowments of nature, this charming ſpot is juſtly denominated "The Queen of Tropical Iſlands."

The vegetable productions of this iſland are as various as numerous in their reſpective ſpecies. There are bread-fruit, cocoa-nuts, bananas of many ſorts, ſweet potatoes, plantains, yams, a delicious fruit, known here by the name of *jambu*, ſugar cane, the paper mulberry, ginger, turmeric, and ſeveral ſorts of figs, all of which the ſoil produces ſpontaneouſly, or with very little culture. They have the *ava-ava*, from which they extract the intoxicating liquor already deſcribed in the other iſlands. A moſt extraordinary tree here received the name of *Barringtonia*. The leaves are of a moſt beautiful white, tipped with a bright crimſon. It is called *huddoo* by the natives, who affirm, that its fruit, which is a large nut, being bruiſed, mixed with a ſhell-fiſh, and ſtrewed in the ſea, has an effect ſo intoxicating upon the fiſh, that they will come to the ſurface of the water, and ſuffer themſelves to be taken with hands. There are other plants of a ſimilar quality in theſe climates, particularly one called *tubbe*, which grows on another iſland, and intoxicates fiſh in the ſame manner as the *Barringtonia*, or *huddoo* It is remarked, from obſervation, that the fiſh caught by means of theſe intoxicating plants were neither nauſeous or unwholeſome. There are alſo the *wharra*, *pandanus*, and a ſort of ſhady trees, covered with a dark green foliage, bearing what they call golden apples, which reſemble, in flavour and juiceneſs, the anana, or pine.

SECTION II.

Perſons, Dreſs, Ornaments, Habitations, Diſpoſition, Language, and mental Endowments of the Inhabitants.

THE natives of theſe iſlands are robuſt, well proportioned, comely, and alert. With reſpect to ſtature, the men, in general, are from five feet ſeven to five feet ten inches. The talleſt man ſeen by Captain Wallis meaſured ſix feet, three inches, and a half; and O-Too, king of Otaheite, is deſcribed, by Captain Cook, as reaching that ſtature. Monſ. de Bougainville, who viſited this iſland a few months after Captain Wallis, ſays, that they would, in point of form, be moſt excellent models for painting an Hercules or a Mars. The ſtandard of the women, in general, is near three inches ſhorter. Their noſes are generally flat, though, in other reſpects, they are handſome and agreeable, having delicate ſkins, eyes fully expreſſive, and teeth beautifully white and even. Their hair is, for the moſt part, black; though ſome, in contradiſtinction from the natives of Aſia, Africa, and America, in general, have it brown, red, or flaxen: the children of both ſexes, in particular, have that of the latter colour. The complexion of the men is tawney, though that of thoſe who go upon the water is reddiſh. The women are of a fine clear olive colour, or what we call a *brunette*. The men wear their beards in various forms, plucking out a great part. Contrary to the cuſtom of moſt other nations, the women of this country cut their hair ſhort; whereas the men wear it long, ſometimes hanging looſe upon their ſhoulders, and at other times tied in a knot on the crown of the head, in which they ſtick the feathers of birds of various colours.

They have a cuſtom in common with the Chineſe, which is, that the principal men of the iſland ſuffer the nails

nails of their fingers to grow very long as a badge of honour, and as an indication of their not being ſubject to any ſervile employment. The nail of the middle finger on the right-hand was obſerved to be ſhort; but the reaſon of that peculiarity could not be learned. Their mien and deportment are perfectly graceful.

Tattowing, or puncturing, is, in general, practiſed here with both ſexes, and performed in the ſame manner as at the other iſlands in theſe ſeas already deſcribed. They uſually undergo this operation at the age of about ten or twelve years, and in different parts of the body; but thoſe which ſuffer moſt ſeverely are the breech and the loins, which are marked with arches, carried one above another a conſiderable way up the back.

Mr. Banks, who accompanied Captain Cook, was preſent at the operation of tattowing performed on the poſteriors of a girl between twelve and thirteen years of age. The inſtrument uſed had twenty teeth; and at each ſtroke, which was repeated every moment, iſſued an ichor, or ſerum, tinged with blood. The girl bore the pain with great reſolution for ſome minutes, till at length it became ſo intolerable, that ſhe burſt out into violent exclamations; but the operator, notwithſtanding the moſt earneſt intreaties to deſiſt, was inexorable, whilſt two women, who attended upon the occaſion, both chid and beat her for ſtruggling. The operator had continued for the ſpace of a quarter of an hour, in which only one ſide was tattowed, the other having undergone the ſame ceremony ſome time before; and the arches upon the loins, which they deem the moſt ornamental, was yet to be made.

Their dreſs conſiſts of cloth and matting of various kinds: the firſt they wear in fine, the latter in foul weather. Two pieces of this cloth or matting compoſe the dreſs: one of them having a hole in the middle to put the head through, the long ends hang before and behind: the other pieces, which are between four and five yards long, and about one broad, they wrap round the body in an eaſy manner. The men's dreſs differs from the women's in this inſtance, that in one part of the garment, inſtead of falling below the knees, it is brought between the legs. This dreſs is worn by all ranks of people; but that of the better ſort of women conſiſts of a great quantity of materials. In the heat of the day both ſexes wear only a piece of cloth tied round the waiſt. They have ſmall bonnets, made of cocoa-nut leaves or matting, conſtructed, in a few minutes, to ſhade their faces from the ſun. The ornaments of both ſexes conſiſt of feathers, flowers, ſhells, and pearls; but the latter are more worn by the women. Boys and girls go naked; the former till they are ſeven or eight years old, and the latter till they are five or ſix. Their clothes are, in general, ſtrongly perfumed. They have a cuſtom, as in many hot countries, of anointing their hair with cocoa-nut oil, the ſmell of which is very agreeable.

The chief uſes for which the houſes of the inhabitants of Otaheite are deſigned are to ſleep in, or to avoid rain; as, in fair weather, they eat in the open air, under the ſhade of trees. They are at beſt but ſheds, and, in general, without diviſion or apartments. The roof reſembles our thatched houſes, and conſiſts of two flat ſides, inclining to each other. The floor is covered with hay, over which they ſpread mats. The ſize of the houſes is proportioned to the number of the family, and the ſeveral apartments adapted for the convenience of the different ranks. The maſter and his wife repoſe in the middle; round them the married people; next the unmarried females; then, at ſome diſtance, the unmarried men; then the ſervants at the extremity of the ſhed, but, in fair weather, in the open air. The houſes of the chiefs differ in ſome particulars, having more convenient apartments conſtructed for privacy. Some are ſo formed as to be carried in canoes: they are very ſmall, and encloſed with leaves of the cocoa-nut; but the air nevertheleſs penetrates; theſe are deſigned only for the accommodation of the great.

With reſpect to the diſpoſition and temper of theſe iſlanders, it has been remarked that their paſſions are violent, and ſubject to frequent tranſitions from one extreme to another, eſpecially after the ſucceſſion of grief and rapture. As they ſeem abſorbed in luxury, it is natural to ſuppoſe them unable to endure pain in an acute degree; but it will appear otherwiſe, when obſerved, that the women undergo the moſt excruciating tortures, from their own hands, on the death of relations, as will hereafter be deſcribed. They point out particular friends by taking off a part of their cloathing, and putting it on them. Their treatment of our countrymen, after prejudices ariſing from novelty had ſubſided, was generous and courteous. When reviſited by Captain Cook, they recognized their old acquaintance with warmth and ſatisfaction, and enquired after thoſe that were abſent with earneſt concern. Nay, they expreſſed an ardent deſire of ſeeing them again. If an engaging look from a native was returned by a ſmile from any of our countrymen, they would avail themſelves of the opportunity to prefer the requeſt of a bead, or ſome other bauble; but maintained an evenneſs of temper whether granted or denied. When the frequency and importunity of their ſolicitations became ſubjects for the diſplay of ſarcaſm amongſt our people, they would only carry it off with an hearty laugh. Novelty was the leading topic of their converſation: their intercourſe with ſtrangers, and the information they derived, and obſervations they made, were ſubjects reſerved for the entertainment and diverſion of each other. Though they always expreſſed emotions at the exploſion of gun-powder, they overcame, by degrees, their former dread and apprehenſion.

Their mode of paying obeiſance to ſtrangers or ſuperiors, at a firſt meeting, is by uncovering themſelves to the middle; and they have a common phraſe when any one ſneezes, implying, "may the Good Genius you awake, or may not the Evil Genius lull you a-ſleep."

Though they poſſeſs many good qualities, they partake of the propenſity to theft that characteriſes the inhabitants of the South-Sea Iſlands in general. We have given one inſtance in the caſe of the officer who loſt his laced hat. Their thefts became ſo notorious, that Captain Wallis would not admit them into the ſhip, and was obliged to have recourſe to ſevere menaces, to compel them to reſtore what they had purloined; nay, ſometimes he put in execution meaſures of deſtruction. The terrible apprehenſions of the effects of fire-arms, as, upon every occaſion, never failed of producing reſtitution.

One of the natives having the dexterity to croſs the river unperceived, and ſteal a hatchet, the gunner of the Dolphin, who was commanding officer of a watering party on ſhore, ſignified by ſigns to an old man, who was appointed to ſuperintend commerce on the part of the Indians, the offence committed, and drew out ſome of his people, as if he would have gone into the woods in queſt of the delinquent. The old man, intimidated by this ſpecious preparation, gave the officer to underſtand, he would prevent the execution of his deſign, by reſtoring the article miſſed; and ſetting off immediately, returned in a very ſhort time with the hatchet. The gunner inſiſting on the thief being produced, it was complied with, though with apparent reluctance; and being known to be an old offender, he was ſent priſoner on board. The captain, however, only puniſhed him with apprehenſion, and then diſmiſſed and ſent him on ſhore. He was received, on his return, by his countrymen, with the loudeſt acclamations, and carried off in triumph by them into the woods. Conſcious, however, of the lenity of the gunner, he expreſſed his gratitude, by preſenting him with a roaſted hog, and ſome bread-fruit.

Another trait of the diſpoſition of theſe people is, that they have not an idea of any thing being indecent, and

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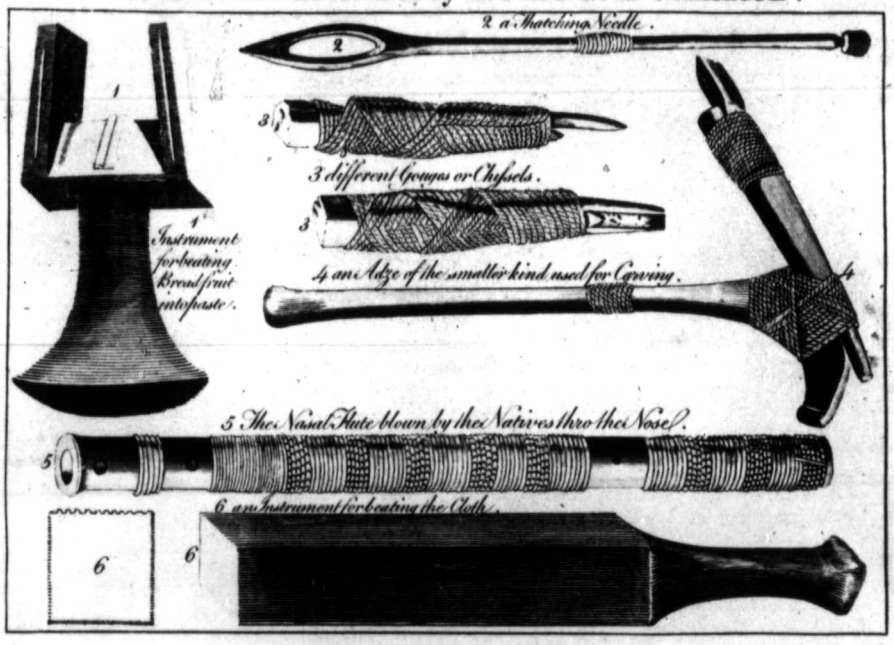
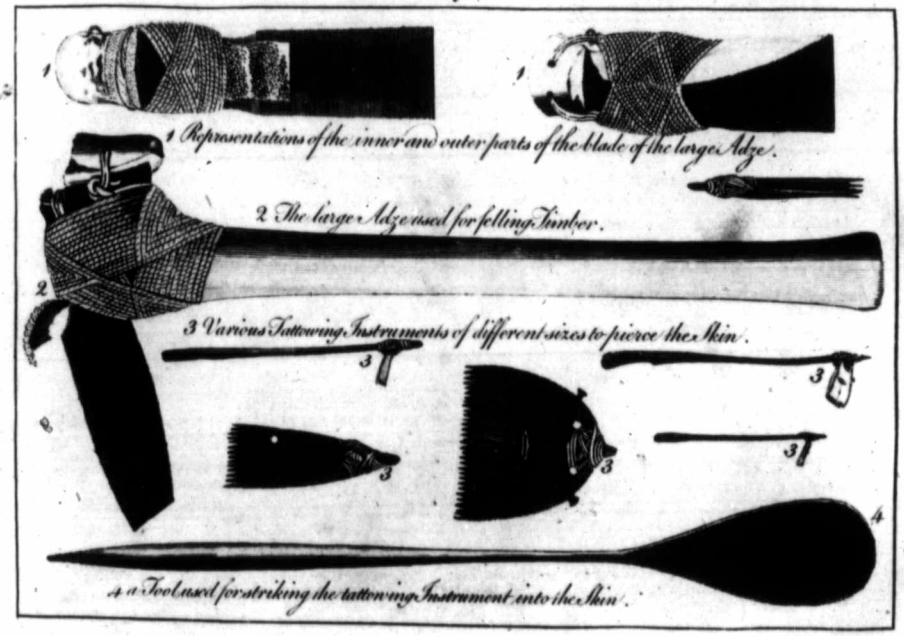
Various INSTRUMENTS used by the NATIVES of OTAHEITE.



Various INSTRUMENTS used by the NATIVES of OTAHEITE.



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SECTI

Food, Cookery, Cuſtoms at
Gluttony, Liquors, Perfum

WITH reſpect to the
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A very common diſh is
bread-fruit, plantains, taro,
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and tranſgreſs the rules of modeſty without the leaſt ſenſe of ſhame, or notion of impropriety. Notwithſtanding this diſpoſition, the wives here owe their huſbands a blind ſubmiſſion: nor does the paſſion of jealouſy prevail amongſt them in the leaſt degree.

On the firſt arrival of the Dolphin on the coaſt, which was ſuppoſed to have been the firſt ſhip ever ſeen here, a great number of women appeared on the beach, were very importunate with the men in the boat to come on ſhore, and endeavoured to allure them by various geſtures. When a regular traffic was eſtabliſhed on ſhore, it was ſettled that a river ſhould ſeparate the natives and the ſtrangers, and that a few only of the former ſhould croſs at a time for the purpoſe of trading. Several young women were then permitted to croſs the river, who, though not averſe to the granting of favours, appeared to be very mercenary in their views.

As the language of the natives of this iſland abounds in vowels, it is thereby rendered ſoft and melodious, and the pronunciation of it was eaſily acquired. European viſitors have not yet been ſufficiently acquainted whether it is copious or otherwiſe, but they have diſcovered that it is very imperfect.

The ſagacity of theſe people in foretelling the weather, particularly the quarter from whence the wind will blow, is very extraordinary. In their long voyages they ſteer by the ſun in the day, and in the night by the ſtars; all of which they diſtinguiſh ſeparately by names, and know in what part of the heavens they will appear in any of the months during which they are viſible in their horizon. They can alſo determine, with preciſion, the times of their annual appearing or diſappearing.

SECTION III.

Food, Cookery, Cuſtoms at Meals, Manner of Eating, Gluttony, Liquors, Perfumes, Diſeaſes, and Surgery.

WITH reſpect to the food of the inhabitants of this iſland, there is great difference, according to their rank. Vegetables compoſe the chief part of the diet of the common people; whilſt thoſe of exalted rank feed on the fleſh of hogs, dogs and fowls, and gormandize to an exceſs. Amongſt the articles of vegetable food are the bread-fruit, bananas, plantains, yams, apples, and a ſour fruit, which, though not pleaſant in itſelf, affords an agreeable reliſh to roaſted bread-fruit, with which it is frequently beaten up. The bread-fruit, which is the chief ſupport of theſe people, is attended with no trouble after the tree is planted, than that of climbing to gather its produce. When the fruit is not in ſeaſon, its deficiency is ſupplied with cocoa-nuts, bananas, and plantain.

A very common diſh is a pudding, compoſed of bread-fruit, plantains, taro, and pandanus nuts, each raſped, ſcraped, or beat up very fine, and baked by itſelf. A quantity of the juice of cocoa-nut kernels are put into a large tray, or wooden veſſel, in which the other articles from the oven are put, together with ſome hot ſtones, in order to make the contents ſimmer. Three or four perſons are employed in ſtirring up the ſeveral ingredients, till they are perfectly incorporated, and the juice of the cocoa-nut turns to oil; and, at laſt, the whole maſs is nearly of the conſiſtency of a haſty pudding. Some of theſe puddings are excellent, and few that are made in England equal to them.

They ſubſtitute, inſtead of the bread-fruit, a kind of paſte, made of cocoa-nuts, bananas, and plantains, which they gather before the bread-fruit is perfectly ripe, and lay in heaps, covering it cloſely with leaves. It then ferments, after which the core is extracted, and the fruit put into a hole dug in the earth, which is lined with graſs. This is alſo covered with leaves, and preſſed down with a weight of ſtones. This occaſions a great fermentation: when the fruit becomes ſour, it is then baked and eaten. It will keep a conſiderable time before it is baked, and afterwards. The paſte ſo made is called *maline*. Different diſhes are made of the bread-fruit itſelf.

The fleſh of their fowls is well taſted; but that of dogs is preferred by the natives to every other kind. They eat the ſmall fiſh, in general, raw; and convert every thing that can be procured from the ſea into an article of food, though ever ſo nauſeous and diſguſting to the palates of Europeans.

Their method of killing ſuch animals as are intended for food is by ſuffocation, ſtopping the mouth and noſe with their hands. This done, they ſinge off the hair, by holding the animal over a fire, and ſcraping him with a ſhell. They then cut him up with the ſame inſtrument, take out and waſh the entrails, and put them into cocoa-nut ſhells, together with the blood. Contrary to the nature of thoſe animals in England, ſuch dogs as are deſigned for food are fed wholly upon vegetables; and ſome of our countrymen, who have taſted the fleſh of that animal thus fed, have declared it to be little inferior to Engliſh lamb.

In dreſſing their food they obſerve the following proceſs. Firſt, the fire is kindled by rubbing one piece of dry wood upon the ſide of another. Then digging a pit, about half a foot deep, and two or three yards in circumference, they pave the bottom with large pebble ſtones, which they lay down very ſmooth and even, and then kindle a fire in it with dry wood, leaves, and the huſks of cocoa-nuts. They take out the embers, when the ſtones are ſufficiently heated, and, after raking up the aſhes on every ſide, cover the ſtones with a layer of cocoa-nut leaves, and wrap up the animal that is to be dreſſed in the leaves of the plantain. If it is a large hog they ſplit it, and if a ſmall one they wrap it up whole. Having placed it in the pit, and covered it with hot embers, they lay upon them bread-fruit and yams, which are alſo wrapped in the leaves of the plantain. Over theſe they frequently ſpread the remainder of the embers, mixing among them ſome of the hot ſtones with more cocoa-nuts among them, and then cloſe up all with earth, ſo that the heat is kept in. The oven is kept thus cloſed a longer or ſhorter time, according to the ſize of the meat that is dreſſing.

The uſual ſauce to their food is ſalt water: thoſe who live near the ſea have it furniſhed as it is wanted; thoſe at a diſtance keep it in large bamboos. The kernels of the cocoa nut furniſh them with another ſauce, which, made into paſte, ſomething of the conſiſtence of butter, are beaten up with ſalt water, that has a very ſtrong flavour, and, at firſt, ſeems nauſeous, but after being uſed ſome time, is much reliſhed. They are quite unacquainted with the method of boiling, having no veſſels that will bear fire.

Having remarked the friendly and ſocial diſpoſition of theſe people, it will appear ſtrange that they ſhould exclude their women from their table, whoſe ſociety among Europeans, upon that occaſion, is chiefly deſired. How a ſtated form that, in all other parts, brings families and friends together, ſhould ſeparate them here, they never explained, any farther than by ſaying, they eat alone becauſe it was right. Such, indeed, was their prejudice in favour of this cuſtom, that they expreſſed their diſguſt even at their viſitants eating in the ſociety of women, and of the ſame food. And the women were ſo accuſtomed to this mode of ſeparation, that the Europeans could never prevail on them to partake with them at their table when they were dining in company. When any of them has been occaſionally alone with a woman, ſhe has ſometimes eaten; but not only expreſſed the greateſt reluctance, but extorted the ſtrongeſt promiſes of ſecrecy. Even brothers and ſiſters among them have their ſeparate baſkets of proviſions, and ſeparate apparatus for their meals. The women have their food ſeparately

prepared by boys kept for that purpoſe, and theſe boys depoſit it in ſeparate ſheds.

Though the women were ſo inflexibly attached to this cuſtom, they frequently aſked our countrymen to eat with them, when they viſited thoſe with whom they were particularly acquainted at their own houſes: nay, upon ſuch occaſions, they have eaten out of the ſame baſket, and drank out of the ſame cup. But the elder women were offended in the higheſt degree at this liberty, and would throw away both victuals and baſket, if touched by the hands of a ſtranger.

They uſually eat under the ſhade of a ſpreading tree: their table-cloth is compoſed of broad canvaſs, ſpread in great abundance. If a perſon of rank, he is attended by a number of ſervants, who ſeat themſelves round him. Before he begins his meal, he waſhes his mouth and hands very clean, and repeats this practice ſeveral times while he is eating. He peels off the rind of the bread-fruit with his fingers and nails. He never eats apples before they are pared; to do which a ſmall ſhell, of a kind that is to be picked up every where, is toſſed to him by one of the attendants. Whilſt he is eating he frequently drinks a ſmall quantity of ſalt water, either out of a cocoa-nut ſhell, which is placed by him, or out of the hand. If he eats fiſh, it is dreſſed and wrapped up in canvaſs: the fiſh being broken into a cocoa-nut of ſalt water, he feeds himſelf by taking up a piece with the fingers of one hand, and bringing with it as much of the ſalt water as he can retain in the hollow of his palm.

When he dines on fleſh, a piece of bamboo is toſſed to him to ſerve as a knife: having ſplit it tranſverſely with his nail, it becomes fit for uſe, and with this he divides the fleſh. He crams a great quantity into his mouth at a time, and ends his repaſt by ſipping ſome bread-fruit, pounded and mixed with water, till it is brought to the conſiſtency of an unbaked cuſtard. He then waſhes his mouth and hands: at the ſame time the attendants cloſe the cocoa-nut ſhells that have been uſed, and place every thing that is left in a kind of baſket.

Thoſe of the higher claſs are fed by women: and ſuch is their averſion to feeding themſelves, that one of the chiefs, on a viſit on board an European veſſel, would have gone without his dinner, if one of the ſervants had not fed him.

A party of the Engliſh had an opportunity of obſerving a ſingular inſtance of gluttony. Arriving, upon an excurſion, at a neat houſe, they ſaw a very corpulent man, who ſeemed to be a chief of the diſtrict, lolling at his eaſe, while two ſervants were preparing his deſert, by beating up with water ſome bread-fruit and bananas in a large wooden bowl, and mixing it with a quantity of fermented ſour paſte: while this was doing, a woman, who ſat near him, crammed into his throat, by handfuls, the remains of a large baked fiſh, and ſome bread-fruit, which he ſwallowed moſt voraciouſly. He had a heavy phlegmatic countenance, which ſeemed to indicate, that all his enjoyment centered in the gratification of his appetite; or, in other words, that he wiſhed to live merely to gormandize.

The natives of this iſland appear to have an averſion to ſtrong liquors, their chief drink being water, or milk of the cocoa-nut. If any of them became intoxicated by drinking too freely with the ſeamen, they ever after refuſed the liquor which had produced that effect. They have the plant already mentioned, called *ava-ava*; but they uſe the liquor from it with great moderation. Sometimes they chew the root, and ſometimes eat it wholly.

One of our countrymen, a man of ſpeculation, made particular enquiry concerning the nature of the perfume-root, with which the natives perfume their cloaths and oils. One of them more communicative than the reſt, pointed out to him ſeveral plants, which are ſometimes uſed as ſubſtitutes; but he would not, or could not, point out to the real plants. According to the accounts received afterwards, there are no leſs than fourteen different plants uſed in the preparation of perfume, from which it appears that theſe people were particularly fond of a compound of ſmells.

From the excellency of their climate, and ſimplicity of their vegetable food, diſeaſes in general do not prevail ſo much in this iſland as in many others. The natives, however, are ſubject to leprous complaints, which appear in cutaneous eruptions. Some had ulcers in different parts of their bodies; but they were ſo little regarded, that no application was made, even to keep off the flies.

They are ſometimes afflicted with cholics and coughs; and thoſe who live luxurioufly are liable to the attack of a diſorder ſimilar to the gout. It is affirmed by Monſieur De Bougainville's ſurgeon, that many had evident marks of the ſmall pox.

The crew of the French ſhip, that viſited this iſland a ſhort time after Captain Wallis had left it, are ſaid to have entailed the venereal diſeaſe upon the natives. Above half of Captain Cook's people, in 1769, had contracted it during a ſtay of three months. The natives diſtinguiſhed it by a name implying rottenneſs, but of a more extenſive ſignification. They deſcribed the ſufferings which the firſt victims to its rage endured in the moſt moving terms; and aſſured our people that it cauſed the hair and nails to rot off, and the fleſh to rot from the bones; that it excited ſuch dread and horror among the inhabitants, that the infected were abandoned by their neareſt relations, and ſuffered to periſh in extreme miſery. But they ſeem ſince to have found out a ſpecific remedy for it, as none were ſeen labouring under the dreadful ſymptoms before mentioned upon future viſits.

The management of the ſick belongs to the prieſts, whoſe method of cure generally conſiſts in pronouncing a ſet form of words; after which the leaves of the cocoa-tree plant are applied to the fingers and toes of the ſick; ſo that nature is left to conflict with the diſeaſe without the aſſiſtance of art.

Deſtitute, as they ſeem to be, of medical knowledge, they appear to poſſeſs conſiderable ſkill in ſurgery, which they diſplayed while the Dolphin lay in Port Royal harbour. One of the crew, who, on ſhore, happened to run a large ſplinter into his foot, and the ſurgeon not being at hand, one of his comrades endeavoured to take it out with a pen-knife; but, after giving the man great pain, he was obliged to deſiſt. An old native, of a friendly ſocial diſpoſition, happening to be preſent, called a man of his country from the other ſide of the river, who having examined the lacerated foot, fetched a ſhell from the beach, which he broke to a point with his teeth, and with this inſtrument laid open the wound, and extracted the ſplinter. While this operation was performing, the old man went a little way into a wood, and returned with ſome gum, which he applied to the wound with a piece of clean cloth that was wrapped round him, and in the ſpace of two days it was perfectly healed. The ſurgeon of the ſhip procured ſome of this gum, which was produced by the apple-tree, and uſed it as a vulnerary balſam with great ſucceſs.

When Captain Cook was here in 1769, he ſaw many of the natives with dreadful ſcars; and, amongſt the reſt, one man whoſe face was almoſt entirely deſtroyed; his noſe-bone included was quite flat; and one cheek and one eye were ſo beaten in, that the hollow would almoſt receive a man's fiſt; yet no ulcer remained.

SECTION IV.

Birds, Fowls, Beaſts, Inſects, Fiſh and Fiſhing, Cloth and Matting Manufactories, Baſkets, Tools, Haiva Dances, Muſic and Wreſtling, throwing the Lance, &c.

THE birds of this iſland are a ſmall ſort of parroquets, very ſingular, on account of the various mix-

mixture of blue and re
ther ſort of a greeniſh c
were frequently ſeen ta
who valued them for
king-fiſher, of a dark
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The domeſtic poultry here are cocks and hens, exactly like thoſe in Europe. There are, beſides, wild-ducks; alſo turtle-doves; and large pigeons, of a dark blue plumage, and excellent taſte.

The only quadrupeds in the iſland are hogs, dogs, and rats. The natives are ſaid to have a ſcrupulous regard for the latter, and that they will by no means kill them. But Captain Cook, in 1773, turned a number of cats on the iſland, from which, it is reaſonable to ſuppoſe, the number of theſe favoured vermin muſt be reduced.

Flies were found very troubleſome when our countrymen firſt arrived here; but muſquito nets and fly-flaps, in ſome meaſure, removed the inconvenience. Voyagers differ much in their accounts of theſe inſects. One ſays, that the natives, from a religious principle, will not kill them: another, that this iſland is not infeſted by thoſe myriads of troubleſome inſects common to other tropical countries: and a third, that not a knat or muſquito hummed unpleaſantly, or raiſed an apprehenſion of its bite.

From theſe different accounts it appears, that this inconvenience is felt at a certain ſeaſon of the year, and in certain parts of the country, more ſenſibly than at other times, and in other places. Here were found neither frogs, toads, ſcorpions, centipedes, or any kind of ſerpent. The only troubleſome animal was the ant, of which there were but few.

They have fiſh in great variety, and of excellent flavour. Their principal employment is to catch, and their principal luxury to eat them.

They make ropes and lines, and thereby provide themſelves with fiſhing-nets, of the bark of a tree, which ſupplies the want of hemp. Of the fibres of the cocoa-nut they make thread, with which they faſten the different parts of their canvaſs, and ſubſerve other purpoſes.

Their fiſhing-lines are made from the bark of a nettle which grows on the mountains, and is called *crawa*; and they are capable of holding any kind of fiſh. Their hooks are made of mother-of-pearl, to which they fix a tuft of hair made to reſemble a fiſh. Inſtead of being bearded, the point turns inwards. They have a kind of ſeine, made of a courſe broad graſs, the blades of which are like flags. Theſe they twiſt and tie together in a looſe manner, till the neck, which is about as wide as a large ſack, is from 60 to 80 fathoms long. This ſeine they haul in ſhoal, ſmooth water; and its own weight keeps it ſo cloſe to the ground, that ſcarcely a ſingle fiſh can eſcape. They have harpoons, made of cane, and pointed with hard wood, with which they can ſtrike fiſh more effectually than an European can with one loaded with iron. They have no method, however, of ſecuring a fiſh when they have only pierced it with their harpoon, as the inſtrument is not faſtened to a line. Pieces of coral are uſed as files to form mother-of-pearl, and other hard ſhells, into the ſhape required.

Information was received from a native, that there are ſea ſnakes on this coaſt, whoſe bite is mortal.

The chief manufacture of Otaheite is cloth: of this there are three ſorts, all which are made out of the bark of different trees, namely, the mulberry, the bread-fruit, and a tree which bears ſome reſemblance to the Weſt-Indian wild fig-tree. The firſt of theſe produces the fineſt, which is ſeldom worn but by thoſe of the firſt rank. The next ſort is made of the bread-fruit tree; and the laſt of that which reſembles the wild fig-tree. But this laſt ſort, though the coarſeſt, is ſcarcer than any of the other two, which are manufactured only in ſmall quantities, as the ſame manner is uſed in manufacturing all theſe cloths. The following deſcription will ſuffice for the reader's information.

The bark of the tree being ſtripped off, is ſoaked in water for two or three days: they then take it out, and ſeparate the inner bark from the external coat, by ſcraping it with a ſhell; after which it is ſpread out on plaintain leaves, placing two or three layers over one another, care being taken to make it of an equal thickneſs in every part. In this ſtate it continues till it is almoſt dry, when it adheres ſo firmly, that it may be taken from the ground without breaking. After this proceſs, it is laid on a ſmooth board, and beaten with and inſtrument made for the purpoſe, of the compact heavy wood called *etoa*. The inſtrument is about fourteen inches long, and about ſeven in circumference; it is of a quadrangular ſhape, and each of the four ſides is marked with longitudinal grooves or furrows, differing in this inſtance, that there is a regular gradation in the width and depth of the grooves on each of the ſides; the coarſer ſide not containing more than ten of theſe furrows, while the fineſt is furniſhed with above fifty. It is with that ſide of the mallet where the grooves are deepeſt and wideſt, that they begin to beat their cloth, and proceeding regularly, finiſh with that which has the greateſt number. By this beating, the cloth is extended in a manner ſimilar to gold that is formed into leaves by the hammer; and it is alſo marked with ſmall channels, reſembling thoſe which are viſible on paper, but rather deeper. It is, in general, beat very thin. When they want it thicker than common, they take two or three pieces, and paſte them together with a kind of glue, prepared from the root called *pea*. The cloth becomes exceeding white by bleaching, and is dyed of a red, yellow, brown, or black colour. The firſt is exceeding beautiful, and equal, if not ſuperior, to any in Europe. They make the red colour from the mixture of the juices of two vegetables, neither of which uſed ſeparately has this effect.

The whole proceſs of making cloth is performed by women, who are dreſſed in old dirty rags of this cloth, and have very hard hands. They prepare a red dye, which is made by mixing the yellow juice of a ſmall ſpecies of fig, called, by the natives, *mattee*, with the greeniſh juice of a ſort of fern, or of ſeveral plants, which produce a bright crimſon, and this the women rub with their hands, if the whole piece is to be uniformly of the ſame colour; or they make uſe of a bamboo reed, if it is to be marked or ſprinkled with different patterns. This colour fades very ſoon, and becomes of a dirty red, beſides being liable to be ſpoiled by rain, or other accidents. The cloth, however which is dyed, or rather ſtained with it, is highly valued by the natives, and worn only by thoſe of rank.

Their matting manufacture is very conſiderable: it conſtitutes a great part of their employment, and may be ſaid, in its produce, to excel any in Europe. The materials they work up for this purpoſe are ruſhes, graſs, the bark of trees, and the leaves of a plant they call *wharraw*. The uſes to which they apply their matting are various: on that of the canvaſs kind they ſleep in the night, and ſit in the day. The fine ſort they convert into upper garments in rainy weather, as their cloth is ſoon wetted through.

They are very dexterous at baſket and wicker work: both men and women are employed at it, and they make them of many different patterns.

A dramatic *haiva*, or play, conſiſts of dancing, and a kind of comedy, or rather farce. The performers are of both ſexes. The muſic on this occaſion, conſiſts of drums only. It laſts about an hour and an half, or two hours; and upon the whole is generally well conducted.

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Some part of one of theſe haivas ſeemed formed on the circumſtance of the viſit made them by the Europeans, as the names by which they called ſeveral of our countrymen were introduced. The dancing dreſs of one of the women, who ſuſtained a part in this diverſion, was elegant, being decorated with long taſſels made of feathers, hanging from the waiſt downwards.

One of their dances is called *timoredee*, which is performed by eight or ten young girls, and conſiſts of looſe attitudes and geſtures, in which they are trained from their infancy. Their motions are ſo very regular, as ſcarcely to be excelled by the beſt performers upon any of the ſtages of Europe.

Their principal muſical inſtruments are the flute and the drum. Their flutes have only two ſtops, and therefore ſound no more than four notes by half tones. They are ſounded like our German-flute; only the performer, inſtead of applying it to the mouth, blows it with one noſtril, ſtopping the other with his thumb. They are made of a hollow bamboo, about a foot long. To the ſtops they apply the fore finger of the left hand, and the middle finger of the right. While theſe inſtruments are ſounding, others ſing and keep time to them. The drum is made of a hollow block of wood, of a cylindrical form, ſolid at one end, and covered at the other with a ſhark's ſkin. They are beaten with their hands inſtead of ſticks. Their ſkill extends to turning of two drums, of different notes into concord. They can likewiſe bring their flutes into uniſon. Their ſongs are generally extemporary, and in rhime.

When they are to exhibit the performance of wreſtling, the combatants, who are naked, except a cloth faſtened about the waiſt, enter the area, and walk ſlowly round it in a ſtooping poſture, with their left hands on their right breaſts, and their right hands open, with which they frequently ſtrike the left fore arm, ſo as to produce a quick ſmart ſound, which is their manner of giving a general challenge to all preſent. This done, each proceeds to ſingle out his particular antagoniſt, which is done by joining the finger ends of both hands, and bringing them to the breaſt, at the ſame time moving the elbow up and down with a quick motion. If the perſon to whom this is addreſſed accepts the challenge, he gives the ſame ſigns, and immediately both parties put themſelves in an attitude to engage. The next minute they cloſe, each endeavouring to lay hold of the other, firſt by the thighs, and if that fails, by the hand, the hair, the cloaths, or wherever he can. When this is effected, they grapple without the leaſt dexterity or ſkill, till one of them, having a more advantageous hold, or muſcular force, throws the other on his back. When the conteſt is over, the old men amongſt the ſpectators give their plaudits in a few words, which they repeat together in a kind of tone. The conqueror is generally celebrated with three huzzas.

The entertainment being ſuſpended a few minutes, another company of wreſtlers come forward, and engage in the ſame manner. If neither is thrown, after a conteſt of about a minute, they part, either by conſent or the intervention of friends, and then each ſlaps his arm as a challenge to a new engagement. A ſingular inſtance of the placidity of theſe people is, that the conquerors do not exult, nor the vanquiſhed repine, at the event of the conflict; but the whole is carried on with perfect good will and good humour.

They have alſo an exerciſe of throwing the lance, not at a mark, but for diſtance. The weapon is about nine feet long; the mark is the bowl of the plantain and the diſtance about twenty yards.

SECTION V.

Government, King, Naval Armaments, Lances, Weapon, Tools, Swimming, Traffic, &c.

WITH reſpect to the form of government in Otaheite, it bears reſemblance in point of ſubordination, to the early ſtate of all the nations in Europe, when under the feudal ſyſtem. The people are divided into four ranks or claſſes, viz. *Earee Rahie*, ſignifying king, or ſuperior governor; *Earee* anſwering to the title of baron, *Manahouni* to that of vaſſal, and *Towtow* to that of villain, according to the old law term amongſt us. Under the latter is included the loweſt order of the people.

The *Earee Rahie*, or king, of which there are two in this iſland, (that is, one belonging to each of the peninſulas of which it conſiſts,) is treated with great reſpect by all ranks of people. The *Earees*, or barons, are lords of one or more of the diſtricts into which theſe governments are divided. Theſe part their territories into lots among the *Manahounies*, who reſpectively ſuperintend the cultivation of the lot they hold under the baron. The laborious work in general is done by the *Towtows*. Each of theſe *Earees* maintains his own dignity, and has a retinue chiefly compoſed of the younger brothers of their own tribes, who hold particular offices under them.

As children in this country ſucceed to the title and authority of their fathers as ſoon as they are born, the ſovereignty of the king of courſe ceaſes as ſoon as he has a ſon born. It is ſo likewiſe with the *Earee*, or baron, as the ſon ſucceeds to the titles and honours of his father as ſoon as he is born. He is, indeed, reduced to the rank of a private man, all marks of reſpect being transferred to the ſon. But here it is proper to obſerve with reſpect to the former, that a regent is choſen, and the father generally retains his power under that title, till the ſon becomes of age; and as to the latter, that the eſtates remain in his poſſeſſion, and under the management of the father, to the ſame period.

The ſubordination of the Towtows, or lower claſs, deſerves attention. Though employed in feeding the animals for their luxurious chiefs, they are not ſuffered to taſte a morſel of their food. They undergo, without daring to repine, the ſevereſt chaſtiſements, if, through the unavoidable means of a concourſe, they preſs upon or incommode the king, or any chief; in his progreſs; and this ſubordination is preſerved without any formal power veſted in the king to enforce it. He does not appear to have any military force, either to awe his ſubjects into obedience, or ſuppreſs a ſpecies of rebellion. He has no body or life guard: the barons who attend his perſon do not go armed; ſo that the diſtinction of rank that is maintained here, muſt be attributed to the placid and complacent diſpoſition of the people in general.

Notwithſtanding this diſtinction of rank, and its conſequent ſubordination, the neceſſaries of life are within the reach of every individual, at the expence of very moderate labour; and if the higher claſs poſſeſs excluſively ſome articles of luxury, as pork, fiſh, fowls and cloth, there are no objects here ſo extremely deſtitute and wretched as thoſe which too often ſhock the humane beholder in more civilized ſtates.

The conduct of theſe people does not appear to be under the reſtriction of any ſtated form of government. From divers cauſes, very few actions among them are deemed criminal. They have no idea of the uſe of money. Though adultery is held criminal, yet, as concubinage with unmarried women is exempt from that imputation, it takes off from the temptation to it. Beſides, in a country where there is very little, or none at all, of that delicacy prevalent in more enlightened or civilized parts of the world, a predilection for any one woman is not liable to be attended with any ſerious conſequences.

Adultery, however, is ſometimes puniſhed with death from the hands of the injured party, when under the influence of a paſſion naturally excited by ſuch a cauſe; though in general, the women, if detected, only undergo a ſevere beating, and the gallant paſſes unnoticed.

The principal defect in the government of this country

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A Dance at Otaheite one of the Society Islands.

Hawkins sculp.

A Dance at Ulietea one of the Society Islands.

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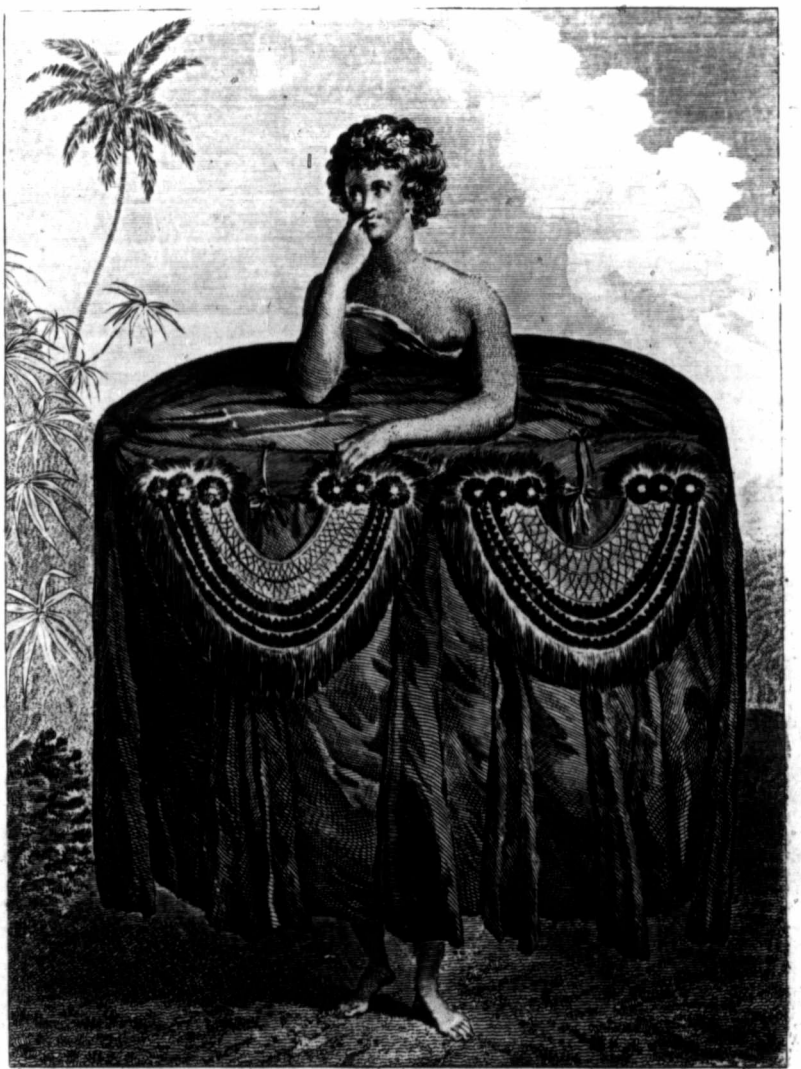

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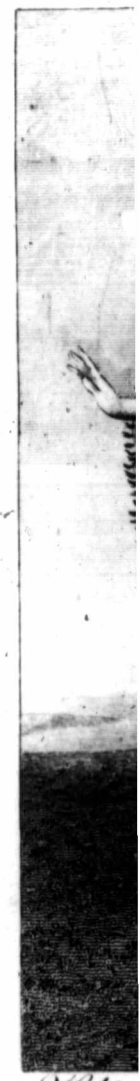

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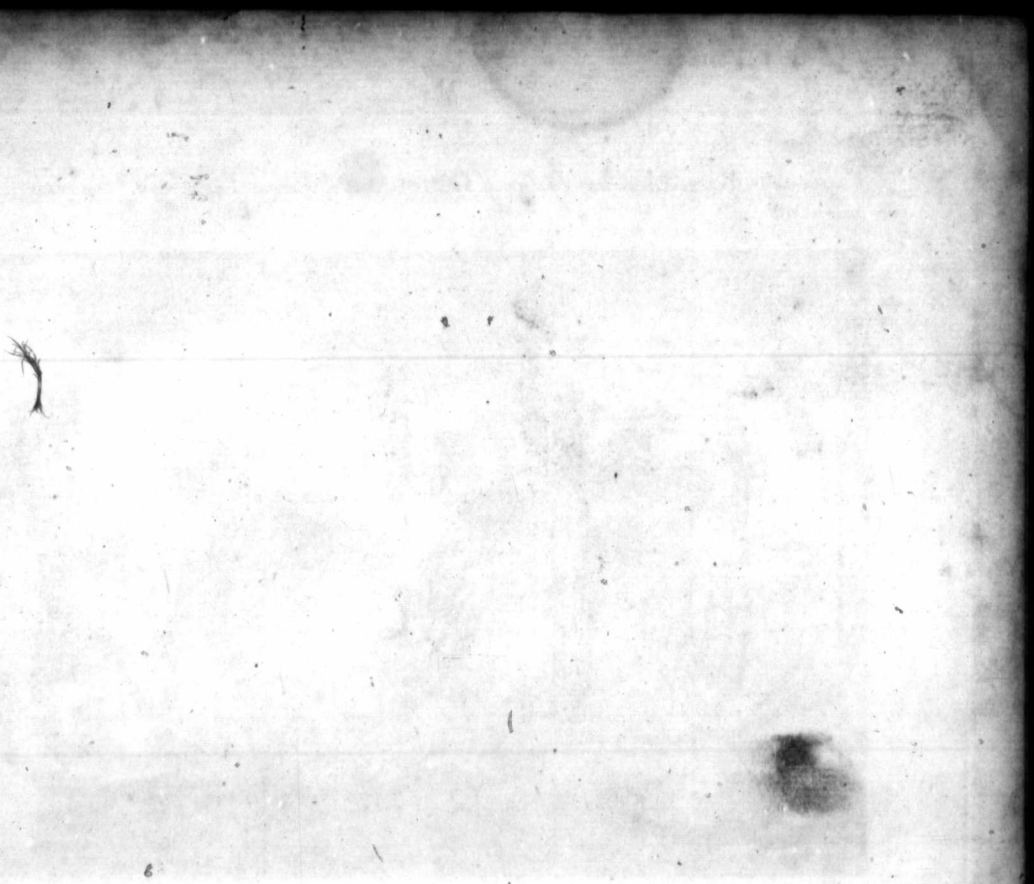
Habit of a YOUNG WOMAN *of* OTAHEITE *Dancing.* 69



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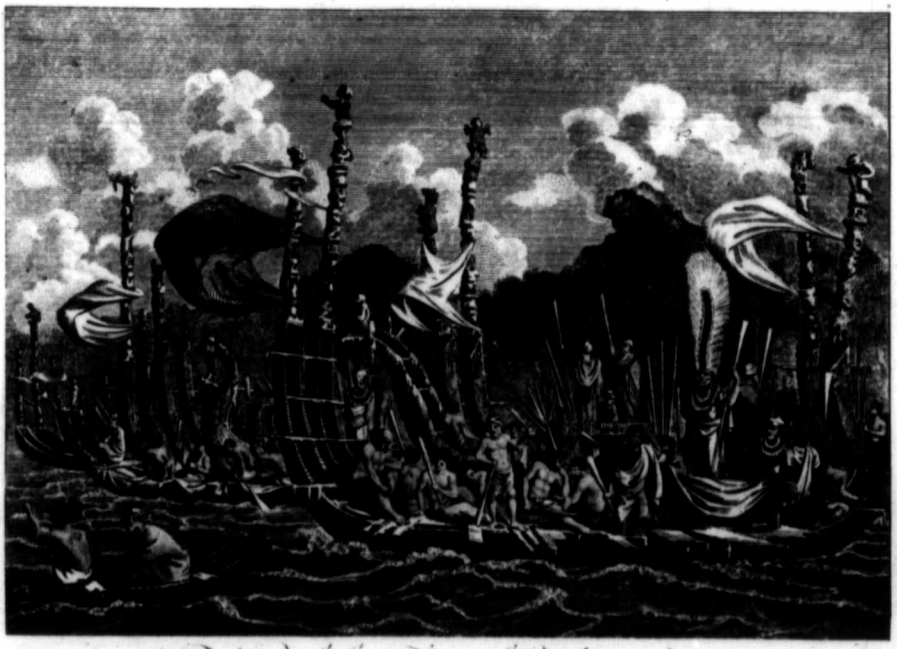
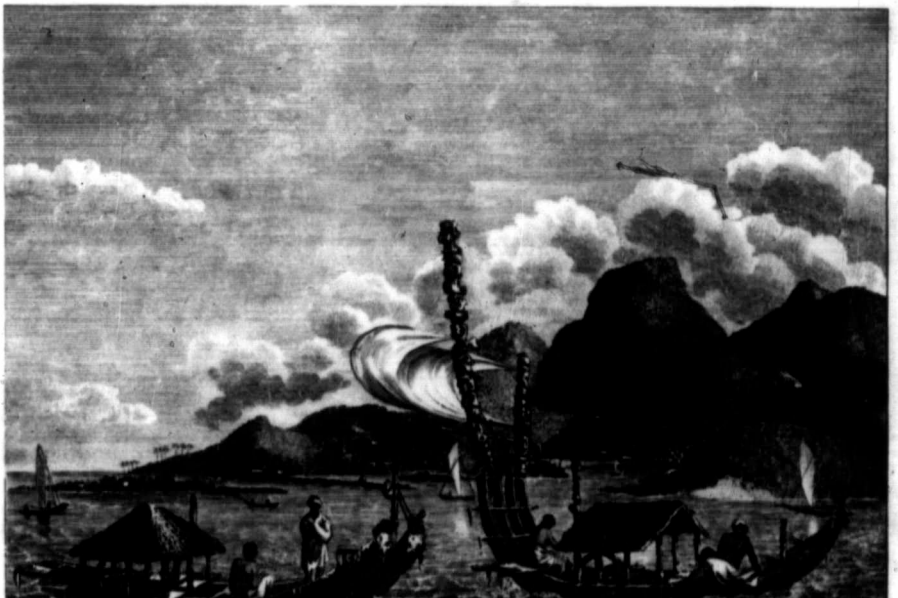


View of the Fleet of Otaheite.



View of the Island of Otaheite.

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The ſervants of the higher claſs are diſtinguiſhed by a peculiar dreſs, reſembling what we call liveries. They wear their ſaſhes higher or lower, in proportion to the rank of their maſters. The ſervants of the chiefs are diſtinguiſhed by the ſaſh being faſtened cloſe under the arm; thoſe of the inferior rank of nobility by its going round the loins. One circumſtance, which does honour to their ſyſtem of government, is, the obtaining immediate information of any deſign that is formed. As a proof of this, it is obſerved, that one of the water caſks being ſtolen from an European veſſel in the night, the tranſaction next morning was univerſally known among the Indians; though, it was evident, the theft was committed in a diſtant part of the iſland. By the ſame means the Europeans were appriſed of a ſimilar intent the following night; ſo that, in conſequence of placing a centinel over the caſks, the thief, who came accordingly, was diſappointed of his booty.

It ſeemed that ſeveral parts of the iſland were private property, deſcending to the heir of the poſſeſſor at his death; and that deſcent appeared to fall indiſcriminately to man or woman.

One of the two kings is ſuperior in title to the other; the *Earee*, or king, of the greater peninſula, aſſuming the title of the king of the whole iſland; though the ſmalleſt peninſula is governed by a king.

The number of the inhabitants of one diſtrict of the iſland was eſtimated at 2400, women and children included.

As there were frequent wars between the two kingdoms, there was, of courſe, a neceſſity for keeping up a ſtanding naval armament. Captain Cook, on a certain occaſion, receiving information from Otoo, the king, that the war canoes of ſeveral of his diſtricts were about to undergo a general review, went in his boat to take a ſurvey of it.

Their war canoes, which are with ſtages, whereon they fight, amount to about 60 in number; and there are nearly as many more of a ſmaller ſize. The Captain was ready to have attended them to Oparree; but the chiefs reſolved that they would not move till the next day. This happened to be a fortunate delay; as it afforded him an opportunity of getting ſome ſight into their manner of fighting. He therefore deſired Otoo to give orders, that ſome of them ſhould go through the neceſſary manœuvres. Two of them were accordingly ordered into the bay; in one of which were the king, Capt. Cook, and an officer; and one of the iſlanders went on board another. As ſoon as they had got ſufficient ſea-room, they faced and advanced, and retreated, by turns, as quick as their rowers could paddle. In the mean time, the warriors on the ſtages flouriſhed their weapons, and played a variety of antic tricks, which could anſwer no other purpoſe than that of rouſing their paſſions, to prepare them for the onſet. The king ſtood by the ſide of the ſtages, giving the neceſſary orders when to advance, and when to retreat. Great judgment, and a quick eye, ſeems to be neceſſary in this department, to ſeize every advantage, and to avoid every diſadvantage. At length the two canoes cloſed ſtage to ſtage; and, after a ſevere, though ſhort, conflict, all the troops on Otoo's ſtage were ſuppoſed to be killed, and the oppoſite party boarded them; when inſtantly Otoo, and the paddlers in the canoe, leaped into the ſea, as if reduced to the neceſſity of preſerving their lives by ſwimming.

But their naval engagements are not always conducted in this manner; for they ſometimes laſh the two veſſels together, head to head, and fight till all the warriors on one ſide or the other are killed: yet this cloſe combat is never practiſed, except when the contending parties are determined to conquer or die. Indeed, in this inſtance, one or the other muſt infallibly happen; for they never give quarter, unleſs it be to reſerve their priſoners for a more cruel death the following day. All the power and ſtrength of theſe iſlands lie in their navies.

A general engagement on land was never heard of; and all their deciſive actions are on the water. When the time and place of battle are fixed by both parties, the preceding day and night are ſpent in feaſting and diverſions. When the day dawns, they launch the canoes, make every neceſſary preparation, and, with the day, begin the battle; the fate of which, in general, decides the diſpute. The vanquiſhed endeavour to ſave themſelves by a precipitate flight; and thoſe who reach the ſhore, fly, with their friends, to the mountains; for the victors, before their fury abates, ſpare neither the aged, women or children. They aſſemble the next day at the Morai, to return thanks to the Eatooa for the victory, and offer there the ſlain and the priſoners as ſacrifices. A treaty is then ſet on foot; and the conquerors uſually obtain their own terms; whereby large diſtricts of land, and even whole iſlands, ſometimes change their proprietors and maſters.

Their naval armament was acknowledged, by one of our moſt celebrated navigators, to have exceeded every idea he had formed of the power of this ſmall iſland. The ſame remark was made of their dock yards; in which were large canoes, ſome lately built, and others building; two of which were the largeſt ever ſeen in that ſea, or any where elſe under that name.

The power and conſequence of the iſland never appeared to ſuch advantage, as when, upon another occaſion, the fleet of war canoes was aſſembled. The amount of thoſe collected was 159 of the largeſt, beſides 70 ſmaller ones. The concourſe of people was more ſurpriſing than the number of canoes; for, upon a moderate computation, they could not contain leſs than fifteen hundred warriors, and four thouſand rowers or paddlers. Our countrymen were given to underſtand, that this formidable fleet was only the naval force of a ſingle diſtrict; and that all the others could furniſh a naval armament in proportion to their number and ſize.

The officers were dreſſed in their war habits, which conſiſted of a great quantity of cloth, turbans, breaſt-plates, and helmets: ſome of the latter were of ſuch a length, as greatly to encumber the wearer.

The whole dreſs appeared rather calculated for ſhow than uſe, and not adapted to the purpoſe deſigned. The veſſels being decorated with flags, ſtreamers, &c. made, upon the whole, a noble appearance.

They have two kinds of canoes; one they call *ivabas*, the other *pahies*: the former is uſed for ſhort voyages at ſea, and the latter for long ones. Theſe boats do not differ either in ſhape or ſize; but they are in no degree proportionate, being from ſixty to ſeventy feet in length, and not more than the thirtieth part in breadth. Some are employed in going from one iſland to another, and others uſed for fiſhing. There is alſo the ivahah which ſerves for war; theſe are by far the longeſt, and the head and ſtern are conſiderably above the body. Theſe ivahahs are faſtened together, ſide by ſide, when they go to ſea, at the diſtance of a few feet, by ſtrong wooden poles, which are laid acroſs them, and joined to each ſide. A ſtage, or platform, is raiſed on the fore-part, about ten or twelve feet long, upon which ſtand the fighting men, whoſe miſſile weapons are ſlings and ſpears. Beneath theſe ſtages the rowers ſit, who ſupply the place of thoſe that are wounded. The fiſhing ivahahs are from thirty or forty to ten feet in length; and thoſe for travelling have a ſmall houſe fixed on board, which is faſtened upon the fore-part, for the better accommodation of perſons of rank, who occupy them both day and night. The pahies differ alſo in ſize, being from ſixty to ſeventy feet long. They are alſo very narrow, and are ſometimes uſed for fighting, but chiefly for long voyages.

In going from one iſland to another, they are out ſometimes a month, and often at ſea a fortnight or twenty days; and if they had convenience to ſtow more proviſions, they could ſtay out much longer. Theſe veſſels are very uſeful in landing, and putting of from the ſhore in a ſurf: for, by their great length, and high ſtern, they landed dry, when the Engliſh boats could ſcarcely land at all.

They are very curious in the conſtruction of theſe veſſels; the chief parts or pieces whereof are formed ſeparately, without either ſaw, chiſſel, or any other iron tool, which renders their fabrication more ſurpriſing and worthy obſervation. Theſe parts being prepared, the keel is fixed upon blocks, and the planks are ſupported with props, till they are ſewed, or joined together with ſtrong plaited thongs, which are paſſed ſeveral times through holes, bored with a chiſſel of bone, ſuch as they commonly make uſe of; and when finiſhed, they are ſufficiently tight without caulking.

Their inſtruments of war are clubs, ſpears, and ſtones. They uſe their ſlings, as before obſerved, with great dexterity. They have likewiſe bows and arrows; but the arrows are of no other uſe than merely to bring down a bird, being headed only with a ſtone, and none of them pointed. Their targets are of a ſemicircular form, made of wicker work, and plaited ſtrings of the cocoa-nut fibres, covered with gloſſy bluiſh green feathers, and ornamented with ſhark's teeth, curiouſly diſplayed.

The tools which theſe people make uſe of for building houſes, conſtructing canoes, hewing ſtones, and for cleaving, carving, and poliſhing timber, conſiſt of nothing more than an adze of ſtone, and a chiſſel of bone, moſt commonly that of a man's arm; and for a file or poliſher, they make uſe of a raſp of coral and coral ſand. The blade of their adzes are extremely tough, but not very hard: they make them of various ſizes: thoſe for felling wood weigh ſix or ſeven pounds; and others, which are uſed for carving, only a few ounces: they are obliged every minute to ſharpen them on a ſtone, which is always kept near them for that purpoſe. The moſt difficult taſk they meet with in the uſe of theſe tools, is the felling of a tree, which employs a great number of hands for ſeveral days together. The tree which is in general uſe, is called Aoi, the ſtem of which is ſtrait and tall. Some of the ſmaller boats are made of the bread fruit tree, which is wrought without much difficulty, being of a light ſpongy nature. Inſtead of planes, they uſe their adzes with great dexterity. Their canoes are all ſhaped with the hand, the Indians not being acquainted with the method of warping a plank.

The amazing expertneſs of the natives in ſwimming, has been particularly noticed by voyagers. It is related, that, on a part of the ſhore where a tremendouſly high ſurf broke, inſomuch that no European boat could live, and the beſt ſwimmer in Europe could not preſerve himſelf from drowning, if, by any accident, he had been expoſed to its fury, ten or eleven Indians were ſwimming here for their amuſement. If a ſurf broke near them, they dived under it, and roſe again on the other ſide. They availed themſelves greatly of the ſtern of an old canoe, which they took before them, and ſwam out with it as far as the outermoſt beach, when two or three getting into it, and turning the ſquare end to the breaking wave, were driven towards the ſhore with incredible rapidity, ſometimes almoſt to the beach, but generally the wave broke over them before they got half way; in which caſe they dived, and roſe on the other ſide, with the canoe in their hands; and ſwimming out with it again, were again driven back. During this arduous effort, none of the ſwimmers attempted to come on ſhore, but ſeemed to enjoy the ſport in the higheſt degree.

It is further added, that a bead, intended to have been dropped into a canoe, having accidently fallen into the ſea, a little boy, about ſix years old, jumped immediately overboard, and, diving after it, recovered his jewel. Our officers, to encourage the child, dropped more beads, which excited the deſire of a number of both ſexes of the natives to amuſe the ſtrangers with their feats in the water: they dived, and not only brought up ſeveral beads ſcattered at once, but likewiſe large nails, which, from their weight, deſcended quickly to a conſiderable depth. Swimming ſeems to be familiar to both ſexes from the earlieſt childhood; and the pliancy of their limbs, and eaſy poſitions in the water, were moſt amazing, and ſeemed to indicate that they were a kind of amphibious creatures.

The ſtate of traffic in this country was found to be fluctuating; for Captain Cook obſerves, that, on his former voyages, the moſt valuable commodities were new axes, hatchets, ſpikes, large nails, looking glaſſes, knives, and beads; whereas a total change took place on his laſt viſit. Feathers, of which great quantities had been procured at the Friendly Iſlands, were now held in univerſal eſtimation. Amongſt other uſes, theſe were applied to that of adorning the dreſs of their warriors.

Feathers alſo at this time became an article of the higheſt value with the women, and of courſe objects which attracted their particular attention. They ſtiled them *oora*; and they ſeemed to have been prized equal to jewels in Europe.

The moſt attractive were thoſe called *ooravine*, which grow on the head of the green parroquet; and the natives ſoon became judges competent to diſtinguiſh the ſuperior from the inferior ſorts. Our people endeavoured to impoſe dyed feathers upon them for thoſe of a genuine colour; but all their arts of deception were abortive. The rage for the poſſeſſion of feathers became boundleſs, and they were the wages of proſtitution with females in general; nor did even huſbands ſeem to diſcountenance them in throwing out allurements to our countrymen to obtain poſſeſſion of them. To ſuch a degree of phrenzy did their deſire for this article prevail, that a ſingle little feather was preferred to a bead or a nail; and a very ſmall piece of cloth, cloſely covered with them, was received with a rapture of delight, equal to any that could be excited in the mind of an European on the preſentation of a diamond of the firſt magnitude. Their warriors exchanged their very helmets for red feathers, and the ſailors purchaſed targets innumerable with them.

Their curious and ſingular mourning dreſſes, which formerly had been prized ſo highly, were diſpoſed of when feathers became the objects of barter. Captain Cook preſented one of theſe mourning dreſſes to the Britiſh Muſeum.

The iſlanders alſo, at this time, diſcovered great inclination for baſkets, clubs, and painted cloth; and were exceſſively taken with the mats of Tongataboo, though, in general, they reſemble thoſe of their own manufacture. Our people, however, availed themſelves of this diſpoſition, and impoſed on them, under another name, the very mats they had formerly purchaſed at Otaheite; and they had more ſucceſs in this deception than in the impoſition of dyed feathers.

SECTION VI.

Longevity, Marriages, Religion, Human Sacrifices, particular Cuſtoms, Morais, Burials, Mourning, &c.

NOTWITHSTANDING the damp air to which the inhabitants of Otaheite are inevitably expoſed, and particularly thoſe of the lower claſs, from the conſtruction of their huts, they are, in general, healthy and robuſt; live to an advanced age, without being much incommoded by infirmities; retain their intellectual powers, and preſerve their teeth to the laſt. Monſ. de Bougainville, the French navigator, often referred to, deſcribes an old man, who had no other trait of age, than that venerable one which is imprinted on a fine figure. Silver locks, and a white beard, adorned his

his head. His body was nervous, and his flesh solid. He had neither wrinkles or any other tokens of decrepitude. This man, however, so respectable in appearance, seemed averse to the society of strangers: he was totally regardless of their caresses; and gave no indications of fear, astonishment, or curiosity. Those objects that excited the rapture of the multitude had no charms for him; he accounted them baubles; from which consideration it appeared that his mind was as sound and unimpaired as his body.

The same navigator relates, that his people found upon this island, five or six men of most singular appearance. Their skins were of a dead white, like the nose of a white horse, scurfy, covered with a kind of down, and of a hue that could not admit of being termed complexion. The hair on their heads, eyebrows, and beards, were of the same dead white. They had eyes resembling those of a ferret, and were remarkably near sighted. They were, upon the whole, considered as being of no particular race of mankind; nor did they appear to propagate beings similar to themselves.

Marriages in this island do not come under the cognizance or sanction of the priests, being merely secular contracts, abstracted from any solemn tie or formal ceremony. But if the priests are deprived of the benefits that might result from marriages, if under the list of their functions, they are amply compensated by an exclusive right to perform the ceremony of tattowing, which, being universally adopted, must be very lucrative, and furnish them with all the luxuries of life. The males, in general, undergo a kind of circumcision, which they intimate as done from a principle of cleanliness: however, it is deemed a foul disgrace not to submit to it. The performance of this ceremony is likewise the exclusive right of the priests.

The religion of these islanders appear to be very mysterious; and as the language adapted to it was different from that which was spoken on other occasions, our voyagers were not able to gain much knowledge of it. All the information they could obtain in regard to this particular was, that the natives imagined every thing in the creation to proceed from the conjunction of two persons. One of these (which they consider as the first) they call Taroataihetoomo, and the other Tapapa; and the year which they call Tettowmaratayo, they suppose to be the daughter of these two. They also imagine an inferior sort of deities, known by the name of Eatooas; two of whom, they say, formerly inhabited the earth, and they suppose that the first man and woman descended from them. The Supreme Being they stile "The Causer of Earthquakes;" but more frequently address their prayers to Tane, whom they conceive to be a son of the first progenitors of nature. They believe in the existence of the soul in a separate state; and suppose that there are two situations, differing in the degrees of happiness, which they consider as receptacles for different ranks, but not as places of rewards and punishments. Their notion is, that the chiefs and principal people will have the preference to those of lower ranks. For as to their actions, they cannot conceive them to influence their future state, as they believe the deity takes no cognizance of them.

It had been asserted by Monsr. Bougainville, on the testimony of a native, whom he took with him to France, that human sacrifices constitute a part of the religious ceremonies of the people of Otaheite.

Captain Cook, however, desirous of having farther information concerning so interesting a matter, went to a Morai, or place of worship, (which we shall describe in course) accompanied by Captain Furneaux, of the Adventure, having with them a seaman who spoke the language tolerably well, and several of the natives. Observing in the Morai a kind of bier, with a shed erected over it, on which lay a corpse, and some provisions, enquiry was made if the plaintains were for the Eatooa, or Divinity; and if they sacrificed to him hogs, dogs, fowls, &c. To all this a native replied in the affirmative. On enquiry being made whether they sacrificed men to the Eatooa, the answer was *taato eno*, "bad men;" first *tiparrhy*, beating them till they were dead. When the question was put, If good men were put to death in this manner, the reply was in the negative. Being asked whether Towtows, that is, men of the lowest class, were ever thus sacrificed, if good men, a native replied in the negative, repeating the words *taato eno*, or bad men. It appeared, from what could be gathered upon this occasion, that men, for certain crimes, were condemned to be sacrificed to the Deity, provided they did not possess any property to purchase their redemption. But as more certain information, as well as a view of the ceremony, was obtained by the last mentioned navigators on the voyage following, we are thereby enabled to present our readers with such an account of the ceremony of human sacrifices as we hope will prove satisfactory.

Captain Cook receiving information that a man was to be sacrificed at the great Morai, at Attahooro, where the presence of the king (Otoo) was necessary, requested the liberty to accompany him, and be present at the solemnity. This being readily granted, he set out, attended by some officers and others, and followed by Omai in a canoe.

As soon as they landed at Attahooroo, Otoo desired that the sailors might be ordered to continue in the boat; and that the persons present would take off their hats as soon as they should come to the Morai. To this they immediately proceeded, followed by numbers of men and some boys; but not one woman was present. They found four priests, with their assistants, waiting for them; and on their arrival the ceremonies commenced. The dead body, or sacrifice, was in a small canoe, that lay on the beach fronting the Morai. Two of the priests, with several of their attendants, were sitting by the canoe that lay on the beach; the others at the Morai. The company stopped at the distance of 20 or 30 paces from the priests. Here Otoo placed himself; the European visitors, and a few others, standing by him, while the bulk of the people were removed to a greater distance. The ceremonies now commenced. One of the assistants of the priests brought a young plantain tree, and laid it down before the king. Another approached, bearing a small tuft of red feathers, twisted on some fibres of the cocoa-nut husk, with which he touched one of Otoo's feet, and afterwards retired with it to his companions. One of the priests, who were seated at the Morai, then began a long prayer, and, at particular times, sent down young plantain trees, which were placed upon the sacrifice. During this prayer, one of the natives, who stood by the officiating priest, held in his hands two bundles, in one of which, as was afterwards found, was the royal maro; and the other, if it may be allowed the expression, the ark of the Eatooa. The prayer being finished, the priests at the Morai, with their assistants, went and sat down by those who were upon the beach, carrying the two bundles with them. They here renewed their prayers; during which the plantain-trees were taken, one by one, at various times, from off the dead body, which, being wrapped up in cocoa-leaves and small branches, was now taken out of the canoe, and laid upon the beach. The priests placed themselves round it, some standing, and others sitting; and one or more of them repeated sentences for about ten minutes. The body was now stripped of the leaves and branches, and placed parallel with the sea-shore. Then one of the priests standing at the feet of the corpse, pronounced a long prayer, in which he was joined occasionally by others, each of them holding a tuft of red feathers in his hand. While this prayer was repeating, some hair was pulled off the head of the intended sacrifice, and the left eye was taken out; both which, being wrapped in a green leaf, were presented to the king, who, however, did not touch them, but gave to the man who brought them to him the tuft of red feathers which he had received from

from Towha, who was related to the king, and chief of the diſtrict of Tettaha. This, with the eye and hair, were taken to the prieſts. Not long after this the king ſent them another bunch of feathers.

In the courſe of this laſt ceremony, a king-fiſher making a noiſe, Otoo ſaid to Captain Cook, "That is the Eatooa"; and he ſeemed to conſider it as a favourable prognoſtic. The corpſe was then carried a little way, and laid under a tree, near which were fixed three thin pieces of wood, neatly carved in various figures. The bundles of cloth were placed on a part of the Morai; and the tufts of red feathers were laid at the feet of the dead body, round which the prieſts ſtationed themſelves; and our people were at this time permitted to go as near as they pleaſed. He who ſeemed to be the chief prieſt ſpoke for about a quarter of an hour, with different tones and geſtures; ſometimes appearing to expoſtulate with the deceaſed, at other times aſking ſeveral queſtions; then making various demands, as if the dead body had power himſelf, or intereſt with the deity, to engage him to grant ſuch requeſts; among which, he deſired him particularly to deliver Eimeo, Maheine, its chief, the women, hogs, and other things of the iſland, into their hands; which was, indeed, the expreſs object of the ſacrifice. He then prayed near half an hour, in a whining tone, and two other prieſts joined in the prayer; in the courſe of which one of them plucked ſome more hair from the head of the corpſe, and put it upon one of the bundles. The high prieſt now prayed alone, holding in his hand the feathers received from Towha. Having finiſhed, he gave them to another prieſt, who prayed in like manner: then all the tufts of feathers were placed upon the bundles of cloth, which concluded the ceremony at this place.

The dead body was now carried to the moſt conſpicuous part of the Morai, with the feathers, and the two bundles of cloth, while the drums beat ſlowly. The feathers and bundles were laid againſt a pile of ſtones, and the body at the foot of them. The prieſts, having again ſeated themſelves round the corpſe, renewed their prayers; while ſome of their aſſiſtants dug a hole about the depth of two feet, into which they threw the victim, and covered it over with ſtones and earth. While they were depoſiting the body in the grave, a boy ſqueaked aloud; upon which Omai told the Captain it was the Eatooa. In the mean time, a fire having been made, a lean dog, half ſtarved, was produced, and killed by twiſting the neck. The hair was then ſinged off, and the entrails being taken out, they were thrown into the fire, and left there to be conſumed; but the kidney, heart, and liver, were baked on heated ſtones.

The carcaſe, after having been rubbed over with the blood of the animal, was, with the liver, &c. laid down before the prieſts, who were ſeated round the grave praying. They, for ſome time, uttered ejaculations over the dog, while two men, at intervals, beat very loud on two drums; and a boy ſcreamed in a loud ſhrill voice three times. This, they ſaid, was to invite the Eatooa to feaſt on the banquet that they had prepared for him.

When the prieſts had finiſhed their prayers, the body, heart, liver, &c. of the dog, were placed on a whatta, or ſcaffold, about ſix feet in height, on which lay the remains of two other dogs, and of two pigs, that had been lately ſacrificed. The prieſts and their attendants now gave a ſhout, and this proclaimed the ceremonies ended for the preſent.

The evening being arrived, our people were conducted to a houſe belonging to Patatou, where they were entertained and lodged for the night. Having been informed, that the religious rites were to be renewed the next day, they could not quit the place while any thing remained to be ſeen.

Early in the morning they repaired to the ſcene of action, and ſoon afterwards a pig was ſacrificed, and laid upon the ſame ſcaffold with the others. About eight o'clock Otoo took our party to the Morai, where the prieſts, and a great multitude of people, were by this time aſſembled. The two bundles occupied the place where they had been depoſited the preceding evening; the two drums were in the front of the Morai, and the prieſts were ſtationed beyond them. The king placed himſelf between the drums, and deſired Captain Cook to ſtand by him. The ceremony commenced with bringing a young plantain tree, and laying it at the king's feet. A prayer was then repeated by the prieſts, holding in their hands ſeveral tufts of red, and a plume of oſtrich feathers, which the Commodore had preſented to Otoo on his firſt arrival.

When the prieſts had ended the prayer, they changed their ſtation, and placed themſelves between our party and the Morai. One of them, the ſame who had performed the principal part the preceding day, began another prayer, which continued near half an hour. During the prayer, the tufts of red feathers were put, one by one, upon the ark of the Eatooa. Not long after, four pigs were produced, one of which was killed immediately, and the three others were taken to a neighbouring ſtyle.

One of the bundles was now untied, and it contained the maro with which the natives inveſt their kings. When taken out of the cloth, it was ſpread on the ground at full length, before the prieſts. It is a girdle about fifteen feet in length, and one foot and a quarter in breadth, and is probably put on in the ſame manner as the common maro, or piece of cloth, uſed by theſe iſlanders to wrap round the waiſt. It was ornamented with yellow and red feathers, but principally with the former. One end of it was bordered with eight pieces, about the ſize and figure of a horſe-ſhoe, whoſe edges were fringed with black feathers; the other end was forked, having the points of various lengths. The feathers were ranged in two rows, in ſquare compartments, and produced a pleaſing effect. They had been firſt fixed upon ſome of the cloth of the iſland, and then ſewed to the upper part of the pendant, which Captain Wallis had left flying on ſhore, the firſt time of his arrival at Matavai. The prieſts pronounced a long prayer, relative to this part of the ceremony; and after it was ended, the badge of royalty was folded up with great care, and put into the cloth.

The other bundle, already mentioned, under the name of the ark, was next opened at one end; but our party were not permitted to approach near enough to examine its myſterious contents. The intelligence they obtained reſpecting its contents was, that the Eatooa (or rather what is ſuppoſed to repreſent him) was concealed therein.

This ſacred repoſitory is compoſed of the twiſted fibres of the huſk of the cocoa-nut; and its figure is nearly circular, with one end conſiderably thicker than the other. The pig that had been killed, was by this time cleaned, and its entrails taken out. Theſe happened to have many of thoſe convulſive motions, which frequently appear, in different parts, when an animal is killed; and this was conſidered as a very favourable omen. After having been expoſed for ſome time, the entrails were carried and laid down before the prieſts, one of whom cloſely inſpected them, turning them for this purpoſe gently with a ſtick. Having been ſufficiently examined, they were thrown into the fire. The ſacrificed pig, and its liver, heart, &c. were now put upon the ſcaffold where the dog had been depoſited; and then all the feathers, except the oſtrich plume, being incloſed in the ark, an end was put to the whole ſolemnity.

Four double canoes remained upon the beach all the time, before the place of ſacrifice. A ſmall platform, covered with palm-leaves, faſtened in myſterious knots, was fixed on the fore-part of each of theſe canoes; and this alſo is called a Morai. Some plantains, cocoa-nuts, bread-fruit, fiſh, and other articles, lay upon each of theſe naval Morais. The natives ſaid that they belonged

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Engraved for BANKES's *New System of* GEOGRAPHY *Published by Royal Authority.*

A HUMAN SACRIFICE, *in a* MORAI *in* OTAHEITE.

The Body of TEE *a* CHIEF, *as preserved after* DEATH *in* OTAHEITE.

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belonged to the Eatooa, and that they were to attend the fleet ſent out againſt Eimeo.

The unfortunate victim offered on this occaſion was, to appearance, a middle aged man, and one of the loweſt claſs of the people; but it did not appear that they had fixed upon him on account of his having committed any particular crime that deſerved death. It is certain, however, that they uſually ſelect ſuch guilty perſons for ſacrifices, or elſe vagabonds, who have no viſible way of procuring an honeſt livelihood. Having examined the body of the unhappy ſufferer, now offered up as the object of theſe people's adoration, our party obſerved, that it was bloody about the head, and much bruiſed upon the right temple, which denoted the manner in which he had been killed; and they were informed, that he had been knocked on the head with a ſtone.

The wretches who are devoted on theſe occaſions are never previouſly appriſed of their fate. Whenever any one of the principal chiefs conceives a human ſacrifice neceſſary, on any great emergency, he fixes upon the victim, and then diſpatches ſome of his truſty ſervants, who fall upon him ſuddenly, and either ſtone him to death or beat out his brains with a club. The king is then acquainted with it, whoſe preſence is ſaid to be abſolutely neceſſary at the ſolemn rites that follow; and, indeed, in the late performance, Otoo bore a capital part. The ſolemnity itſelf is called Poore Eree, or the prayer of the chief: and the victim is termed Taata-taboo, or conſecrated man. The Morai, where the late ſacrifice was offered, is always appropriated for the burial of the king of the whole iſland, and likewiſe of his family, and ſome other perſons of diſtinguiſhed rank. It differs little, except in extent, from the common Morais. Its principal part is a large oblong pile of ſtones, about 13 feet in height, and contracted towards the top, with a quadrangular area on each ſide, looſely paved with pebbles, under which the bones of the chiefs are depoſited.

Not far from the end neareſt the ſea, is the place of ſacrifice, where is a very large whatta, or ſcaffold, on which the offerings of fruits, and other vegetables are placed; but the animals are laid on a ſmaller one, and the human ſacrifices are interred under the pavement. There are ſeveral reliques ſcattered about this place; ſuch as ſmall ſtones raiſed in ſeveral parts of the pavement; ſome with bits of cloth faſtened round them; others entirely covered with it; and upon the ſide of the large pile fronting the area are a great number of pieces of carved wood, in which their gods are ſuppoſed to reſide occaſionally.

There is an heap of ſtones at one end of the large ſcaffold, with a ſort of platform on one ſide. On this are depoſited all the ſkulls of the human ſacrifices, which are taken up after they have remained under ground for ſome months. Juſt above them many of the carved pieces of wood are placed; and here the Maro, and the other bundle, ſuppoſed to contain the god Ooro, were laid during the celebration of the late ſolemn rites.

It is probable, that this barbarous cuſtom of offering human ſacrifices prevails in all, or moſt of the iſlands of the Pacific Ocean, however diſtant from each other ſome of them may be. And though it may be ſuppoſed that not more than one perſon is offered at one time, either at Otaheite, or other iſlands, yet theſe occaſions, in all probability occur ſo frequently, as to make a terrible havoc of the human ſpecies; for no leſs than 49 ſkulls of former victims were counted lying before the Moria at Attahooroo; and as none of thoſe ſkulls appeared to have ſuffered any conſiderable change or decay from the weather, it may be inferred, that a ſhort time had elapſed ſince the victims to whom they belonged had been offered.

This horrid practice, though no conſideration whatever can make it ceaſe to be deteſtable, might, perhaps, be thought to be leſs detrimental, in ſome reſpects, if it contributed to impreſs any awe for the deity, or veneration for religion, upon the minds of the ſpectators; but this was far from being the caſe on the late occaſion; for though a vaſt multitude had aſſembled at the Morai, they ſhewed very little reverence for what was tranſacting: and Omai happening to arrive after the ceremonies had begun, many of the iſlanders thronged round him, and were engaged, for the remaining part of the time, in making him recount ſome of his adventures; to which they liſtened with great eagerneſs of attention, regardleſs of the ſolemn offices which their prieſts were then performing. Indeed, the prieſts themſelves, except the one who ſuſtained the principal part, either from their being familiarized to ſuch objects, or from their repoſing no great degree of confidence in the efficacy of their religious inſtitutions, maintained very little of that ſolemnity, ſo neceſſary to give to acts of devotion their proper effect.

Their habit was but an ordinary one; they converſed together with great familiarity; and the only attempt they made to preſerve decorum, was by exerting their authority, to prevent the populace from encroaching on the ſpot, and to ſuffer our party, as ſtrangers, to come forward. They were, however, very candid in the anſwers which they gave to any interrogatories that were put to them, with regard to this inhuman inſtitution. Being aſked, what was the deſign of it? They replied, that it was an ancient cuſtom, and highly pleaſing to their god, who came and fed upon the ſacrifices; in conſequence of which, he granted their petitions. It was then objected, that he certainly did not feed on theſe, as he was neither ſeen to do it, nor were the bodies of the ſacrificed animals ſoon conſumed; and that as to the corpſe of a human victim, they prevented his feeding on that by interring it. In anſwer to theſe objections, they obſerved, that he came in the night, inviſibly, and fed only on the ſoul, or immaterial part, which, (as the people ſay) remains about the place of ſacrifice, till the carcaſe of the victim is wholly waſted by putrefaction.

Human ſacrifices are not the only ſtrange cuſtoms that ſtill prevail among the inhabitants of Otaheite, though, in many reſpects, they have emerged from the brutal manners of ſavage life. Beſides cutting out the jaw bones of their enemies ſlain in battle, which they carry about with them as trophies, they, in ſome meaſure, offer up their bodies to the Eatooa: for after an engagement, in which they have come off victorious, they collect all the dead, and bring them to the Morai, where, with great form and ceremony, they dig a large hole and bury them all in it, as ſo many offerings to their divinities.

They treat in a different manner their own chiefs that fall in battle. A late king, Tootaha, Tubourai Tamaide, and another chief, who were ſlain in an engagement with thoſe of Tiaraboo, were brought to the Morai at Attahooroo; at which place the prieſts cut out their bowels before the great altar; and their dead bodies were afterwards interred in three different places near the great pile of ſtones abovementioned; and the common men who loſt their lives in the battle, were all buried in one hole, at the foot of the ſame pile. This was performed the day after the battle, with much pomp and formality, amidſt a numerous concourſe of people, as a thankſgiving offered to the deity for the victory they had obtained the preceding day. The vanquiſhed, in the mean time, had taken refuge in the mountains, where they remained upwards of a week, till the fury of the victors began to abate. A treaty was then ſet on foot, by which it was agreed, that Otoo ſhould be proclaimed king of the whole iſland; and the ſolemnity of inveſting him with the Maro, or badge of royalty, was performed at the ſame Morai, with great magnificence.

The natives call their places of interment Morais, as they do their places of worſhip. A party of our lateſt voyagers to the iſland ſaw a vaſt building, which they were informed to be the Morai of Oberea. It was one

of the moſt conſiderable pieces of architecture in the iſland. It conſiſted of an enormous pile of ſtone work, raiſed in the form of a pyramid, with a flight of ſteps on each ſide. It was near 270 feet long, about one third as wide, and between 40 and 50 feet high. The foundation conſiſted of rock ſtones, the ſteps were of coral, and the upper part was of round pebbles, all of the ſame ſhape and ſize. The rock and coral ſtones were ſquared with the utmoſt neatneſs and regularity, and the whole building appeared as compact and firm as if it had been erected by the beſt workmen in Europe.

In the centre of the ſummit was the repreſentation of a bird carved in wood, near which was the figure of a fiſh in ſtone. The pyramid conſtituted part of one ſide of a court or ſquare, the ſides of which were nearly equal; notwithſtanding which pavement, ſeveral plantains and trees, which the natives call Etoa, grew within the incloſure. At a ſmall diſtance to the weſtward of this edifice was another paved ſquare, called by the natives Ewattas, which appeared to be altars whereon they placed the offerings of their deities.

They approach theſe Morais with the greateſt awe and reverence; not, as it ſhould ſeem, becauſe they eſteem any thing there ſacred, but becauſe they there worſhip an inviſible being, for whom they entertain the profoundeſt reſpect, although not excited by the hope of reward, or the dread of puniſhment. They hold theſe cemetries, or places of worſhip, ſo venerable, that the chiefs themſelves, and their wives, on paſſing them, take their upper garments from their ſhoulders.

The manner in which they bury their dead, and expreſs their ſorrow for the loſs of relatives and friends departed, is thus deſcribed by the lateſt and moſt intelligent obſervers.

The corpſe was placed in the open air, till the bones became quite dry. A ſhed was erected near the reſidence of the deceaſed; one end was left quite open; the other end and the two ſides were partly incloſed with a ſort of wicker work. The bier was a frame of wood, like that on which the ſeamens beds, called cots, are placed, with a matted bottom, and ſupported by four poſts, at the height of above four feet from the ground.

The body was covered firſt with a mat, and then with white cloth. By the ſide of it lay a wooden mace, one of the implements of war, and near the head of it cocoa-nut ſhells; at the other end a bunch of green leaves with ſome dried twigs, all tied together, were ſtuck in the ground, by which lay a ſtone as big as a cocoa-nut. Near theſe lay one of the young plantain leaves that are uſed for emblems of peace, and cloſe by it a ſtone axe. At the open end of the ſhed alſo hung a great number of palm nuts, in ſeveral ſtrings; and without the ſhed was ſtuck up in the ground, the ſtem of a plantain tree, about ſix feet high, upon the top of which was placed a cocoa-nut ſhell full of freſh water: againſt the ſide of one of theſe poſts hung a ſmall bag containing ſome bread-fruit ready roaſted. The food thus placed by the corpſe, was deſigned as an offering to their deities.

They caſt round about the ſpot where the body is placed ſmall pieces of cloth, on which the tears and blood of the mourners have been ſhed; for in their paroxyſms of grief, it is an univerſal cuſtom to wound themſelves with a ſhark's tooth.

Mr. Banks was ſo deſirous of being preſent at the ceremony of one of their burials, that he agreed to take a part in it, when he was informed that he could not be a ſpectator on any other condition. He went accordingly in the evening to the place where the body was depoſited, where he was met by the relations of the deceaſed, and was afterwards joined by ſeveral other perſons. Tubourai Tamaide, one of their chiefs, was the principal mourner, and his dreſs was whimſical, though not altogether ungraceful. Mr. Banks was obliged to quit his European dreſs, and had no other covering than a ſmall piece of cloth than was tied round his middle; his body was blacked over with charcoal and water, as were the bodies of ſeveral others, and among them ſome females, who were no more covered than himſelf.

The proceſſion then began, and the chief mourner uttered ſome words which were judged to be a prayer, when he approached the body, and he repeated theſe words when he came up to his own houſe. They afterwards went on, by permiſſion, towards the fort. It is uſual for the reſt of the Indians to ſhun theſe proceſſions as much as poſſible; they accordingly ran into the woods in great haſte, as ſoon as this came in view. From the fort the mourners proceeded along the ſhore, croſſed the river, then entered the woods, paſſing ſeveral houſes which became immediately uninhabited; and during the reſt of the proceſſion, which continued for half an hour, not an Indian was viſible.

Mr. Banks filled an office which they call Niniveh, and there were two others in the ſame character. When none of the other natives were to be ſeen, they approached the chief mourner, ſaying, Imatata; then thoſe who had aſſiſted at the ceremony bathed in the river, and reſumed their former dreſs. Such was this uncommon ceremony, in which Mr. Banks performed a principal part, and received applauſe from Tubourai Tamaide, the chief mourner.

What can have introduced among theſe Indians ſo ſtrange a cuſtom as that of expoſing their dead above ground, till the fleſh is conſumed by putrefaction, and then burying the bones, it is difficult to gueſs; nor is it leſs difficult to determine, why the repoſitories of their dead ſhould be alſo places of worſhip.

The mourning that is worn here is an head-dreſs of feathers, the colour of which is conſecrated to death, and a veil over the face. This dreſs is called *Eeva*. The whole country is ſaid to appear thus on the death of their king. The mourning for fathers is very long. The women mourn for their huſbands; but not the huſbands for their wives.

Having ſelected the moſt authentic accounts we could poſſibly procure of the preſent ſtate of Otaheite, the people, cuſtoms, manners, language and arts, as reſpectively arranged in the foregoing ſections, we have only to add ſome concluſive remarks that may tend to the advantage of other Britiſh navigators, who may hereafter viſit that part of the world.

As the iſland produces no commodities that can be converted to the purpoſe of traffic, the main, and indeed only, benefit that can accrue from a knowledge of it is the ſupplying of ſhips with refreſhments in paſſing through the South Seas: it is obſerved by the moſt intelligent and ſpeculative navigators, that it might be rendered competently ſubſervient to that deſirable purpoſe, as ſuch European productions, both animal and vegetable, as are conducive to the ſame, might be abundantly cultivated in ſo fertile a ſpot.

CHAP. IX.

THE various diſcoveries that have been made, and incidents that have occurred, during the courſe of the different times at which Captain Cook has viſited this part of the globe, afford a moſt pleaſing and entertaining narrative, particularly the laſt, as Captain Cook then returned with Omai, from whoſe interpretation much knowledge was derived. Therefore, as it is our intention to blend amuſement with information, we ſhall preſent our readers with a minute account of the reception he met with from theſe hoſpitable people, and every tranſaction worthy of record, in his firſt, ſecond, and third and laſt voyage.

SECTION I.

FIRST VOYAGE.

Arrival of the Endeavour at Otaheite. Rules for eſtabliſhing commerce with the natives. Various incidents. Fort erected. Viſits from divers chiefs. Interview with Oberea, ſuppoſed queen of the Iſland. Remarkable ceremony. Divine ſervice performed at the Engliſh fort, and attended by the natives. Celebration of his Majeſty's birth-day attended by ſeveral Indian chiefs. Two marines deſert, but one brought back. Account of Tupia, a native, who accompanied our navigators on their voyage. Departure from the iſland.

CAPTAIN COOK, in the Endeavour, arrived at Otaheite, or King George the Third's Iſland, the ſpot of our conſideration, and anchored in Port Royal harbour, called by the natives Matavai, on the 13th of April 1769. Many of the inhabitants came off immediately in their canoes, and brought with them divers eatable commodities heretofore ſpecified, which they bartered for beads and other articles with the ſhip's company.

The moſt reſpectable in appearance of thoſe who came on board was an elderly man, named Owhaw, known to ſeveral officers who had viſited this iſland with Captain Wallis. Owhaw being conſidered as a very uſeful man, the officers and others on the preſent occaſion ſtudied to pleaſe him, and to gratify all his wiſhes. As their continuance on the iſland was not likely to be very ſhort, certain rules were drawn up to be obſerved by every perſon on board his majeſty's bark the Endeavour, for the better eſtabliſhing a regular trade with the natives.

The ſubſtance of theſe rules were, "That in order to prevent quarrels and confuſion, every one of the ſhip's crew ſhould endeavour to treat the inhabitants of Otaheite with humanity, and, by all fair means to cultivate a friendſhip with them. That no officer, ſeaman, or other perſon, belonging to the ſhip, excepting ſuch only who were appointed to barter with the natives, ſhould trade, or offer to trade, for any kinds of proviſion, fruit, or other produce of the iſland, without having expreſs leave ſo to do. That no perſon ſhould embezzle, trade, or offer to trade, with any part of the ſhip's ſtores; and, that no ſort of iron, or any thing made of iron, nor any ſort of cloth, or other uſeful articles in the ſhip, ſhould be given in exchange for any thing but proviſions.

Theſe neceſſary rules were ſigned by the Commander, and, being his orders, to the non-obſervance of them were annexed certain penalties, beſides the puniſhment according to the uſual cuſtom of the navy.

The veſſel being brought to her moorings, the commander, Mr. Banks, and Dr. Solander, went on ſhore, with a party under arms, and their friend the old Indian. They were received by ſome hundreds of the natives with awe and reverence, who exchanged the tokens of peace, and offered to conduct them to a ſpot of ground which would be more convenient for them to occupy than that where they had landed. On their way, the Engliſh made the Indians ſome preſents, which the latter very thankfully received. They now took a circuit of about four miles through the groves of the bread-fruit and coco-trees. Intermingled with theſe were the dwellings of the natives, which conſiſted of huts without walls. In the courſe of their journey they found but few fowls or hogs, and underſtood that none of their conductors, or any of the people they had hitherto ſeen, were perſons of rank in the iſland. Thoſe of their own crew who had before been at Otaheite in the Dolphin, were likewiſe of opinion, that the queen's reſidence had been removed, as no traces of it were now to be diſcovered.

Early next morning, ſeveral canoes ſurrounded the veſſel, in two of which were many perſons, whoſe dreſs and deportment denoted them to be of a ſuperior claſs. Two of theſe came on board, and each of them fixed upon a friend; one of them choſe Mr. Banks, and the other Captain Cook. They then made ſigns for their new friends to go with them to the places of their abode; and the latter being deſirous of becoming acquainted with the people, and finding out a more convenient harbour, accepted the invitation, and went with them, accompanied by Mr. Banks, Dr. Solander and others. They landed in two boats at about the diſtance of three miles, among a great number of the natives, who conducted them to a large habitation, where they were introduced to a middle aged man, named Tootahah. When they were ſeated, he preſented Mr. Banks a cock, a hen, and a piece of perfumed cloth, which compliment was returned by a preſent. They were then conducted to ſeveral other large dwellings, wherein they walked about with great freedom. The ladies, ſo far from ſhunning, invited, and even preſſed, them to be ſeated. By frequently pointing to the mats upon the ground and other indications, they had no doubt of their being leſs jealous of obſervation than they were.

Directing their courſe along the ſhore, they met, accompanied with a great number of natives, another chief named Tubouri Tamaide, with whom they ſettled a treaty of peace, in the manner before deſcribed. This chief gave them to underſtand, he had proviſions at their ſervice if they choſe to eat, which he produced, and they dined heartily upon the bread-fruit, plantain and fiſh. A proper ſpot was then fixed upon by the commander, with the concurrence of Mr. Banks and others, to erect a fort for their defence, during their ſtay on the iſland, and the ground was accordingly marked out for the purpoſe; a great number of the natives looking on all the while, and behaving in the moſt peaceable and friendly manner.

As they had ſeen no poultry, and but a few hogs, they ſuſpected that they had been driven up the country; for which reaſon they determined to penetrate into the woods, the tent being guarded by a petty officer and a party of marines. On this excurſion ſeveral of the natives accompanied the Engliſh. While the party were on their march they were alarmed by the diſcharge of two pieces fired by the guard of the tent. Owhaw having now called together the captain's party, diſperſed all the Indians, except three, who, in token

of their fidelity, broke branches of trees, according to their cuſtoms.

On their return to the tent, they found that an Indian having ſnatched away one of the centinel's muſquets, a young midſhipman, who commanded the party, was ſo imprudent as to give the marines orders to fire, which were obeyed; but this did not ſatisfy them, as the offender had not fallen; they therefore purſued him, and revenged the theft by his death. They were afterwards informed that none of the others were either killed or wounded.

Next morning, obſerving but few of the natives on the banks, and none come on board, it was concluded that the treatment they had received the former day was not yet forgotten; and the Engliſh were confirmed in this opinion by Owhaw's having left them. In conſequence of theſe appearances, the captain brought the ſhip nearer to the ſhore, and moored her in ſuch a manner as to make her broad-ſide bear on the ſpot which they had marked out for erecting their little fortification. But in the evening the reſentment of the natives ſeem to have ſubſided.

The day following died Mr. Buchan a gentleman whom Mr. Banks had brought out as painter of landſcapes and figures. He was regretted as a ſober, diligent, and ingenious man, and one capable of gratifying his friends in England with repreſentations of this country and its inhabitants, which no other perſon on board could delineate with the ſame accuracy and elegance.

Soon after Mr. Banks received a viſit from Tubourai Tamaide who brought with him his wife and family, with the materials for erecting a houſe, intending to build it near the fort. He afterwards aſked that gentleman to accompany him to the woods. On their arrival at a place where he ſometimes reſided, he preſented his gueſt with two garments, one of which was of red cloth, and the other was made of fine matting. Having thus clothed Mr. Banks, he conducted him to the tent, and ſtaid to dinner with his wife and ſon.

They had a diſh ſerved up that day, which was prepared by the attendants of Tubourai Tamaide, which ſeemed like wheat flour, and being mixed with cocoa-nut liquor, it was ſtirred about till it became a jelly. Its flavour was ſomething like blanc mange. A ſort of market was eſtabliſhed without the lines of the fort, which was tolerably well ſupplied; and Tubourai Tamaide was a frequent gueſt to Mr. Banks and the other Engliſh gentlemen. He was the only native who attempted to uſe a knife and fork, being fond of adopting European manners.

Several of the natives brought their axes to grind and repair, moſt of which they had obtained from Captain Wallis and his people in the Dolphin; but a French one occaſioned a little ſpeculation; and at length, upon enquiry, it appeared to have been left here by M. de Bougainville.

The reſidence of our people on ſhore would have been by no means diſagreeable, had they not been inceſſantly tormented by flies. This inconvenience prevented the parties from working.

A ſhort time after Tubourai Tarmaide came to complain, that the ſhip's butcher had threatened to cut his wife's throat becauſe ſhe would not barter a ſtone hatchet for a nail. It appearing clearly that the offender had infringed on one of the rules enjoined by the captain for trading with the natives, he was flogged on boad in their ſight. When the firſt ſtroke had been given, they were humane enough to interpoſe, and entreated earneſtly that the culprit might be untied; but when this favour was denied them, they ſhewed ſtrong ſigns of concern, and burſt into tears and exclamations.

Tubourai Tamaide having been ſeverely reprimanded by Mr. Banks for having ſuddenly ſeized a gun from his hand, cocking and obſerving the trigger thought it only flatted in the pan, Terapo, one of his female attendants, came down to the fort in the greateſt affliction, the tears guſhing from her eyes. Mr. Banks, ſeeing her full of lamentation and ſorrow, inſiſted upon knowing the cauſe, but inſtead of anſwering, ſhe ſtruck herſelf ſeveral times with a ſhark's tooth upon her head, till an effuſion of blood followed, while her diſtreſs was diſregarded by ſeveral other Indians, who continued laughing and talking with the utmoſt unconcern. After this ſhe gathered up ſome pieces of cloth, which ſhe had thrown down to catch the blood, and threw them into the ſea, as if ſhe wiſhed to prevent the leaſt trace or mark of her abſurd behaviour. She then bathed in the river, and with remarkable cheerfulneſs returned to the tent as if nothing extraordinary had happened.

Oberea was again brought forward, being obſerved at Mr. Banks's tent by the maſter of the Endeavour, who declared her to be the perſon that, when he was here with captain Wallis in the Dolphin, was imagined to be queen of the iſland.

The eyes of every one were now fixed on her, of whom ſo much had been ſaid by the crew of the Dolphin, and in the account given of her by the captain. With regard to her perſon, ſhe was tall and robuſt, about forty years of age, her ſkin white, and her eyes had great expreſſion in them: ſhe had been handſome, but her beauty was now upon the decline. When her rank was known, an offer was made to conduct her on board the ſhip, which ſhe accepted. Many preſents were made her, particularly a child's doll, which had captivated her fancy. Captain Cook accompanying her on ſhore, they met Tootahah, who, though not king, ſeemed to be at this time inveſted with ſovereign authority. As envy is found among thoſe who are ſuppoſed to be the children of ſimple nature, Tootahah no ſooner ſaw the doll than he diſcovered ſtrong ſymptoms of jealouſy, nor could any method be found of conciliating his friendſhip, but that of complimenting him with another. A doll was now preferable to a hatchet; but a very ſhort time taught the Indians the ſuperior value of iron, which, on account of its uſefulneſs, prevailed over every other conſideration.

Oberea had a huſband named Oamo, but they had been long ſeparated by mutual conſent, after ſhe had brought him a ſon and daughter. The boy, whoſe name was Terridini, was ſaid to have been heir to the ſovereignty of the iſland, but further information has pointed this out to be an error. He was probably lord of the diſtrict where they reſided.

One morning Tomio, wife of Tubourai Tamaide, came in great haſte to the tent, and taking Mr. Banks by the arm told him, that her huſband was dying, owing to ſomewhat that had been given him by our people, and entreated him inſtantly to go to him. He accordingly went, and found the Indian very ſick. He had been vomiting, and had thrown up a leaf, which they ſaid contained poiſon. Mr. Banks, having examined the leaf, found it was nothing but tobacco, which the chief had begged of ſome of the ſhip's company.

Tubourai Tamaide really concluded, from the violent ſickneſs he ſuffered, that he had ſwallowed ſome deadly drug, the terror of which, no doubt, contributed to make him yet more ſick. While Mr. Banks was examining the leaf, he looked up to him as if he had been juſt at the point of death. Mr. Banks, being ſoon maſter of his diſeaſe, only ordered him to drink of cocoa-nut milk, which ſoon reſtored him to health, and he was as chearful as before the accident happened. Theſe people ſeemed in particular inſtances to be ſometimes ſtrangely afflicted from ſlight cauſes.

Captain Cook having produced an iron adze, which was made in imitation of the ſtone ones uſed by the natives, ſhewed it to Tootahah, as a curioſity. The latter ſnatched it up with the greateſt eagerneſs, and earneſtly requeſted that he might have it; and though he was offered the choice of any of the articles in the cheſts which were opened before him, yet he would not accept of any thing in its ſtead.

Upon this firſt viſit of Captain Cook, an uncommon ceremony was preſented to view. As Mr. Banks was ſitting in his boat, trading with the natives as uſual, ſome women, who were ſtrangers, advanced in proceſſion towards him. The reſt of the Indians on each ſide gave way and formed a lane for the viſitors to paſs, who, coming up to Mr. Banks, preſented him with ſome parrots' feathers, and various kinds of plants. Tupia, who ſtood by Mr. Banks, acted as his maſter of the ceremonies, and receiving the branches, which were brought at ſix different times laid them down in the boat. After this ſome large bundles of cloth were brought, conſiſting of nine pieces, which, being divided into three parcels, one of the women, called Oorattooa, who appeared to be the principal, ſtepping upon one of them, took up her garments, and then, with an air of unaffected innocence and ſimplicity turned round three times. This ceremony ſhe repeated, with ſimilar circumſtances, on the other two parcels of cloth; and the whole being then preſented to Mr. Banks, the women went and ſaluted him; in return for which extraordinary favours he made them ſuch preſents as he thought would be moſt acceptable. In the evening the gentlemen of the fort were viſited by Oberea, and Otheorea, her favourite female attendant, who was a very agreable girl, and whom they were the more pleaſed to ſee, becauſe it had been reported that ſhe was either ſick or dead.

This ceremony at firſt may have the appearance of indecency, but when it is obſerved that it is a ſtate cuſtom, it muſt tend, in ſome degree, to obviate all cenſure.

The commodore having directed that divine ſervice ſhould be performed on Sundays, the Engliſh officers were deſirous that ſome of the principal natives ſhould be preſent; but before the time fixed on for beginning the ſervice arrived, moſt of them were gone home. Tubourai Tamaide and his wife were preſent, but though they behaved with much decency, they made no enquiries with reſpect to the ceremonies, and their brethren were as little inquiſitive upon their return.

The day thus began by the Engliſh was concluded in a very different manner by the natives, who, in every inſtance, indulged that licentious diſpoſition for which they are ſo remarkable.

Captain Cook, Mr. Banks, and Dr. Solander, had determined on a viſit to Tootahah, but as he had removed to a place almoſt ſix miles from his former reſidence, it was almoſt evening before they arrived. They found the chief, as uſual, ſitting under a tree with a great crowd about him. Having made their preſents in due form, conſiſting of a yellow ſtuff petticoat, and other trifling articles, they were invited to ſupper, and to paſs the night there. The party conſiſted of ſix only; but the place was crouded with a greater number than the houſes and canoes could contain. Among other gueſts were Oberea with her train of attendants. Mr. Banks having accepted a place in Oberea's canoe, left his companions in order to retire to reſt. Oberea had the charge of his cloths; but notwithſtanding her care they were ſtolen, as were alſo his piſtols, his powder-horn, and ſeveral other things out of his pockets. An alarm was given to Tootahah, in the next canoe, who went with Oberea in ſearch of the thief, leaving Mr. Banks with only his breeches and waiſtcoat on. They ſoon returned, but without ſucceſs. Mr. Banks thought proper to put up with the loſs at preſent, and retired a ſecond time to reſt; but juſt as he had compoſed himſelf to ſleep, he was roufed by ſome muſic, and obſerved lights at a ſmall diſtance from the ſhore. He then aroſe to go and find his companions. As ſoon as he approached the lights he found the hut where Captain Cook and three other of the gentlemen lay, when he began to relate his misfortune to them: they told him in return, that they had loſt their ſtockings and jackets. In ſhort, Dr. Solander, who joined them the next morning, was the only one that eſcaped being robbed.

Their cloths, and the other things which had been ſtolen, were never heard of after; but Mr. Banks got ſome clothes of Oberea, in which he made a whimſical appearance.

The neceſſary preparations being made, the parties that were ſent out to make their obſervations on the Tranſit of Venus, for which the voyage was undertaken, had good ſucceſs, though they differed a little in their accounts of the contact.

On the celebration of his majeſty's birth-day ſeveral of the Indian chiefs partook of the entertainment, and in turn drank his majeſty's health by the name of Kihargo, the neareſt imitation they could produce of King George.

A ſhort time before the departure of the Endeavour, two young marines one night withdrew themſelves from the fort, and in the morning were not to be met with. Notice having been given the next day that the ſhip would ſail that or the enſuing day, as they did not return, Captain Cook began to imagine that they deſigned to remain on ſhore; but as he knew, in ſuch a caſe, no effectual means could be taken to recover them without running a riſque of deſtroying the harmony ſubſiſting between the Engliſh and the natives, he reſolved to wait a day, in hopes of their returning of their own accord. But as (after the expiration of that time) they were ſtill miſſing, inquiry was made after them, when the Indians declared, that they did not purpoſe to return, having taken refuge among the mountains, where it was impoſſible for them to be diſcovered; and added that each of them had taken a wife. In conſequence of this it was intimated to ſeveral of the chiefs that were in the fort with the women, among whom were Tubourai Tamaide, Tomio, and Oberea, that they would not be ſuffered to quit it till the deſerters were produced. They did not ſhew any ſigns of fear or diſcontent, but aſſured the captain that the marines ſhould be ſent back. In the mean time an officer was diſpatched in the pinnace to bring Tootahah on board the ſhip, and he executed his commiſſion without giving any alarm. Night coming on, captain Cook thought it not prudent to let the people, whom he had detained as hoſtages, remain at the fort; he therefore gave orders to remove them on board, which greatly alarmed them all, eſpecially the females, who teſtified the moſt gloomy apprehenſions by floods of tears. Captain Cook eſcorted Oberea and others to the ſhip; but Mr. Banks remained on ſhore with ſome Indians, whom he thought it of leſs importance to detain.

In the evening one of the marines was brought back by ſome of the natives, who reported, that the other, and two of our men who went to recover them, would be detained while Tootahah was confined. Upon this the officer was immediately ſent off in the long boat, with a ſtrong body of men, to reſcue the priſoners: at the ſame time the captain told Tootahah, that it was incumbent on him to aſſiſt them with ſome of his people, and to give orders, in his name, that the men ſhould be ſet at liberty; for that he would be expected to anſwer for the event. Tootahah immediately complied, and this treaty releaſed the men without the leaſt oppoſition.

At length they returned, but without the arms that had been taken from them when they were made priſoners; theſe, however, being reſtored ſoon after, the chiefs on board were allowed to return, and thoſe who had been detained on ſhore were alſo ſet at liberty. On examining the deſerters it appeared, that the Indians had told the truth, they having choſen two girls, with whom they would have remained in the iſland.

Among the natives who were moſtly with the European viſitors was Tupia, whoſe name as been often mentioned. He had been miniſter of Oberea when in the height of her power, which was now conſiderably on the decline. He was alſo the chief Tahowa, or prieſt of the iſland, and conſequently well acquainted with the religion of his country, as well as of its ceremo-

monies as principles; to which he had added a knowledge of navigation, and an acquaintance of the number and ſituation of the neighbouring iſlands.

As the ſhip was about to depart, Tupia expreſſed a deſire to go with his European friends, who, thinking he would be uſeful to them, in many particulars, from his intelligence and accompliſhments, his requeſt was readily complied with. Tupia then went on ſhore for the laſt time to bid a farewell to his friends, to whom he gave ſeveral preſents, as parting tokens of remembrance.

Mr. Banks being willing to obtain a drawing of the Morai, which Tootahah had in his poſſeſſion at Eparre his chief reſidence, Captain Cook accompanied him thither, together with Dr. Solander. They immediately, upon landing, repaired to Tootahah's houſe, where they were met by Oberea and ſeveral others. A general good underſtanding prevailed. Tupia came back with them, and they promiſed to viſit their European friends early the next day, as they were told the ſhip would then ſail.

Theſe friendly people accordingly came very early on board, and the ſhip was ſurrounded with a vaſt number of canoes, filled with Indians of the lower ſort. Between eleven and twelve they weighed anchor; notwithſtanding all the little miſunderſtandings between the Engliſh and the natives, the latter, who poſſeſſed a great fund of good nature, and much ſenſibility, took their leave, weeping, in an affectionate manner. As to Tupia, he ſupported himſelf through this ſcene with a becoming fortitude. Tears flowed from his eyes, it is true, but the effort that he made to conceal them did him additional honour. He went with Mr. Banks to the maſt-head, and waving his hand to the canoes, as long as they continued in ſight, took a laſt farewell of his country. Thus our voyagers left Otaheite, having continued there exactly three months.

SECTION II.

SECOND VOYAGE.

The Reſolution and Adventure arrive at Otaheite; are in a critical ſituation. Tranſactions while they lay in Oaitipiha Bay, alſo at Matavia Bay. State of Agriculture in the country. Curious incidents. Embarkation of Omai on board the Adventure, Captain Furneaux. State of Otaheite when our navigators left it on a ſecond voyage.

CAPTAIN COOK ſailed on his ſecond voyage in the Reſolution, having under his command the Adventure, Captain Furneaux. The former, as ſoon as he was in ſight of Otaheite, came to and waited for the Adventure to come up with him, in order that the two ſhips might put into Oaitipiha bay to procure refreſhments before they ſhould anchor in Matavia bay.

When the Adventure came up, they made ſail; the breeze ſoon began to fail them, which, being ſucceeded by a dead calm, they hoiſted their boats out to tow the ſhip off from a tremendous rock which they were approaching. But the impetuoſity of the tide rendered their utmoſt efforts ineffectual. The ſhip ſtruck at every fall of the ſea, and ſuch a dreadful ſurf broke under her ſtern as threatened momentary deſtruction, while all the horrors of ſhipwreck ſtared them in the face. The Adventure, however, very fortunately, brought up cloſe upon the bow of the Reſolution without ſtriking.

At length a ſlight breeze came off from the land, and the tide ceaſed to act ſo powerfully as before; ſo that Captain Cook, at length, with the greateſt pains, as well as exertion of unequalled ſkill, got her off, to the greateſt joy of the crew, after narrowly eſcaping being wrecked on the very iſland, they had but a few days before ſo ardently wiſhed to be at. The commodore had given orders to all the boats to aſſiſt the Adventure; but before they reached her ſhe was under ſail.

During the time they were in this perilous ſituation, a number of the natives were on board, and about the ſhips. They ſeemed inſenſible of danger, diſcovering not the leaſt ſurpriſe, joy or fear, even while the veſſel was ſtriking, and quitted it a little before ſun-ſet without concern.

The next morning the ſhip anchored in Oatipiha Bay. It was evening before any inquiry was made by the natives of Tupia; and when they heard of his death, and the cauſe of it, they did not ſeem to regret his loſs. Several people aſked for Mr. Banks, and other people who were at Otaheite with Captain Cook before. Our officers were informed by theſe people, that there had been a battle fought between the two kingdoms; that Toutaha, the regent of the greater peninſula, was ſlain, and that Otoo reigned in his ſtead.

In this battle fell Tubourai Tamaide. A peace was now eſtabliſhed between the two kingdoms. The commodore receiving intelligence that Waheatow was come into the neighbourhood and wiſhed to ſee him; he accordingly went, in company with captain Furneaux. About a mile from the landing place they met the chief, advancing to meet them with a numerous train. When the prince perceived the company he halted. He knew Captain Cook very well, as they had ſeen each other ſeveral times in 1769. He went at that time by the name of Terace, and took his father's name at his death. They found him ſitting on a ſtool; and as ſoon as the uſual ſalutation was over, he ſeated Captain Cook on the ſame ſtool with himſelf; the reſt ſat on the ground. He enquired after ſeveral who had been on the former voyage, and ſeemed ſorry when told they muſt ſail the next day; offering the captain, if he would ſtay, hogs in plenty. Captain Cook made him many preſents, and ſtaid with him till morning.

The ſick people on board the Adventure got much relief from the fruits they procured here. Many of them had been ſo ill as not to be able to move without aſſiſtance.

Early in the morning they put to ſea, and were accompanied by ſeveral canoes, who brought cargoes of fruit for ſale, which they diſpoſed of.

When they arrived at Matavia Bay, the decks were crowded with natives before they could get to anchor; almoſt all of them were acquainted with Captain Cook. Otoo, their king, and a great crowd were got together on the ſhore. Captain Cook was going on ſhore to pay him a viſit, but was told he was gone to Oparee in a fright; which ſeemed very extraordinary to the captain, as all others were much pleaſed to ſee him. Maritata, a chief, was on board, and adviſed the captain to defer his viſit till next morning. The captain then ſet out for Oparee, after having given directions to fetch tents for the reception of the ſick, &c. attended by Captain Furneaux, Maritata and his wife, and ſome others. They were conducted to Otoo as ſoon as they landed, who ſat on the ground, under a ſhady tree, with a great number of people round him. Captain Cook made him ſeveral preſents. After the uſual compliments had paſſed, his Otaheitan majeſty thought proper to depart, and was entertained as he went with bagpipes and the ſeamen dancing. Some of his people danced alſo, in imitation of the ſeamen, and performed their parts tolerably well.

Next day the king, Otoo, came to pay his European friends a viſit, attended by a numerous train; he ſent before him two large fiſh, ſome hogs, fruit, and a large quantity of cloth. After much perſuaſion he came on board himſelf, accompanied by his ſiſters, a younger brother, &c. with many attendants, who all received preſents; and when they had breakfaſted, carried them home to Oparee. Upon landing, an old lady, the mother of Toutaha, met Captain Cook, ſeized him by both hands, and, weeping bitterly, told him that her ſon

ſon and his friend Toutaha were dead. Had not the king taken her from Captain Cook he muſt have joined her lamentations.

The commander took a trip to Oparee, early in the morning, attended by ſome officers and gentlemen, and made the king ſuch preſents as he had not before ſeen; one of them was a broad ſword; at the ſight of which he was very much intimidated, and deſired it might be taken out of his ſight. With much perſuaſion, he was prevailed upon to ſuffer it to be put on his ſide, where it remained a very ſhort time. They received an invitation to the theatre, where they were entertained with a dramatic piece, conſiſting of comedy and dance. The ſubject they could not well find out; though they heard frequent mention of Captain Cook's name during the performance.

When this diverſion was over, the king deſired his gueſts to depart, and loaded them with fruit and fiſh. He ſent more fruit and fiſh the next morning. Captain Furneux gave the king a male and female goat. Captain Cook preſented him with three Cape ſheep, as it was his laſt viſit. With this preſent he was well pleaſed, though he had not much reaſon to be ſo, as they were all wethers; this he was made acquainted with. Toutaha's mother again preſented herſelf to Captain Cook; but could not look upon him without ſhedding many tears.

They determined to leave the iſland, and the king ſeemed much affected when Captain Cook told him of his reſolution. They embraced each other ſeveral times and departed.

When the lieutenant returned, who had been ſent for the hogs promiſed, there came with him Pottatou (the chief of the diſtrict of Attahounou), with his wife, to pay Captain Cook a viſit, and made him a preſent of two hogs and ſome fiſh. The lieutenant got likewiſe two more hogs. As the wind was weſterly, they were obliged to diſmiſs their friends ſooner than they wiſhed; but they were very well ſatisfied with their reception.

Captain Wallis had planted ſeveral ſorts of garden ſeed, and divers kinds of fruits, of which there were no remains when Captain Cook left the iſland on the former voyage. On his arrival in 1773, he found none of the various ſeeds that had been ſown by Europeans had ſucceeded except pumpkins, and for theſe the natives had not, as may be well ſuppoſed, the leaſt eſteem.

During the ſhip's ſtay at the iſland of Otaheite, Tervah, a ſenſible old chief, invited two of the gentlemen into his canoe, in which they accompanied him and his wife to the place of their reſidence. In their paſſage the old man aſked a variety of queſtions relative to the nature and conſtitution of the country, from whence theſe wonderful ſtrangers came. He concluded that Mr. Banks, whom he had ſeen a few years before, could be no leſs than the king's brother, and that Captain Cook was high admiral. The information that was given him was received with the greateſt marks of ſurpriſe and attention; but when he was told, that in England there were neither bread-fruit nor cocoa-nut trees, he ſeemed to think but meanly of it after all its other advantages were circumſtantially enumerated.

A ſhort time before the ſhip got under ſail, a young man, whoſe name was Pores, came on board the Reſolution, and requeſted the commander to take him with him, which, as it was apprehended he might be of occaſional ſervice, was complied with. Many others offered themſelves but were refuſed. The only terms propoſed by this youth were an axe and a ſpike nail for his father, who was then on board. He had them accordingly, and they parted juſt as the veſſel was getting under ſail, without the leaſt apparent natural affection. This raiſed a doubt as to their conſanguinity; which was confirmed by a canoe conducted by two more coming along ſide, as they were ſtanding out of the bay, and demanding the young man in the name of Otoo.

It now appeared that the whole was a trick, deſigned to anſwer mercenary purpoſes; as the king was not in the neighbourhood, and muſt be ignorant of the matter. Pores, however, ſeemed at firſt undetermined whether he ſhould go or ſtay, but ſoon inclined to the former. The commodore then declared, if they would return the axe and ſpike nail, he ſhould go; but they aſſured him they were on ſhore, and then departed. The youth, at laſt, ſeemed pretty well ſatisfied, but could not refrain from tears, when he turned his back on his native country.

An Iriſh ſailor, who had ſettled a plan of eſcape with ſome of the natives, ſlipt overboard with great ſecrecy, juſt as the Reſolution was getting under way, and being a good ſwimmer, made towards the ſhore; but he was diſcovered, purſued, and brought back. This man had been a ſailor in the Dutch ſervice, and Captain Cook had taken him on board the Endeavour, at Batavia, in his former voyage in 1774. It ſeems he had neither friends nor relations to attach him to any particular part of the world; therefore his wiſh to make this ſpot his reſidence was not very ſurpriſing; though it is highly probable, that, if he had ſucceeded in his attempt, having been long accuſtomed to an active life; the inſipid uniformity of that for which he had changed it would have become intolerable.

In the year 1767 and 1768, the iſland of Otaheite, as it were, ſwarmed with hogs and fowls; but at this time it was ſo ill ſupplied with theſe animals, that hardly any thing would tempt the owners to part with them; and the little ſtock they had ſeemed to be at the diſpoſal of their kings. When the veſſels lay at Oatapiha Bay, in the kingdom of Tiarrabou, or leſſer Peninſula, our people were given to underſtand that every hog and fowl belonged to Waheatoua; and that all the kingdom of Opoureonu, or the greater Peninſula, belonged to Otoo. While at this iſland they got only 24 hogs in 17 days: half of which came from the kings themſelves, and the other half, they were inclined to think, were ſold by their permiſſion.

They attributed the ſcarcity of hogs to two cauſes; firſt, to the great number of theſe animals which had been conſumed, and carried away for ſtock, by the ſhips that had touched here of late years; ſecondly, to the frequent wars between the two kingdoms. Two, they knew, had commenced ſince the year 1767; but now peace reigned among them, though they did not ſeem to entertain a cordial friendſhip for each other. Our people could not learn the occaſion of the late war, nor who were victorious in the conflict; but they learnt, that in the laſt battle which terminated the diſpute, numbers were killed on both ſides. On the part of Opoureonu, Toutaha, their very good friend, was killed, and ſeveral other chiefs.

Such was the preſent ſtate of Otaheite, but the other iſlands, that is, Huaheine, Ulietea, and Otaha, which will be treated on in ſucceſſion, appeared in a more flouriſhing condition than they were when firſt viſited; ſince which, having enjoyed the bleſſings of peace, the people poſſeſs not only the neceſſaries, but many of the luxuries of life in great profuſion.

Captain Furneaux, in September 1773, agreed to receive on board his ſhip a young man, named Omai, a native of Ulietea or Raietea, one of the Society Iſlands, where he had ſome property of which he was diſpoſſeſſed by the people of Bolabola. The two ſhips ſeparating in a ſtorm, a few months afterwards, the voyage of the Adventure was brought to a much earlier concluſion than that of the Reſolution; for ſhe arrived at Spithead in July following.

Captain Cook at firſt did not think Omai a proper perſon to bring to England; but, upon his arrival, was convinced of his error, and had the candor to acknowledge, that he much doubted whether any others of the natives would have given more general ſatisfaction by his behaviour amongſt our people; being of opinion, that the qualities of his head and heart did honour to human nature. He is deſcribed as poſſeſſing a good under-

underſtanding, quick parts, and honeſt principles, which rendered him acceptable to the beſt company, and a proper degree of pride, which induced him to avoid the company of perſons of inferior rank; and that though, doubtleſs, he had paſſions, in common with others of the ſame age, as having judgment enough not to indulge them to an exceſs. His principal patrons whilſt in England were the earl of Sandwich, Mr. Banks and Dr. Solander. His noble patron, then firſt lord of the admiralty, introduced him to his majeſty at Kew, and during his ſtay in England he was careſſed by many of the principle nobility. He naturally imitated that eaſy and elegant politeneſs, which is prevalent among the great, and which is one of the ornaments of civilized ſociety. Indeed, he adopted the manners, the occupations and amuſements of his companions in general, and gave many proofs of a quick perception, and a lively fancy.

It was remarked, however, that though Omai lived in the midſt of amuſements during his reſidence in England, his return to his native country was always in his thoughts, and though he was not impatient to go, he expreſſed a ſatisfaction as the time of his return approached. After a ſtay of two years, and having been inoculated for the ſmall pox, he embarked with Captain Cook on board the Reſolution, when he was fitted out for another voyage, loaded with preſents from his ſeveral friends, and duly grateful for the kind reception and treatment he had experienced in this country.

Such is the very candid and liberal account of this extraordinary Indian, reflecting his conduct and behaviour whilſt in England. We cannot, therefore, but expreſs concern on a review of ſome tranſactions at his return to his native country, which indicated a degeneracy from the principles he was ſaid to poſſeſs.

SECTION III.

THIRD VOYAGE.

Arrival of Captain Cook with the Reſolution and Diſcovery again his command at Otaheite. Reception and ſalutations whatever to Omai. Divers entertaining ceremonies, &c. &c.

CAPTAIN Cook ſailed on his third and laſt voyage from Plymouth Sound in July 1776, in the Reſolution, having under his command the Diſcovery, Captain Clarke, who had been his ſecond lieutenant on board the former ſhip, in his ſecond voyage round the world.

As upon the former, ſo on the preſent occaſion the commodore, on making the iſland of Otaheite, ſteered for Oaitipiha Bay, intending to anchor there, in order to procure ſome refreſhments from the S. E. parts of the iſland, before they ſailed to Matavia, where they expected their principal ſupply. As they approached the iſland they were attended by ſeveral canoes, each containing two or three men; but being of the lower claſs Omai took no particular notice of them, nor they of him. They did not know that he was one of their countrymen, though they had converſed with him for ſome time. At length a chief, whom Captain Cook had known before, named Ootee, and Omai's brother-in-law, who happened to be now at this corner of the iſland, and three or four others, all of whom knew Omai before he embarked with captain Furneaux, came on board; but there was nothing in the leaſt tender or affectionate in their meeting, but, on the contrary, a perfect indifference on both ſides, till Omai, conducting his brother into the cabin, opened a drawer, and gave him a few red feathers. This circumſtance being ſoon communicated to the reſt of the natives on deck, Ootee, who before would hardly ſpeak to him, now begged, that they might be Tayos (friends) and exchange names. Omai readily accepted of the honour, and a preſent of red feathers ratified the agreement. By way of return, Ootee ſent aſhore for a hog. It was evident, however, to all preſent, that it was not the man, but his property, that they eſteemed. Had he not diſplayed his treaſure of red feathers, a commodity of great eſtimation in the iſland, it is a matter of doubt whether they would have beſtowed a ſingle cocoa nut upon him. Such was Omai's firſt reception among his countrymen; and though it was not expected it would be otherwiſe, yet it was hoped, that the valuable ſtock of preſents, with which he had been poſſeſſed by the liberality of his friends in England, would be the certain means of raiſing him into conſequence, among the firſt perſons of rank throughout the Society Iſlands. This, indeed, muſt have been the caſe, had he conducted himſelf with any degree of prudence; but he paid little attention to the repeated advice of his beſt friends, and laid himſelf open to every impoſition.

Through his means our people were informed by the natives who came off, that ſince Captain Cook laſt viſited this iſland, in 1774, two ſhips had been twice in this bay, and had left animals there reſembling thoſe they had on board; but on a minute enquiry into particulars they were found to conſiſt only of hogs, dogs, goats, a bull, and the male of another animal, which the natives imperfectly deſcribed, that they could not conjecture what it was. Theſe ſhips, they ſaid, had come from a place called Reema, which was ſuppoſed to be Lima, the capital of Peru, and that theſe late viſitors were conſequently Spaniards. They added, that the firſt time they arrived they built a houſe, and left behind them two priеſts, a boy or ſervant, and a fourth perſon whom they called Mateema, much ſpoken of at this time: taking away with them, when they ſailed, four of the natives; that about ten months after the ſame ſhips returned, bringing back only two of the natives, the other two having died at Lima; and that, after a ſhort ſtay, they took away the people they had left, but that the houſe they had erected was then ſtanding.

So precarious and fluctuating was the ſtate of traffic and barter, that a quantity of feathers which might be taken from the body of a tom-tit, would, early in the morning, have purchaſed a hog of forty or fifty pounds weight; but when the whole ſhips crew were poſſeſſed of ſome of this precious article, it decreaſed about five hundred per cent. in its value in a few hours; however, the balance, even then, was conſiderably in favour of our people; and red feathers ſtill preſerved a ſuperiority over every other commodity.

The ſhips had not long anchored before Omai's ſiſter came on board, to congratulate him on his arrival. It was pleaſing to obſerve, that, to the honour of both theſe relations, their meeting was marked with expreſſions of the tendereſt affection, more eaſily conceived than deſcribed.

Captain Cook having received a meſſage from Waheiadoua king of Tiarraboo, notifying his arrival, and requeſting he would come aſhore to meet him, Omai and the captain prepared to make him a viſit in form. Omai, on this occaſion, took ſome pains to dreſs himſelf, not after the manner of the Engliſh, nor that of Otaheite, or Tongataboo, or in the dreſs of any other country; but in a ſtrange medley of all the habiliments and ornaments of which he was poſſeſſed. Thus equipped, on landing, they firſt paid a viſit to Etary, an old chief, who, being carried on an hand-barrow, accompanied them to a large building, where he was ſet down. Omai ſeated himſelf on one ſide, and the captain on the other. The young chief ſoon after arrived, attended by his mother and ſeveral principal men, who all ſeated themſelves oppoſite to their viſitors. One who ſat near the captain made a ſhort ſpeech, conſiſting of ſeparate ſentences, part of which was dictated by thoſe about him. Another, on the oppoſite ſide, near the chief, ſpoke next; Etary after him, and then Omai. The ſubjects of theſe orations were, Captain Cook's arrival. The Reſolution took her old ſtation in Matavia Bay

It is impoſſible to give an adequate idea of the joy, which the natives expreſſed on the occaſion. The ſhores every where reſounded with the name of Cook: not a child that could liſp Toote (the appellation they gave to Captain Cook) was ſilent. The manner whereby theſe people expreſs their joy is ſo different from our ſenſations, that were we to ſee perſons ſtabbing themſelves with ſhark's teeth, till their bodies were beſmeared with blood, we ſhould think they were pierced with the moſt frantic deſpair, and that it would be almoſt impoſſible to aſſuage their grief; whereas, beating their breaſts, tearing their hair, and wounding their heads and bodies, are the moſt ſignificant ſigns of their gladneſs to ſee their friends. But, notwithſtanding this appearance of joy, and their affectation of liberality, they ſoon diſcovered a mercenary diſpoſition, totally centered in ſelf-intereſt.

Soon after the arrival of the Europeans, Otoo, the king of the whole iſland, accompanied by a great number of the natives, in their canoes, came from Oparree, his place of reſidence, and having landed on Matavia Point, ſent a meſſenger on board, intimating his deſire to ſee Captain Cook there. The captain accordingly went on ſhore, attended by Omai, and ſome of the officers. They found a vaſt multitude of people aſſembled on this occaſion, in the midſt of whom was the king, with his father, his two brothers, and three ſiſters. The captain ſaluted Otoo, and was followed by Omai, who kneeled and embraced his legs. Though Omai had prepared himſelf for this ceremony, by dreſſing himſelf in his beſt apparel, and behaved with great reſpect and modeſty, yet very little notice was taken of him. He made the king a preſent of two yards of gold cloth, and a large taſſel of red feathers; and the captain gave him a gold laced hat, a ſuit of fine linen, ſome tools, a quantity of red feathers, and one of the bonnets worn at the Friendly Iſlands.

This viſit being over, the king and all the royal family accompanied Captain Cook on board, followed by ſeveral canoes plentifully laden with all kinds of proviſions. Each family owned a part, ſo that the captain had a preſent from every one of them; and each received from him a ſeparate preſent in return. Not long after the king's mother came on board, bringing with her ſome proviſions and cloth, which ſhe divided between the captain and Omai. Though the latter was but little noticed at firſt by his countrymen, they no ſooner gained information of his wealth, than they began to court his friendſhip. Captain Cook encouraged this as far as lay in his power, being deſirous of fixing him with Otoo.

Intending to leave all the European animals at this iſland, he thought Omai would be able to give the natives ſome inſtructions with regard to their uſe and management. But unfortunately Omai rejected his advice, and behaved in ſo imprudent a manner, that he ſoon loſt the friendſhip of Otoo, and of all the moſt conſiderable people at Otaheite. He aſſociated with thoſe of the loweſt claſs, whoſe ſole intention was to plunder him: and if the Engliſh had not interfered, they would not have left him a ſingle article of any value. This conduct drew upon him the ill-will of the principal chiefs, who found that they could not obtain, from any one in either ſhip, ſuch valuable preſents as were beſtowed by Omai on the loweſt of the natives.

Soon after the ſhips were moored Captain Cook with Omai took an airing on horſeback, to the great aſtoniſhment of the inhabitants, many hundreds of whom followed him with loud acclamations. Omai, to excite their admiration the more, was dreſſed cap-a-pee in a ſuit of armour, and was mounted and capariſoned with his ſword and pike, like St. George going to kill the dragon, whom he very nearly repreſented; only that Omai had piſtols in his holſters, of which the bold ſaint knew not the uſe. Omai, however, made good uſe of his arms; for when the crowd became clamourous and troubleſome, he every now and then pulled out a piſtol, and fired it over them, which never failed to make them run away.

During the ſtay of the ſhips in Matavia Harbour, the commanders, with the principal officers and gentlemen, embarked on board the pinnaces, which, on this occaſion, were decked in all the magnificence that ſilken ſtreamers, embroidered enſigns, and other gorgeous decorations could diſplay, to pay a viſit to the king at Oparree. Omai, to ſurpriſe them the more, was cloathed in a captain's uniform, and could hardly be diſtinguiſhed from a Britiſh officer.

From Matavia to Oparree is about ſix miles; when the party arrived at the landing place, they were received by the marines then under arms. As ſoon as the company were diſembarked, the whole band of muſic ſtruck up a military march, and the proceſſion began. The road from the beach to the entrance of the palace, (about half a mile) was lined on both ſides with natives from all parts, expecting to ſee Omai on horſeback, as the account of his appearance on the other ſide of the iſland, had already reached the inhabitants on this. Appearing to them in diſguiſe, he was not known: they were not, however, wholly diſappointed, as the grandeur of the proceſſion exceeded every thing of the kind they had ever ſeen. The whole court were likewiſe aſſembled, and the king, with his ſiſters, on the approach of Captain Cook, came forth to meet him. As he was perfectly known by them, their firſt ſalutations were frank and friendly, according to their known cuſtoms; and when theſe were over, proper attention was paid to every gentleman in company, and that too with a politeneſs quite unexpected to thoſe who had never before been on this iſland.

As ſoon as the company had entered the palace, and were ſeated, ſome diſcourſe paſſed between the king and Captain Cook; after which Omai was preſented to his majeſty, and paid him the uſual homage of a ſubject to a ſovereign of that country, which conſiſts of little more than being uncovered before him, and then entered into a familiar converſation on the ſubject of his travels.

The Earees, or kings of this country, are not above diſcourſing with the meaneſt of their ſubjects; but Omai, by being a favourite of the principal men of the ſhips, was now conſidered as a perſon of ſome rank. The king, impatient to hear his ſtory, aſked him many queſtions, before he gave him time to anſwer one. He enquired about the king of England; his place of reſidence; his court; his attendants; his warriors; his ſhips of war; his morai; the extent of his poſſeſſions, &c. &c. Omai did not fail to magnify the grandeur of the Great King. He repreſented the ſplendour of his court by the brilliancy of the ſtars in the firmament; the extent of his dominions, by the vaſt expanſe of heaven; the greatneſs of his power by the thunder that ſhakes the earth. He ſaid, this monarch had three hundred thouſand warriors every day at his command, and more than double that number of ſailors. That his ſhips of war exceeded thoſe at Matavia in magnitude, in the ſame proportion as thoſe exceeded the ſmall canoes at Oparree.

His majeſty appeared all aſtoniſhment, and could not help interrupting him. He aſked, if what he ſaid was true, where the Great King could find people to navigate ſo many ſhips? And, if he could have men, where he could find proviſions for ſo large a multitude? Omai aſſured him, that in one city only there were more people than were contained in the whole group of iſlands; that the country was full of large, populous cities; notwithſtanding which proviſions were ſo plentiful, that for a few pieces of yellow metal, like thoſe of which he had ſeen many, (meaning the medals given by Captain Cook to the chiefs) the Great King could purchaſe a quantity of proviſions ſufficient for the maintenance of a ſailor for a whole year. That in the country of the Great King, there were more than an hundred different kinds of four-footed animals, from the ſize of a rat, to that of a ſtage erected on an ordi-

nary canoe; and that all theſe animals were numerous in their ſeveral kinds, and propagated very faſt.

Omai having, by this relation, obviated Otoo's doubts, adverted to his firſt queſtion. He ſaid the ſhips of war, in Pretanne, were furniſhed with poo-poos, (guns) each of which would receive the largeſt poo-poo his majeſty had yet ſeen, within it; that ſome carried an hundred and more of thoſe poo-poos, with ſuitable accommodations for a thouſand fighting men, and ſtowage for all kinds of cordage and warlike ſtores, beſides proviſions and water for a thouſand days; that they were ſometimes abroad as long, fighting with the enemies of the Great King; that they carried with them frequently, in theſe expeditions, poo-poos that would hold a ſmall hog, and which threw hollow globes of iron, of vaſt bigneſs, filled with fire and all manner of combuſtibles, and implements of deſtruction, to a great diſtance; a few of which, were they to be thrown among the fleet of Otaheite, would ſet them on fire, and deſtroy the whole navy, were they ever ſo numerous. The king ſeemed more aſtoniſhed than delighted at this narration, and ſuddenly left Omai, to join the company that were in converſation with Captain Cook. By this time dinner was nearly ready, and as ſoon as the company were properly ſeated, was brought in by as many tow-tows as there were perſons to dine; beſides theſe, the king, the two commanders, and Omai, had each of them ſeveral perſons of ſuperior rank to attend them. The dinner conſiſted of fifty and fowl of various kinds, dreſſed after their manner, barbicued pigs, ſtewed yams, and fruit of the moſt delicious flavour, all ſerved with an eaſe, and regularity, that is ſeldom to be found at European tables, when the ladies are excluded from making part of the company.

As ſoon as dinner was over, the gueſts were conducted to the theatre; where a company of players were in readineſs to perform a dramatical entertainment.

The drama was regularly divided into three acts; the firſt conſiſted of dancing and dumb ſhew: the ſecond of comedy, which, to thoſe who underſtood the language, was very laughable; for Omai, and the natives, appeared highly diverted the whole time; the laſt was a muſical piece, in which the young princeſſes were the ſole performers. Between the acts ſome feats of arms were exhibited, by combatans with lances and clubs. One made the attack, the other ſtood upon the defenſive. He who made the attack brandiſhed his lance, and either threw, puſhed, or uſed it inſtead of his club. He who was upon the defenſive, ſtuck the point of his lance in the ground, in an oblique direction, ſo that the upper part roſe above his head; and by obſerving the eye of his enemy, parried his blows, or his ſtrokes, by the motion of his lance, and it was rare that he was hurt by the club. If his antagoniſt ſtruck at his legs, he ſhewed his agility by jumping over the club; and if at his head, he was no leſs nimble in crouching under it. Their dexterity conſiſted chiefly in the defence, otherwiſe the combat might have been fatal, which always ended in good humour.

Theſe entertainments, which generally laſted about four hours, were really diverting. In the hornpipe they excelled the Europeans, for they add contortions of the face and muſcles to the nimbleneſs of the foot, that were inimitable, and would, in ſpite of our gravity, provoke laughter; their country dances were well regulated; and they had others of their own, that are equal to thoſe of our beſt theatres: their comedy ſeemed to conſiſt of ſome ſimple ſtory, made laughable by the manner of delivery, ſomewhat in the ſtyle of the Merry-andrews formerly at the fairs in England.

The play being over, and night approaching, the commanders took their leave, after inviting the king and his attendants to dine aboard the Reſolution. They were conducted to the water-ſide, in the ſame manner as they approached the palace, and were attended by the king and royal family. The next morning Omai's mother, and ſeveral of his relations arrived. Their meeting was too unnatural to be pleaſing. Our people could not ſee a woman frantically ſtriking her face and arms with ſhark's teeth, till ſhe was all over beſmeared with blood, without being hurt; as it conveyed no idea of joy to feeling minds, they never could be reconciled to this abſurd cuſtom.

Our people had brought from the other iſlands ſeveral ſhaddock trees, which they planted here, and there appeared to them a probability of their ſucceeding, unleſs their growth ſhould be checked by the ſame idle curioſity which deſtroyed a vine planted at Oaitipiha by the Spaniards. Many of the natives aſſembled to taſte the firſt fruits it produced; but being ſtill ſour, they conſidered it little better than poiſon, and trod it under foot.

On a particular occaſion the captain attended Otoo to his father's, where he ſaw ſeveral people employed in dreſſing two girls with fine cloth after a very ſingular faſhion. There were ſeveral pieces, one end of each was held over the heads of the girls, while the remainder was wrapped round their bodies under the arm-pits. The upper ends were let fall, and hung in folds to the ground, over the other, ſo as to bear ſome reſemblance to a circular hoop petticoat: laſtly, round the ſides of all were wrapped ſeveral pieces of cloth, of various colours, which conſiderably encreaſed the ſize, it being five or ſix yards in circuit; and the weight of this ſingular attire was as much as the poor girls could ſupport. To each were hung two taames, or breaſt-plates, in order to eſtabliſh the whole, and give it a pictureſque appearance. Thus equipped, they were taken on board, together with ſeveral hogs, and a quantity of fruit, the whole being a preſent to the Engliſh commander from Otoo's father.

Thoſe who are dreſſed in this manner are called atee; but this ceremony is never performed, except where large preſents of cloth are to be made. It never was ſeen practiſed upon any other occaſion; but, both Captain Cooke and Captain Clerke had cloth preſented to them afterwards, wrapped round the bearers in the ſame manner.

Captain Cook, excited by curioſity, went to ſee an embalmed corpſe, near the reſidence of Otoo. On enquiry, it was found to be the remains of Tee, a chief well known to him, when he laſt viſited this iſland. It was lying in an elegant toopapaoo, in all reſpects ſimilar to that at Oaitipiha, in which the remains of Waheidooa were depoſited. The body was found, uncovered, within the toopapaoo, and wrapped up in cloth. At the captain's deſire, the perſon who had the care of it brought it out and placed it upon a kind of bier, ſo as to exhibit a perfect view of it.

The corpſe having been thus exhibited, they ornamented the place with mats and cloths, diſpoſed in ſuch a manner as to produce a pleaſing effect. The body was entire in every part; putrefaction ſeemed hardly to be begun; and not the leaſt diſagreeable ſmell proceeded from it; though this was one of the hotteſt climates, and Tee had been dead above four months. There was, indeed, a ſhrinking of the muſcular parts and eyes, but the hair and nails were in their original ſtate, and the ſeveral joints were pliable.

On enquiry into the method of thus preſerving their dead bodies, our people were informed, that ſoon after they are dead, they are diſembowelled, by drawing out the inteſtines, and other viſcera, after which the whole cavity is ſtuffed with cloth; that when any moiſture appeared, it was immediately dried up, and the body rubbed all over with perfumed cocoa-nut oil, which, frequently repeated, preſerved them ſeveral months; after which they mouldered away gradually. Omai told them, that the bodies of all their great men, who died a natural death, are thus preſerved, and expoſed

poſed to public view a conſiderable time after. At firſt they are exhibited every fine day, afterwards the intervals become greater, and at laſt they are ſeldom to be ſeen.

To cauſe ſurpriſe, as well as to draw the reſpect of the natives, the two captains mounted on horſe-back, and rode round the plain of Matavia, to the aſtoniſhment of a vaſt train of ſpectators, who gazed upon them with as much ſurpriſe as if they had been centaurs. The cattle were in good caſe and looked extremely well. What the captains had begun was repeated daily by one or other of our people; and yet the curioſity of the natives continued unabated.

After they had ſeen and underſtood the uſe of theſe noble animals, they were exceedingly delighted with them; and our people were of opinion, that they conveyed to them a better idea of the greatneſs of other nations, than all the novelties that had hitherto been carried among them.

Several of the ſailors being very deſirous to ſtay at Otaheite, Otoo intereſted himſelf in their behalf, and endeavoured to prevail on Captain Cook to grant their requeſt; but he rejected, peremptorily, every application of that kind, though often repeated; nor would he ſuffer any of the natives to enter on board, though many would have gladly accompanied the Europeans wherever they intended to ſail, and that too after they were aſſured, that they never intended to viſit their country any more. Some of the women alſo would have followed their Eboonoas, or Pretanne huſbands, could they have been permitted; but the commander was equally averſe to the taking any of the natives away, as to the leaving his people behind.

The king, when he found he could not obtain his wiſhes in this reſpect, applied to Captain Cook for another favour, which was to allow our carpenters to make him a chen, or preſs, to ſecure the treaſures he had accumulated in preſents: he even begged that a bed might be placed in it, where he intended to ſleep. This requeſt the captain readily granted; and while the workmen were employed in making this uncommon piece of furniture, they were plentifully ſupplied with barbicued hogs, and ſuch dainties as the country afforded, ſo that they thought themſelves amply compenſated for their pains.

Captain Cook accompanied Otoo to Oparree; and before he left it, took a ſurvey of the cattle and poultry which he had conſigned to his friend's care. Every thing was in a promiſing way, and properly attended to. Two of the geeſe, and two of the ducks were ſitting, but the pea-hen and turkey-hen had neither of them begun to lay. He took four goats from Otoo, two of which he intended to leave at Ulietea, and to reſerve two for the uſe of any other iſland he might touch at in his paſſage to the north.

Soon after Otoo came on board, and informed Captain Cook that he had got a canoe, which he deſired he would take with him as a preſent from the Earee of Otaheite to the Eareerahie of Pretanne. The captain was highly pleaſed with Otoo for this mark of his gratitude. At firſt, he ſuppoſed it to be a model of one of their veſſels of war, but it proved to be a ſmall ivahah, about 16 feet long. It was double, and probably had been built for the purpoſe, and was decorated with carved work, like their canoes in general. It being inconvenient to take it on board, the captain could only thank him for his good intention; but the king would have been much better pleaſed if his preſent could have been accepted.

The following circumſtance, concerning Otoo, will ſhew that the people of this iſland are capable of much addreſs and art to accompliſh their purpoſes. Among other things which the captain had at different times given to this chief, was a ſpying-glaſs: having been two or three days poſſeſſed of this glaſs, he, perhaps, grew tired of it, or diſcovered that it could not be of any uſe to him; he, therefore, carried it privately to Captain Clerke, telling him that he had got a preſent for him, in return for his friendſhip, which he ſuppoſed would be agreeable: "but (ſays Otoo) Toote muſt not be informed of this, becauſe, he wanted it, and I refuſed to let him have it." Accordingly he put the glaſs into Captain Clerke's hands, aſſuring him at the ſame time, that he came honeſtly by it. Captain Clerke, at firſt, willed to be excuſed from accepting it; but Otoo inſiſted that he ſhould, and left it with him. A few days after, he reminded Captain Clerke of the glaſs; who, though he did not wiſh to have it, was yet deſirous of obliging Otoo: and thinking a few axes would be more acceptable, produced four, and offered them in exchange. Otoo immediately exclaimed, "Toote offered me five for it." Well, ſays Captain Clerke, if that be the caſe, you ſhall not be a loſer by your friendſhip for me; there are ſix axes for you. He readily accepted them, but again deſired that Captain Cook might not be made acquainted with the tranſaction.

By calms, and gentle breezes from the weſt, our people were detained here ſome time longer than they expected, during which the ſhips were crowded with friends, and ſurrounded with canoes, for none of them would quit the place till they departed. At length the wind came round to the eaſt, and they weighed anchor. When the Reſolution and Diſcovery were under ſail, to oblige Otoo, and to gratify the curioſity of his people, ſeveral guns were fired, after which all friends, except his majeſty, and two or three more, took leave of their viſiters with ſuch lively marks of ſorrow and affection as ſufficiently teſtified how much they regretted their departure. Otoo being deſirous of ſeeing the Reſolution ſail, ſhe made a ſtretch out to ſea, and then tacked again immediately, when the king took his laſt farewel, and went aſhore in his canoe. It was ſtrictly enjoined the captain by Otoo to requeſt, in his name, the Eareeahie of Pretanne (meaning the king of England) to ſend him by the next ſhip ſome red feathers, and the birds which produced them: alſo axes, half a dozen muſkets, powder and ſhot, and by no means to forget horſes.

The moſt valuable things that Otoo received as preſents from the Engliſh were left in the captain's poſſeſſion till the day before they ſailed, the king declaring that they could be no where ſo ſafe. From the acquiſition of new riches, the inducements to pilfering muſt certainly have increaſed, and the chiefs were ſenſible of this from their being ſo exceedingly deſirous of having cheſts. The few that the Spaniards had left among them were highly prized; and they were continually aſking for others from our people. Locks and bolts were not conſidered as a ſufficient ſecurity, ſo that it muſt be large enough for two people to ſleep upon, and conſequently guard it in the night.

It may appear extraordinary, that no diſtinct account could be obtained of the time when the Spaniards arrived, the time they ſtaid, and when they departed. The more enquiry was made into this matter, the greater was the proof of the incapability of moſt of theſe people to remember, calculate, or note the time when paſt events happened, eſpecially if for a longer period than eighteen or twenty months. It appeared, however, from the inſcription upon the croſs the Spaniards had ſet up, and by the information of the natives, that two ſhips came to Oaitipiha Bay in 1774, not long after Captain Cook left Matavia, which was in May the ſame year. The live ſtock they left here conſiſted of one bull, ſome goats, hogs and dogs, and the male of another animal, which, according to information, was a ram, at that time at Bolabola. The hogs, being large, had already much improved the breed originally found upon the iſland. Goats were alſo plentiful, there being hardly a chief without them.

The dogs that the Spaniards put aſhore were of two or three ſorts: had they all been hanged inſtead of being left upon the iſland, it would have been better for the natives. A young ram fell a victim to one of theſe animals.

Four Spaniards remained on ſhore when their ſhips left the iſland, two of whom were prieſts, one a ſervant, and the other was much careſſed among the natives, who diſtinguiſhed him by the name of Mateema. He ſeemed to have ſo far ſtudied their language, as to have been able to ſpeak it, and to have been indefatigable in impreſſing in the minds of the Otaheitans exalted ideas of the greatneſs of the Spaniſh nation, and inducing them to think meanly of the Engliſh.

With what view the prieſts remained on the iſland cannot eaſily be conceived. If it was their intention to convert the natives to the catholic faith, they certainly have not ſucceeded in a ſingle inſtance. It did not appear, indeed, that they ever attempted it; for the natives ſaid, they never converſed with them, either on this or any other ſubject. The prieſts reſided the whole time at Oaitipiha; but Mateema roved about continually, viſiting many parts of the iſland. After he and his companions had ſtaid ten months, two ſhips arriving at Otaheite took them on board, and ſailed in five days. Whatever deſigns the Spaniards might have on this iſland, their haſty departure ſhewed they had now laid them aſide. They endeavoured to make the natives believe, that they intended to return, and would bring them all kinds of animals, and men and women who were to ſettle on the iſland. Otoo, when he mentioned this to Captain Cook, added, that if the Spaniards ſhould return, he would not permit them to enter Matavia fort, which, he ſaid, belonged to the Engliſh. The idea pleaſed him; but he did not conſider that an attempt to complete it would deprive him of his kingdom, and his people of their liberty. Though this ſhews how eaſy a ſettlement might be effected at Otaheite.

As Captain Cook had received a viſit from one of the two natives of this iſland who had been taken to Lima by the Spaniards, it is ſomewhat remarkable that he never ſaw him afterwards, eſpecially as the captain received him with uncommon civility. It was imagined that Omai, from motives of jealouſy, had kept him from the captain, he being a traveller, who, in ſome degree, might vie with himſelf. Captain Clerke, who had ſeen the other man, ſpoke of him as an inconſiderable character; and his own countrymen entertained the ſame opinion of him. In ſhort, thoſe two adventurers ſeemed to be held in little or no eſteem. They had not been ſo fortunate, it is true, as to return home with ſuch valuable property as had been beſtowed upon Omai, whoſe advantages were ſo great, from having been in England, that if he ſhould ſink into his original ſtate of indolence, he has only himſelf to blame for it.

Omai would not have behaved ſo inconſiſtently as he did in many inſtances, had it not been for his ſiſter and brother-in-law, who, together with a few ſelect companions, engroſſed him to themſelves, in order to ſtrip him of every article he poſſeſſed: and they would certainly have ſucceeded, if Captain Cook had not taken the moſt uſeful articles of his property into his poſſeſſion. The commodore diſappointed their farther views of plunder, by forbidding them to appear at Huaheine, while he continued at the Society Iſlands, to which, on his leaving Otaheite, he intended to direct his courſe.

CHAP. X.

SOCIETY ISLANDS.

THESE iſlands compoſe a group of ſix in number, under the following names, by which they are called by the natives, viz. Huaheine, Ulietea, or Raietea, Bolabola, Otaha, Tubai and Mawrua, or Moroua. Capt. Cook, who firſt directed his courſe thither in 1769, at the inſtance of Tupia, a very intelligent and accompliſhed Indian, who embarked with him on his departure from Otaheite, gave them the general appellation of the Society Iſlands, for cauſes which will appear in the ſequel. They lie contiguous, between the latitude of 16 deg. 10 min. and 16 deg. 55 min. ſouth, and between the longitude of 150 deg. 57 min. and 152 deg. weſt.

The luxuriant productions of theſe iſlands, and benevolent diſpoſition of the natives, are highly celebrated by different voyagers. The country is repreſented as richly endowed by nature, and the people as poſſeſſing an extreme liberality of mind, evinced in a more particular manner by their chearfully contributing to ſupply the wants of ſuch navigators whom chance or deſign might direct to their hoſpitable ſpot.

Nor are they leſs friendly than munificent, as appeared from the very condeſcending aſſiduities ſhewn to their European viſitors, ſuch as carrying them in and out of the boats to prevent their catching cold from the ſurf wetting their feet; loading themſelves with the commodities they purchaſed, going into the water for any bird that had been ſhot, inviting our people to repoſe in their dwellings, after the fatigue of an excurſion, or being expoſed to the ſcorching rage of the ſun, and many other acts equally laudable.

As the chiefs of theſe iſlands in general are deſcended from the ſame family, they naturally ſuppoſed that all thoſe of ſuperior rank on board the ſhip were allied, and particularly as they meſſed together. Hence, whenever they paid a viſit to any of the chiefs, before their departure they were adopted according to their reſpective ages, as father, brother or ſon. In a word, their hoſpitality, upon every occaſion, appeared ſo diſtinguiſhed, that it is mentioned as a virtue worthy not only of the warmeſt commendation, but preciſe imitation of the moſt civilized parts of the globe. The propriety, therefore, of the appellation given them by Capt. Cook is clearly evident.

SECTION I.

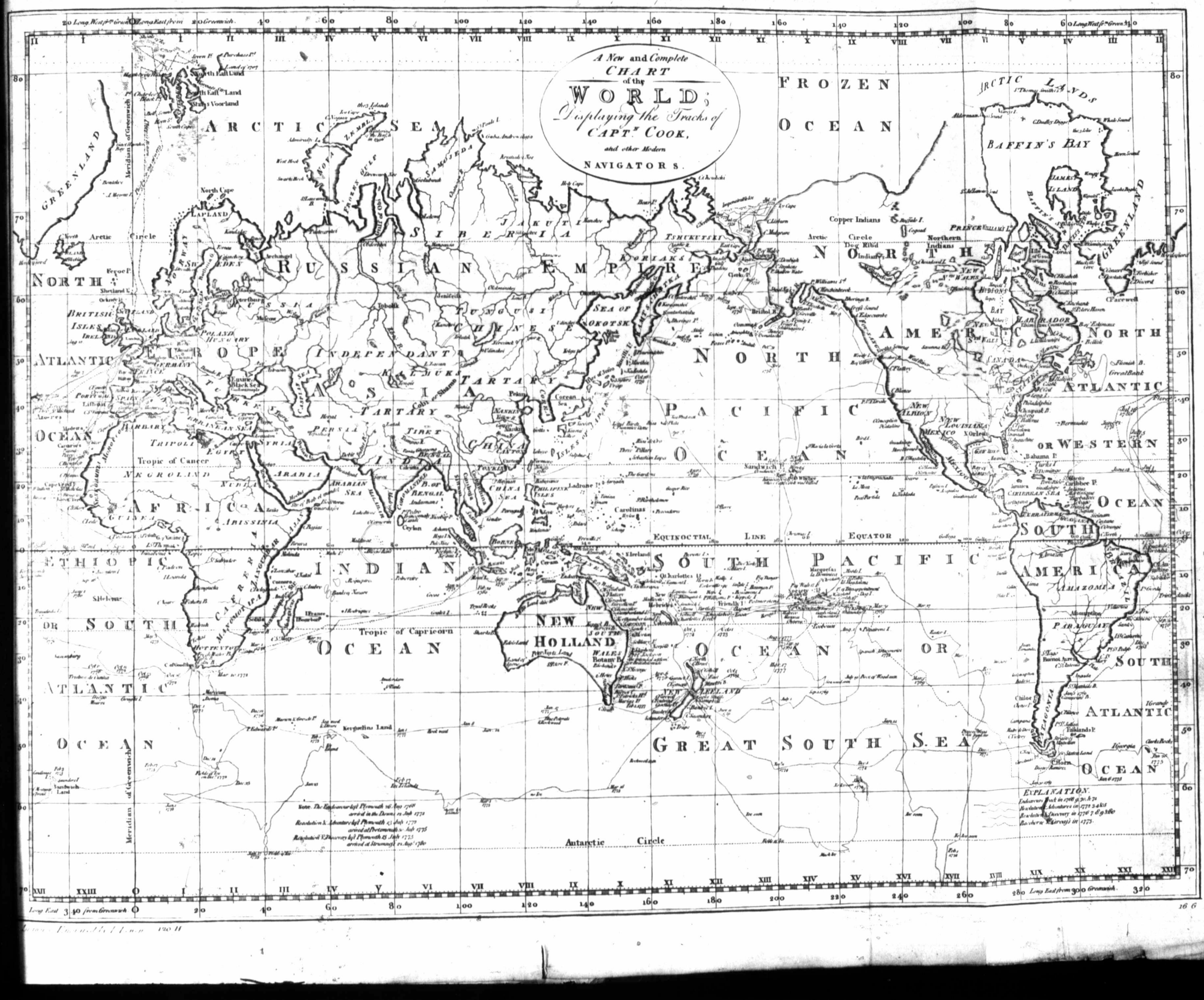
HUAHEINE.

THE iſland of Huaheine, diſcovered by Captain Cook two days after his departure from Otaheite, in 1769, lies in latitude 16 deg. 43 min. ſouth and longitude 150 deg. 52 min. weſt. It is about 30 leagues diſtant from Otaheite, and about 20 miles in circumference, having a commodious harbour on the weſt ſide.

It is divided into two peninſulas joined by an iſthmus, which at high water is overflowed: it ſeems to have been diſturbed by volcanoes; and the face of the country reſembles that of Otaheite.

When the Endeavour was in ſight ſeveral canoes put off; but they appeared fearful of approaching the ſhip, till they ſaw Tupia, who, totally removing their apprehenſions, they ventured to come along-ſide; and, upon aſſurances of friendſhip, the king and queen went on board. They expreſſed aſtoniſhment at every thing that was ſhewn them, though, at the ſame time they appeared ſatisfied with what was preſented to their obſervation, making no enquiry after any other objects,

A New and Complete CHART of the WORLD; Displaying the Tracks of CAPTn COOK, and other Modern NAVIGATORS.



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objects, notwithſtanding it was reaſonable to ſuppoſe that a building of ſuch utility and extent as the ſhip muſt have afforded many curioſities. The ceremony of exchanging names, generally conſidered as a mark of friendſhip in theſe iſlands, paſſed between the king, whoſe name was Oree, and Captain Cook.

Having come to anchor in a ſmall but fine harbour, Captain Cook went on ſhore, accompanied by Mr. Banks and ſome other gentlemen, with Tupia and the king. Various ceremonies then paſſed between the king and our people, which were conſidered as a kind of ratification of a treaty between the Engliſh and the king of Huaheine.

The level part of this iſland is very fertile, and abounds with bread-fruit and cocoa-nut trees; and its productions are more forward than thoſe at Otaheite.

The mountains here, as in the Society Iſlands in general, continually attract the vapours from the atmoſphere, and many rivulets deſcend from the broken rocks into the plain, ſo that they are ſupplied with plenty of water, which contributes both to the comfort and health of the natives.

The iſlanders take great pains with the cultivation of their cloth-tree, having drains made through beds of earth to draw off the water, and the ſides neatly built up with ſtones; and in the drains they plant the *arum*, which yields the yam they call *tato*.

On the departure of the Endeavour from this iſland, the commander preſented the king with a ſmall plate of pewter, on which was inſcribed, "His Britannic Majeſty's Ship Endeavour, Lieutenant Cook, Commander, 16th July, 1769."

Many of the younger men of the natives, during the ſtay of the ſhip at this iſland, voluntarily offered to take their paſſage with the Commander for England. From the whole he ſingled out one called, by ſome, Oedidee, by others, Mahine. This youth was a native of Bolabola, and a near relation of O-Poony, the king of that iſland and conqueror of ſeveral adjacent ones. He is deſcribed as poſſeſſing mental and perſonal accompliſhments, which endeared him to the people in general on board the ſhip.

When Captain Cook directed his courſe to the ſouthward, and arrived in 62 degrees latitude, Mahine expreſſed his ſurpriſe at ſeveral little ſnow and hail ſhowers on the preceding days, ſuch phœnomena being utterly unknown in his country. The appearance of white ſtones, which melted in his hand, was altogether miraculous in his eyes; and though pains were taken to explain to him that cold was the cauſe of their formation, his ideas on that ſubject did not ſeem to be very clear. A very heavy fall of ſnow ſurpriſed him more than ever; and after long conſideration of its ſingular qualities, he ſaid he would call it white rain when he got back to his own country. In fine, it was with difficulty he was perſuaded to believe that ſnow and ice were only freſh water, till he was ſhewn ſome congealed in a caſk on the deck. He ſtill, however, declared that he would call this 'the white land, by way of diſtinguiſhing it from all the reſt.

He had collected a number of little ſlender twigs, which he carefully tied in a bundle, and made uſe of inſtead of a journal: for every iſland he had ſeen and viſited after his departure from the Society Iſlands, he had ſelected a little twig, ſo that his collection, by this time amounted to about nine or ten, of which he remembered the names perfectly well, in the ſame order as he had ſeen them; and the white land, or *whennua tatea*, was the laſt. He enquired frequently how many other countries they ſhould meet with in their way to England, and formed a ſeparate bundle of them, which he ſtudied with equal care as the firſt.

When they croſſed the antarctic circle, where the ſun ſcarce ſunk below the horizon, Mahine was ſtruck with the greateſt aſtoniſhment at this appearance, and would ſcarcely believe his ſenſes; all the endeavours uſed to explain it to him miſcarried, and he aſſured the gentlemen, that he diſpaired of finding belief among his countrymen, when he ſhould go back to recount the wonders of congealed rain, and of perpetual day.

The approach of winter led Captain Cook once more to ſeek the refreſhments of milder climes, and therefore determining on a viſit to the Society Iſlands, made Otaheite in his paſſage, where Mahine met with ſeveral of his relations, and married the daughter of a chief of the diſtrict of Matavia. Unfortunately the ceremony performed on this occaſion was not obſerved by any of the ſhip's company, who could convey any kind of idea of it: a petty officer, indeed, who was preſent, reported, that a number of ceremonies were performed which were extremely curious, but could not relate any one of them, ſo that this intereſting particular, reſpecting the manners of theſe people, remains entirely unknown. Mahine embarked with Captain Cook for Huaheine, leaving, as ſuppoſed, his new-married wife at Otaheite; for no further mention is made of her.

He would willingly have proceeded for England, had he had the leaſt hopes given him of ever returning to his native home; but, as Captain Cook could not promiſe, or even ſuppoſe, that more Engliſh ſhips would be ſent to theſe iſlands, Mahine choſe to remain in his native country; but he left the ſhip with regret, fully demonſtrative of the eſteem he bore to the Engliſh.

Words cannot deſcribe the anguiſh that appeared in this young man's breaſt when he went away. He looked up at the ſhip, burſt into tears, and then ſunk down into the canoe. Juſt as he was going out of the ſhip, he made a requeſt to Captain Cook, with which he complied, and then gave him a certificate of the time he had been on board, and recommended him to the notice of thoſe who might touch there after him.

When Captain Cook viſited this iſland on his ſecond voyage with the Reſolution and Adventure under his command, the former anchored in 24 fathoms water, but the latter got on ſhore on the north ſide of the channel, though ſhe was happily got off again without receiving any damage. The natives received our people with the utmoſt cordiality.

Capt. Cook was informed that Otee was ſtill alive, and waited to ſee him. The commanders, with others, went to the place appointed for the interview. The chief had carefully preſerved the piece of pewter, with an inſcription on it, which Captain Cook had preſented him with in 1769, together with a piece of counterfeit Engliſh coin, which with a few beads, were all in the ſame bag the captain made for them; theſe the chief ſent on board. This part of the ceremony being over, our party were deſired by their guide to decorate three young plantain trees with nails, looking-glaſſes, beads, medals, &c. With theſe in their hands they landed, and were conducted through the multitude. They were directed to ſit down a few paces before the chief, and the plantains were laid one by one before him. They were told that one was for the Deity, another for the king, and a third for friendſhip. This being done, the king came to Captain Cook, fell on his neck, and kiſſed him. A great effuſion of tears fell down the venerable cheeks of this old man; and if ever tears ſpoke the language of the heart, ſurely theſe did. Preſents were made to all his attendants and friends. Captain Cook regarded him as a father, and therefore preſented him with the moſt valuable articles he had.

The commander on going aſhore after breakfaſt, learnt that one of the inhabitants had been very inſolent and troubleſome. The man was ſhewn to him, equipped in his war habit, with a club in each hand. The captain took theſe from him, as he perceived him bent on miſchief, broke them before his face, and obliged him to retire. Being informed that this man was a chief, he became a little ſuſpicious of him, and ſent for a guard. About this time a gentleman had gone out to collect plants alone; two men aſſaulted him, and ſtripped him of every thing but his trowſers; luckily

luckily they did him no harm, though they ſtruck him ſeveral times with his own hanger. They made off when they had done this, and another of the natives brought a piece of cloth to cover him.

This gentleman preſently appeared at the trading-place, where a number of the natives were aſſembled, who all fled at ſeeing him. Captain Cook perſuaded ſome of them to return, aſſuring them that none ſhould ſuffer who were innocent. When the king heard this complaint, he and his companions wept bitterly; and as ſoon as his grief was aſſuaged, he made a long harangue to the people, telling them the baſeneſs of ſuch actions, when the captain and his crew had always behaved ſo well to them. He then took a very particular account of all the things the gentleman had loſt, and promiſed they ſhould be returned, if it was in his power to find them. After this, he deſired Captain Cook to follow him to the boat, but the people being apprehenſive of his ſafety, uſed every argument to diſſuade him from it. It is impoſſible to deſcribe the grief they expreſſed in the intreaties they uſed; every face was bedewed with tears, and every mouth was filled with the moſt diſſuaſive arguments. Oree was deaf to them all, and inſiſted on going with the captain; when they both were in the boat, he deſired it might be put off. The only perſon who did not oppoſe his going, was his ſiſter, and ſhe ſhewed a magnanimity of ſpirit equal to her brother.

Peace was now perfectly re-eſtabliſhed, proviſions poured in from all quarters, the gentleman's coat and hanger were returned, and thus ended theſe troubleſome tranſactions.

The captains, Cook and Furneaux, went to pay their farewell to Oree, and preſented him with things both valuable and uſeful. They left him a copper-plate with this inſcription, "Anchored here his Britannic Majeſty's ſhips Reſolution and Adventure, September, 1773." Having traded for ſuch things as were wanted, they took their leave, which was very affectionate. On returning to the ſhips, they were crouded, as on arrival, with canoes filled with hogs, fowls, &c. Soon after they were on board, the king came and informed them that the robbers were taken, and deſired them to go on ſhore in order to behold their exemplary puniſhment. This they would willingly have done, but were prevented by the Adventure's being out of the harbour, and the Reſolution under ſail.

The good old king ſtaid with them till they were near two miles out at ſea, and then, after taking another affectionate leave, parted. During their ſhort ſtay at the ſmall but fertile iſland of Huaheine, they procured upwards of 300 hogs, beſides fowls and fruit in great abundance.

The Reſolution and Diſcovery, on Captain Cook's third voyage, anchored on the 12th of October, 1777, at the northern entrance of Owherre harbour, ſituated on the weſt ſide of this iſland. Omai, in his canoe, entered the harbour juſt before them, but did not land; and though many of his countrymen crouded to ſee him, he did not take much notice of them. Great numbers alſo came off to the ſhips, inſomuch that they were greatly incommoded by them.

The next morning, all the principal people of the iſland repaired to the European ſhips agreeable to the wiſhes of the commodore, as it was now time to ſettle Omai, and he ſuppoſed that the preſence of theſe chiefs would enable him to effect it in a ſatisfactory manner. But Omai now ſeemed to incline to eſtabliſh himſelf at Ulietea; and if he and Captain Cook could have agreed with reſpect to the mode of accompliſhing that deſign, the latter would have conſented to adopt it. His father had been deprived by the inhabitants of Bolabola, when they ſubdued Ulietea, of ſome land in that iſland; and the captain hoped he ſhould be able to get it reſtored to the ſon without difficulty. For this purpoſe, it was neceſſary that Omai ſhould be upon friendly terms with thoſe who had become maſters of the iſland; but he would not liſten to any ſuch propoſal, and was vain enough to imagine that the captain would make uſe of force to reinſtate him in his forfeited lands.

This prepoſſeſſion preventing his being fixed at Ulietea, the captain began to conſider Huaheine as the more proper place, and therefore determined to avail himſelf of the preſence of the chief men of that iſland, and propoſe the affair to them.

The ſhips were no leſs crouded with hogs, than with chiefs, the former being poured in faſter than the butchers and ſalters could diſpatch them. Indeed, for ſeveral days after arrival, ſome hundreds, great and ſmall, were brought on board; and, if any were refuſed, they were thrown into the boats and left behind.

The captain prepared to make a viſit in form to Tairectareea, the Earee rahie, or then reigning king of the iſland. Omai, who was to accompany him, dreſſed himſelf very properly on the occaſion, and provided a handſome preſent for the chief himſelf, and another for his Eatooa. Their landing drew moſt of the viſitors from the ſhips; ſo that the concourſe of people became very great.

The captain waited ſome time for the king; but when he appeared, he found his preſence might have been diſpenſed with, as his age did not exceed ten years. Omai, who ſtaid at a little diſtance from the circle of great men, began with making his offerings to the gods, which conſiſted of cloth, red feathers, &c. Another offering ſucceeded, which was to be given to the gods by the young chief; and after that, ſeveral other tufts of red feather were preſented. The different articles were laid before the prieſt, being each of them delivered with a kind of prayer, which was ſpoken by one of Omai's friends, though in a great meaſure dictated by himſelf. In theſe prayers he did not forget his friends in England, nor thoſe who had conducted him ſafe back to his native country. The Earee rahie or Pretanne, (king of Great Britain,) the Earl of Sandwich, Toote (Captain Cook,) Tatee (Captain Clerke,) were mentioned in every one of them. Theſe offerings and prayers being ended, the prieſt took each of the articles in order, and, after repeating a concluding prayer, ſent every one of them to the Morai.

After the performance of theſe religious rites, Omai ſeated himſelf by the Captain, who beſtowed a preſent on the young prince, and received another in return. Some arrangements were then agreed upon, relative to the mode of carrying on the intercourſe between our people and the natives. The eſtabliſhment of Omai was then propoſed to this aſſembly of chiefs. They were informed, that the Engliſh had conveyed him into their country, where he was well received by the great king of Pretanne, and his Earees; and then had been treated, during his whole ſtay, with all the marks of regard and affection; that he had been brought back again, enriched with a variety of articles, which, it was hoped, would be highly beneficial to his countrymen; and that, beſides the two horſes which were to continue with him, many other new and uſeful animals had been left at Otaheite, which would ſpeedily multiply, and furniſh a ſufficient number for the uſe of all the neighbouring iſlands. They were then giving to underſtand, it was the commodore's earneſt requeſt, that they would give his friend, Omai, a piece of land, upon which he might build a houſe, and raiſe proviſions for himſelf and family; adding, that if he could not obtain this at Huaheine, either by donation or purchaſe, he was reſolved to carry him to Ulietea, and ſettle him there.

It was obſerved that this concluſion ſeemed to gain the approbation of all the chiefs; and the reaſon was obvious. Omai had flattered himſelf, that the captain would uſe force in reſtoring him to his father's poſſeſſions in Ulietea; and he had vaunted himſelf on this ſubject among ſome chiefs, at this meeting, who now expected that they ſhould be aſſiſted by our people in an invaſion of Ulietea, and driving the Bolabolans out of that iſland.

It

It being proper, therefore, that they ſhould be undeceived in this particular, the captain, with this view, ſignified to them, in the moſt deciſive manner, that he would neither give them any aſſiſtance in ſuch an enterprize, nor even ſuffer it to be put in execution, while he remained in thoſe ſeas; and that, if Omai eſtabliſhed himſelf in Ulieta, he ſhould be introduced as a friend, and not forced upon the people of Bolabola as their conqueror.

This peremptory declaration immediately gave a new turn to the ſentiments of the council; one of whom expreſſed himſelf to this effect: that the whole iſland of Huaheine, and whatever it contained, were Captain Cook's, and therefore he might diſpoſe of what portion he pleaſed to his friend: but, though Omai ſeemed much pleaſed at hearing this, he deſired them to mark out the ſpot, and likewiſe the exact quantity of land, which they intended to grant for the ſettlement. Upon this, ſome chiefs, who had retired from the aſſembly, were ſent for, and after a ſhort conſultation, the commodore's requeſt was unanimouſly complied with, and the ground immediately fixed upon, adjoining to the houſe where the preſent meeting was held. It extended along the ſhore of the harbour near 200 yards; its depth, at the bottom of the hill, was ſomewhat more; and a proportionate part of the hill was comprehended in the grant.

In order to give him a conſequence, Captain Cook rode with Omai on horſeback, followed by the natives, who, attracted by the novelty of the ſight, flocked from the moſt remote parts of the iſland to be ſpectators.

Orders were given, during the ſtay of the ſhips in this harbour, to carry the bread on ſhore to clear it of vermin. The number of cock-roaches that infeſted the ſhip at this time is almoſt incredible. The damage ſuſtained by them was very conſiderable; and every attempt to deſtroy them proved fruitleſs. If any kind of food was expoſed for a few minutes, it was covered with theſe noxious inſects, who ſoon pierced it full of holes, ſo that it reſembled a honeycomb.

The natives were ſo fond of ink that they ſucked it out of the writing on the labels faſtened to different articles; and the only thing that preſerved books from their ravages, was the cloſeneſs of the binding, which prevented theſe voracious deſtroyers from inſinuating themſelves between the leaves.

The affair being ſettled between the commodore and the chief, the carpenters and caulkers were ordered on ſhore to erect a houſe for Omai, wherein he might ſecure the various European commodities that he had in his poſſeſſion: at the ſame time others of our people were employed in making a garden for his uſe, planting vines, ſhaddock, melons, pine-apples, and the ſeeds of various kinds of vegetables; all which were in a flouriſhing ſtate before their departure from the iſland.

Omai began now to pay a ſerious attention to his own affairs, and heartily repented of his ill-judged prodigality at Otaheite. He was now the only rich man in the kingdom; and being maſter of an accumulated quantity of a ſpecies of treaſure, which his countrymen could not create by any art or induſtry of their own, it was natural, therefore, to imagine, that while all were deſirous of ſharing this envied wealth, all would be ready to join in attempts to ſtrip its ſole proprietor. As the moſt likely means of preventing this, Captain Cook adviſed him to diſtribute ſome of his moveables among two or three of the principal chiefs; who, on being thus gratified, might be induced to favour him with their patronage, and ſhield him from the injuries of others. Omai promiſed to follow this advice, and before our people ſailed this prudent ſtep was taken. The captain, however, not confiding wholly in the operations of gratitude, had recourſe to the more forcible and effectual motive of intimidation, taking every opportunity of notifying to the inhabitants that it was his intention to make another viſit to their iſland; after having been abſent the uſual time; and that if he did not find his friend in the ſame ſtate of ſecurity in which he ſhould leave him at preſent, all thoſe who had been his enemies might expect to become the objects of his reſentment.

The intercourſe of trade and friendly offices between the Engliſh and the inhabitants of Huaheine was interrupted; for, in the evening, one of them found means to get into Mr. Bayley's obſervatory, and carry off a ſextant unobſerved. Captain Cook was no ſooner informed of this theft, than he went aſhore, and deſired Omai to apply to the chiefs to procure reſtitution. He accordingly made application to them, but they took no ſteps towards recovering the inſtrument, being more attentive to a beeva that was then exhibiting, till the captain ordered the performers to deſiſt. Being now convinced he was in earneſt, they began to make ſome enquiry after the delinquent, who was ſitting in the midſt of them, with ſuch marks of unconcern, that the captain was in great doubt of his being guilty, particularly as he denied it. Omai aſſuring him this was the perſon, he was ſent on board the Reſolution, and put in irons. This raiſed a univerſal ferment among the iſlanders, and the whole body fled with precipitation. The priſoner being examined by Omai, was with ſome difficulty brought to confeſs where he had concealed the ſextant, and it was brought back unhurt the next morning. After this, the natives recovered from their conſternation, and began to gather about the Engliſh as uſual. As the thief appeared to be a ſhameleſs villain, the commodore puniſhed him with greater ſeverity than he had ever done any former culprit; for, beſides having his head and beard ſhaved, he ordered both his ears to be cut off, and his eye-brows to be ſhaved, than which no puniſhment could have ſubjected him to greater diſgrace. In this bleeding condition he was ſent on ſhore, and expoſed as a ſpectacle to intimidate the people from meddling with what was not their own. The natives looked with horror upon the man, and it was eaſy to perceive that this act gave general diſguſt: even Omai was affected, though he endeavoured to juſtify it, by telling his friends, that if ſuch a crime had been committed in the country where he had been, the thief would have been ſentenced to loſe his life. But, how well ſoever he might carry off the matter, he dreaded the conſequences to himſelf, which, in part, appeared in a few days, and were probably more ſeverely felt by him ſoon after the departure of the ſhips.

A general alarm was ſpread, occaſioned by a report, that one of our goats had been ſtolen by the beforementioned thief; and though, upon examination, every thing was found ſafe in that quarter, yet it appeared that he had deſtroyed and carried off from the grounds of Omai ſeveral vines and cabbage plants; that he had publickly threatened to put him to death, and to ſet fire to his houſe as ſoon as his European friends ſhould quit the place. To prevent his doing any farther miſchief, the captain ordered him to be ſeized, and confined again on board the ſhip, with a view of carrying him off the iſland; and this intention ſeemed to give general ſatisfaction to all the chiefs. He was a native of Bolabola; but there were too many of the people here ready to cooperate with him in all his deſigns.

Their Earee rahie was but a child; and it was not obſerved, that their was an individual, or any ſet of men, who held the reins of government for him; ſo that whenever any miſunderſtanding occurred between the Engliſh and the natives, they never knew, with ſufficient preciſion, to whom it was neceſſary to apply, in order to effect an accommodation, or procure redreſs. Early in the morning, five days after his impriſonment, the Bolabola-man found means to eſcape from his confinement, and out of the ſhip, carrying with him the ſhackle of the bilboo-bolt that had been put about his leg, which was taken from him as ſoon as he arrived on ſhore, by one of the chiefs, and given to Omai, who went with all expedition on board the ſhip, to inform

inform the captain, that his mortal enemy was again let looſe upon him.

Our people were pleaſed at hearing that the delinquent who eſcaped had gone over to Ulietea; but it was thought by ſome he only intended to conceal himſelf till their departure, when he would revenge the ſuppoſe indignity by open or ſecret attack upon Omai, whoſe houſe being nearly finiſhed, many of his moveables were carried on ſhore. Among other articles was a box of toys, which greatly pleaſed the gazing multitude; but as to his plates, diſhes, drinking mugs, glaſſes, and the whole train of apparatus, ſcarce one of his countrymen would even look at them. Omai himſelf began to think, that they would be of no ſervice to him; that a baked hog was more ſavory than a boiled one; that a plantain leaf made as good a diſh or plate as pewter; that a cocoa-nut ſhell was as convenient a goblet as one of our mugs. He therefore diſpoſed of moſt of thoſe articles of Engliſh furniture among the crew of the ſhips; and received from them in return, hatchets, and other implements, which had a more intrinſic value in this part of the world.

Among the numerous preſents beſtowed upon him in England, fireworks had not been omitted; ſome of which were now exhibited, before a great number of people, who beheld them with a mixture of pleaſure and fear. Thoſe that remained were put in order, and left with Omai, purſuant to their original deſtination.

Preparations were now made for departure from Huaheine, and every thing taken off from the ſhore except a goat big with kid, a horſe and a mare, which were left in the poſſeſſion of Omai, who was now to be finally ſeparated from his Engliſh friends. They gave him alſo a boar and two ſows, of the Engliſh breed; and he had two ſows of his own. The horſe had covered the mare at Otaheite; ſo that the introduction of a breed of horſes into theſe iſlands has probably ſucceeded by this valuable preſent.

Omai's European weapons conſiſted of a fowling-piece, two pair of piſtols, ſeveral ſwords, cutlaſſes, a muſket, bayonet, and a cartouch-box. After he had got on ſhore whatever belonged to him, he frequently invited the two captains, and moſt of the officers of both ſhips to dine with him; on which occaſion his table was plentifully ſpread with the beſt proviſions that the iſland could afford.

Omai, thus powerfully ſupported, went through the fatigues of the day better than could have been expected from the deſpondency that appeared in his countenance, when firſt the company began to aſſemble. Perhaps his awkward ſituation, between half Indian preparations, might contribute not a little to embarraſs him; for having never before made an entertainment himſelf, though he had been a partaker at many both in England and in the iſlands, he was at a loſs to conduct himſelf properly to ſo many gueſts, all of them ſuperior to himſelf in point of rank, though he might be ſaid to be ſuperior, in point of fortune, to moſt of the chiefs preſent.

Nothing, however, was wanting to impreſs the inhabitants with an opinion of his conſequence. The drums, trumpets, bagpipes, hautboys, flutes, violins, in ſhort, the whole band of muſic attended, and took it by turns to play while the dinner was getting ready; and when the company were ſeated, the whole band joined in full concert, to the admiration of crowds of the inhabitants, who were aſſembled round the houſe on this occaſion.

The dinner conſiſted, as uſual, of the various productions of the iſland, barbicued hogs, fowls dreſſed, ſome after the manner of the country, and others after the Engliſh faſhion, with plenty of wine and other liquors, with which two or three of the chiefs made very free. Dinner over, heivas and fire-works ſucceeded, and when night approached, the multitudes that attended as ſpectators, diſperſed, without the leaſt diſorder.

Before they ſet ſail, the commodore cauſed the following inſcription to be cut in the front of Omai's houſe.

Georgius tertius, Rex, 2 Novembris, 1777.
Naves { *Reſolution, Jac. Cook, Pr.*
{ *Diſcovery, Car. Clerke, Pr.*

The commodore having thus executed his main deſign, took advantage of an eaſterly breeze, and ſailed out of Owharre harbour. Upon this iſland our people had procured more than 400 hogs.

It was agreed upon, that immediately after the departure of the ſhips, Omai ſhould erect a ſpacious houſe, after the faſhion of his own country; and the chiefs of the iſland promiſed to contribute their aſſiſtance. Many of the natives continued on board till the veſſels were under ſail; when the captain, to gratify their curioſity, ordered five of the great guns to be fired. They then all departed except Omai, who remained till the ſhips went out to ſea.

Omai went on ſhore in a boat, and took a very affectionate and final leave of the captain, never to ſee him more. On this occaſion he gave him his laſt inſtructions how to act, directing him to ſend his boat to Ulietea, to acquaint him with the behaviour of the chiefs in the abſence of the ſhips, which he was to ſignify by particular and private tokens. He had endeavoured to prevail on Captain Cook to let him return to England, which made his parting with him and our officers the more affecting. If tears could have prevailed on the commander to let him return, Omai's eyes were never dry; and if the tendereſt ſupplications of a dutiful ſon to an obdurate father could have made any impreſſions, Omai hung round his neck in all the ſeeming agony of a child trying to melt the heart of a reluctant parent. He twined his arms round him with the ardour of inviolable friendſhip, till Captain Cook, unable any longer to contain himſelf, broke from and retired to his cabin, to indulge that natural ſympathy which he could not reſiſt, leaving Omai to dry up his tears, and compoſe himſelf on the quarter deck.

Having then bid farewell, he was accompanied by Lieutenant King in the boat, who informed Captain Cook he had wept all the time he was going on ſhore. It was hoped that he would exert his endeavours to bring to perfection the various fruits and vegetables that were planted by his Engliſh friends, which would be no ſmall acquiſition.

The principal advantage theſe iſlands are likely to receive from the travels of Omai, will probably ariſe from the animals that have been left upon them; which, perhaps, they never would have obtained, if he had not come over to England. When theſe multiply, Otaheite, and the Society Iſles, will equal any places in the known world, with reſpect to proviſions. Omai's return, and the ſubſtantial proofs he had diſplayed of Britiſh liberality, encouraged many to offer themſelves as volunteers to accompany our people to Pretanne.

SECTION II.

ULIETEA, OR RAIETEA.

THIS iſland is about 20 leagues in circumference. When Captain Cook, Mr. Banks and others went on ſhore, accompanied by Tupia, they were received by the natives in the moſt courteous manner; reports concerning them having been tranſmitted from Otaheite. After ſome ceremonies had paſſed, Captain Cook took poſſeſſion of this and the adjacent iſlands, in the name of the king of Great-Britain.

The

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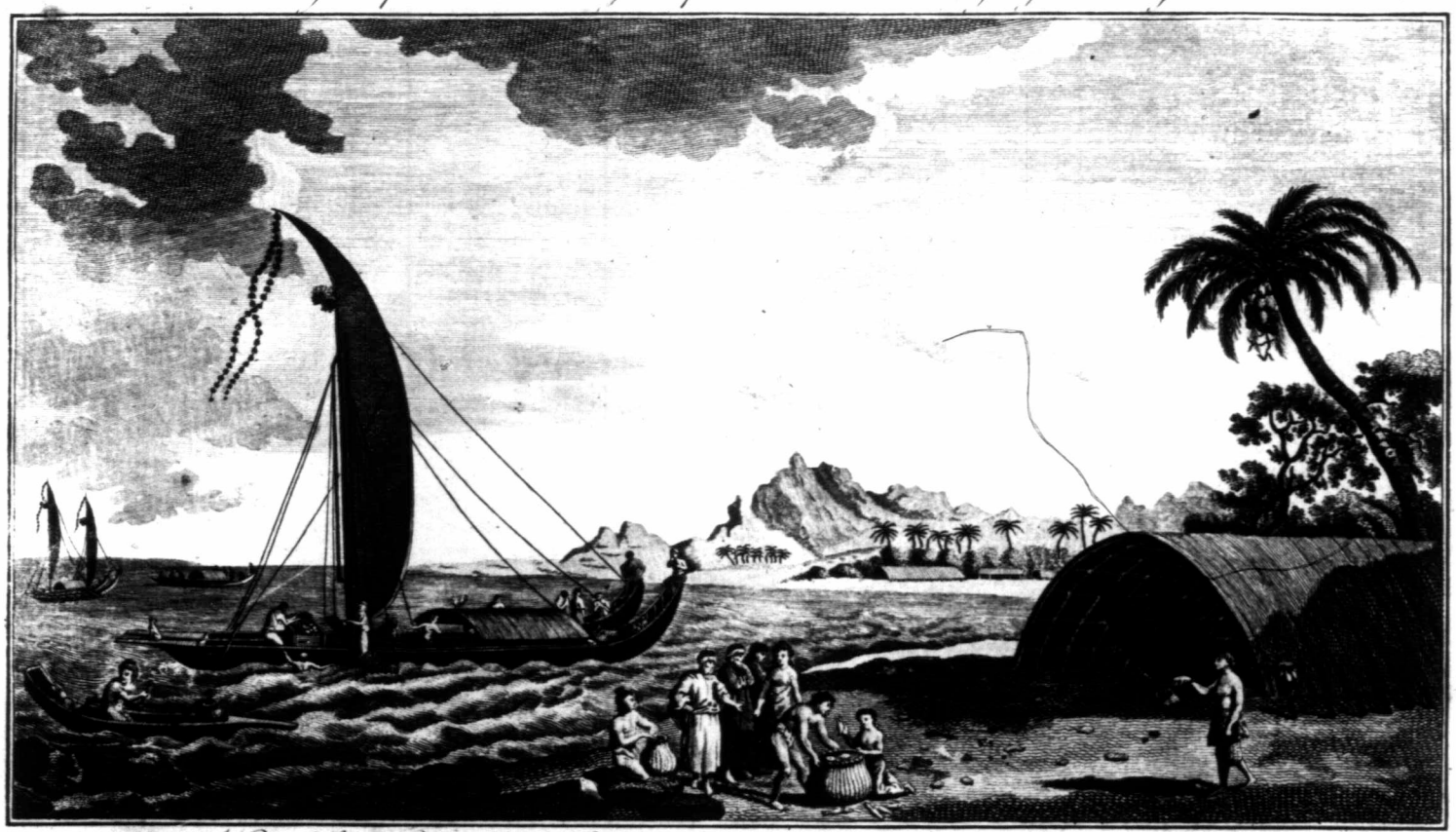

A View of the New discovered Island of **ULIETEA**, with some of its Inhabitants, a Double Canoe and other small Craft a Boat House with the Model of a double Canoe, &c.

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The country has extenſive plains and high hills, the ſoil on the top of which was found to be a kind of ſtone marle. On the ſides were ſome ſcattered flints, and a few pieces of a ſpongy ſtone *lava*, of a whitiſh colour, which ſeemed to contain ſome remains of iron; it was conjectured that great quantities of that metal might be lodged in the mountainous parts of the iſland.

Its vegetable productions are chiefly plantains, cocoa nuts and yams: thoſe of the animal kind, hogs and fowls: but the latter articles do not abound.

There is great ſimilarity in perſon, manners and cuſtoms between the natives of this and the iſlands adjacent. Ulietea, however, was diſtinguiſhed from the reſt, by a remarkable Morai, which the natives called Tapodeloatea. The walls which were about eight feet, were raiſed of coral ſtones, ſome extremely large. The whole encloſed an area, of about 25 yards ſquare, which was filled up with ſmaller ſtones. Upon an altar, at a ſmall diſtance from this encloſure, was depoſited as a ſacrifice, a hog weighing about four-ſcore pounds, very nicely waſhed.

Several ſtructures dedicated to the deities were placed about here. Theſe ſtructures are a kind of cheſt or ark, the lid of which is fixed on with art, and neatly thatched with palm-nut leaves. Each of them was fixed on two poles, the uſe of which ſeemed to be to remove it from place to place.

Another curioſity found upon this iſland, was the model of a canoe, about three feet long, to which were tied eight human jaw bones. According to Tupia's explanation, they were the jaws of the natives of the iſland, which had been hung up by the people of Bolabola, as a token or memorial of their conqueſt of the country. Tupia, indeed, pointed out to the officers, &c. as the veſſel entered the bay, the poſſeſſions which he had held upon this iſland; but of which he had been diſpoſſeſſed by the Bolabolan conquerors. This relation was confirmed by the inhabitants.

On the firſt arrival of Captain Cook here, he received a preſent of conſiderable value from Opooney, the tremendous monarch of Bolabola, who was then at the iſland of Otaha. In return for the compliment, the commander, principal officers, &c. determining to pay him a viſit; when, behold, to their aſtoniſhment, this triumphant conqueror, this ſcourge of his trembling neighbours, appeared to be nothing more than a poor enſign of mortality, tottering with the decrepitude of age, incapable of the common functions of life, and in a word a mere lumpiſh maſs.

Three extraordinary perſons were ſeen at this iſland; two of them were as brother and ſiſter: the former meaſured ſix feet four inches, and the ſiſter younger than him five feet ten inches and an half. The third was a chief named Herea, a native of Bolabola. He was the moſt corpulent man in any of the South-ſea iſlands. He meaſured round the waiſt no leſs than 54 inches; one of his thighs was 31 inches and 3-quarters in girth. His hair was likewiſe remarkable; for it hung down in long black wavey treſſes to the ſmall of his back, and in ſuch quantities, that it increaſed the apparent bulk of his head conſiderably.

When Captain Cook anchored here, on his ſecond voyage, he was viſited by Oreo, the chief, who brought with him a handſome preſent. A party of them went on ſhore to make him a return, and as they entered the houſe, were met by five old women, who were lamenting on ſome incident, and had cut their faces in a ſhocking manner. This was not the worſt part of the ſtory, for they were obliged to ſubmit to their embraces, and got themſelves covered with blood. After the ceremony was over, they waſhed themſelves, and appeared as chearful as any other perſon.

Soon after intelligence was received, that two of the Diſcovery's people, a midſhipman and a gunner's mate, had made their eſcape in a canoe, and landed on an adjoining iſland, with a view to continue their courſe to Otaheite, as ſoon as they had furniſhed themſelves with proviſions for their voyage. They were no ſooner miſſed and report made to Captain Cook, than he ordered all the boats to be manned, and a purſuit to commence with all poſſible expedition; at the ſame time putting the king, his two ſons, and two of the principal chiefs of the iſland under confinement, on board the Diſcovery, till the fugitives ſhould be taken and reſtored.

This he did, no doubt, to intereſt the people of the iſland in the purſuit, and to prevent their aſſiſting the deſerters in making their eſcape. He alſo promiſed a reward of large axes, looking-glaſſes, and other articles of conſiderable value, to any of the natives, who ſhould be inſtrumental in apprehending and bringing them back. To enforce his orders he cauſed all the veſſels to be ſeized, and threatened deſtruction to the country if his men ſhould be with-held. He even threatened the king and the young princes with death, if they were not brought back within a certain time. This might ſeem hard uſage, yet it had its effect; as without this ſteady reſolute proceeding, the deſerters would never have been recovered.

The ſhip's boats went day after day to all the adjoining iſlands, without being able to learn the leaſt trace of them; and this they continued, till having ſearched every iſland within the diſtance of two day's ſail, they were at length obliged to give over any farther ſearch as fruitleſs.

At length, after fourteen days abſence, ſome Indians came on board, and acquainted Captain Cook that the fugitives were found, and that in a few days they would be brought back; deſiring, at the ſame time, the releaſe of the priſoners, as a condition without which they would again be ſet at large. But Captain Cook paid no regard to this information. On the contrary, he renewed his threatnings, which he ſaid he would inſtantly order to be carried into execution, if the men were not delivered up.

The very day following, about five in the evening, a number of canoes were ſeen at a diſtance, making towards the ſhips, and as they approached nearer they were heard to ſing and rejoice as if they had ſucceeded in finding what they went in ſearch of. About ſix they came ſo nigh, that they could diſcern, with glaſſes, the deſerters faſtened together. They were no ſooner brought on board, than the royal priſoners were releaſed, to the unſpeakable joy of all but the two fugitives, who were under great apprehenſions for their lives; their puniſhment, however, was not ſo ſevere as might have been expected.

As ſoon as Captain Cook, on his third voyage, entered the harbour of Ulietea, in the Reſolution, having the Diſcovery, Captain Clerke, under his command, the natives ſurrounded the ſhips in their canoes, for the purpoſe of exchanging their commodities for thoſe of our people.

A few days after their arrival, a centinel on ſhore, named John Harriſon, deſerted, taking with him his muſket and accoutrements. As ſoon as intelligence was gained which way he was gone, a party was detached in ſearch of him; but they returned in the evening without ſucceſs. The next day the captain applied to the chief concerning this affair, who promiſed to ſend a party of the iſlanders after the fugitive, and gave hopes that he ſhould be brought back in the courſe of that day. This, however, did not happen; and there was reaſon to imagine, that Oreo the chief had taken no ſteps to find him.

At this time, a conſiderable number of the natives were about the ſhips, and ſeveral theſts committed, the conſequences of which, being apprehended by them, very few came on board the next morning. Oreo himſelf caught the alarm, and fled with his whole family. Captain Cook conſidered this as a good opportunity to inſiſt upon their delivering up the deſerter; and having heard he was at a place called Hamoa, ſituate on the other ſide of the iſland, he repaired thither with two armed boats, attended by a native. In their way, they met with the chief, who embarked with

them. The captain, with a few of his men, landing about a mile from the ſpot, marched up to it with great expedition, leſt the ſight of the boats ſhould give the alarm, and allow the offender ſufficient time to eſcape to the mountains. This precaution was found unneceſſary; for the natives of that part of the iſland having obtained information of the captain's approach, were prepared to deliver the deſerter. He was found with his muſket lying before him, ſeated between two women, who, the inſtant that the captain entered the houſe, roſe up to plead in his vindication.

As ſuch proceedings deſerved to be diſcouraged, the captain with a ſtern look, bid them be gone; upon which they burſt into tears, and retired. Paha, the chief of the diſtrict, now came with a ſucking pig, and a plantain-tree, which he was on the point of preſenting to Captain Cook, as a peace-offering, who rejected it; and having ordered the chief to quit his preſence, embarked with the deſerter in one of the boats, and returned to the ſhips. After this, harmony was ſpeedily reſtored. The delinquent made no other excuſe for his conduct, than that the natives had enticed him away; which, perhaps, was in a great meaſure true, as Paha, and the two women above mentioned, had been at the ſhip the day before his deſertion. As he had remained on his poſt till within a few minutes of the time in which he was to have been relieved by another, the puniſhment he received was not very ſevere.

About a fortnight after they arrived at Ulietea, Omai, according to inſtruction given him by Captain Cook, diſpatched two of his people in a canoe, with intelligence, that he continued undiſturbed by the inhabitants of Huaheine, and that every thing ſucceeded with him, except that his goat had died in kidding. This information was accompanied with a requeſt, that the captain would ſend him another goat, and alſo two axes. Pleaſed with this additional opportunity of ſerving his friend, the captain ſent back the meſſengers to Huaheine, with the two axes, and a male and female kid.

The circumſtance attending the deſertion of theſe people, and particularly the confinement of the chiefs, induced the natives to mediate an attempt for their relief, which had it not been prevented, might have involved our people in ſtill greater diſtreſs. Captain Cook being on ſhore, a-breaſt of the ſhip, obſerved all their canoes, in and about the harbour, began to move off. He enquired, in vain, for the cauſe of this; till information was received from the Diſcovery, that a body of iſlanders had ſeized Captain Clerke and Lieutenant Gore, as they were walking at a ſmall diſtance from the ſhips.

The commodore, ſtruck with the boldneſs of this ſcheme of retaliation, which ſeemed to counteract him in his own way, inſtantly commanded his people to arm; and in a few minutes, a ſtrong party, under the conduct of Mr. King, were ſent to the reſcue of the two gentlemen. At the ſame time, two armed boats were diſpatched to intercept the flying canoes in their retreat to the ſhore. Theſe detachments had ſcarcely gone out of ſight, when intelligence arrived, which proved the information erroneous, ſo that they were immediately, in conſequence of this, called in. However, it appeared from ſeveral corroborating particulars, that the natives had actually formed the deſign of ſeizing Captain Clerke: and they even made no ſecret in ſpeaking of it the following day.

The principal part of the plan of the operations was to have ſecured the perſon of Captain Cook. He was accuſtomed to bathe every morning in the freſh water; on which occaſions he frequently went alone, unarmed. Expecting him to go this evening, as uſual, they had reſolved upon ſeizing him, and Captain Clerke likewiſe, if he had accompanied him. But the commander, after confining the chief's family, had taken care to avoid putting himſelf in their power; and had cautioned Captain Clerke and the officers not to go any conſiderable diſtance from the ſhips.

Oreo, in the courſe of the afternoon, aſked the commodore, three or four times, if he would not go to the bathing place; till at length finding that he could not be prevailed upon, he retired, with his people, notwithſtanding many entreaties to the contrary. Having no ſuſpicion at this time of their deſign, Captain Cook imagined that a ſudden panic had ſeized them, which would be ſoon over. Being diſappointed with reſpect to him, they fixed upon thoſe whom they thought more in their power.

It was a fortunate circumſtance that they did not ſucceed in their deſign, and that no miſchief was done on the occaſion; no muſkets being fired except two or three to ſtop the canoes; to which firing, perhaps, Captain Clerke and Mr. Gore owed their ſafety; but Mr. King aſcribed this to the captain's walking with a piſtol in his hand, which, he ſays, he once fired; at which time a party of the iſlanders, armed with clubs, were marching towards them, but diſperſed on hearing the report of the muſkets.

This conſpiracy was firſt diſcovered by a girl, who had been brought from Huaheine by one of our officers. Happening to over-hear ſome of the Ulieteans ſay, they would ſeize Captain Clerke and Mr. Gore ſhe immediately ran to acquaint the firſt of our people that ſhe met with of the deſign. Thoſe who had been truſted with the execution of the plan threatened to put her to death, as ſoon as the ſhips ſhould quit Ulietea, for diſappointing them. Being aware of this, it was ſo contrived, that the girl's friends ſhould come a day or two afterwards, and take her out of the ſhip, to convey her to a place where ſhe might remain concealed till an opportunity ſhould offer for her eſcaping to Huaheine.

This is the laſt occurrence worthy of notice till the ſhips took their departure from Ulietea.

The iſland of Ulietea differs eſſentially from the reſt of the Society Iſlands in one particular inſtance, which is, that the women have more liberty here, and are not reſtrained from eating in company with the men.

SECTION III.

BOLABOLA, &c. &c.

THIS iſland is ſituated about four leagues diſtance from Otaha; ſurrounded by a reef of coral rocks, and ſeveral ſmall iſlands, in compaſs together about eight leagues, and made up of one forked peak, with ſeven low iſlands round it.

Oteeavanooa, the harbour of Bolabola, lying on the weſt ſide of the iſland, is very capacious, and though our countrymen did not enter it, they had the ſatisfaction of being informed, by perſons employed for that purpoſe, that it was a very proper place for the reception of ſhips. There are many little iſlets that ſurround it, which add to the number of its inhabitants, and the amount of its vegetable productions.

The principal reaſon that induced Captain Cook to touch at this iſland on his voyage was to procure one of the anchors which had been loſt at Otaheite by Monſieur de Bougainville, which he was informed, had been afterwards found by the natives there, and ſent by them to Opoony, the chief of Bolabola. It was not on account of the want of anchors that he was anxious to get poſſeſſion of it; but the people having parted with all the hatchets and other iron tools and implements, in purchaſing refreſhments, they were now obliged to create a freſh aſſortment of trading articles, by fabricating them from the ſpare iron they could find on board, and even the greateſt part of that had been already expended. Captain Cook, therefore, ſuppoſed Monſ. de Bougainville's anchor would, in a great meaſure, ſupply the want of that uſeful material, and he did not entertain a doubt but Opoony might be induced to part with it.

Oreo,

Oreo, accompanied by ſix or eight others from Ulietea, attended the commodore to Bolabola; and, indeed, moſt of the natives, except the chief, would gladly have taken their paſſage to England.

The commodore, immediately on landing, was introduced to Opoony, ſurrounded by a vaſt concourſe of people. The neceſſary formality of compliments being over, he requeſted the chief to give him the anchor; and by way of inducement produced the preſent he intended for him. It conſiſted of a linen nightgown, ſome gauſe handkerchiefs, a ſhirt, a looking-glaſs, ſome beads and toys, and ſix axes. Opoony, however, refuſed to accept the preſent till the commodore had received the anchor; and ordered three perſons to go and deliver it to him, with directions to receive from h m what he thought proper in return. With theſe meſſengers perſons deputed ſet out in boats for a neighbouring iſland, where the anchor had been depoſited; but it was neither ſo large or ſo perfect as was expected. By the mark that was upon it, it appeared to have originally weighed 700 pounds; but it now wanted the two palms, the ring, and part of the ſhank. The reaſon of Opoony's refuſing Captain Cook's preſent was now apparent; he, doubtleſs, ſuppoſed that the anchor, in its then ſtate, was ſo much inferior to its former value, that, when he ſaw it he would be diſpleaſed. The commodore, notwithſtanding, took the anchor as he found it, and ſent the whole of the preſent which he at firſt intended.

When the diſparity in point of extent between Bolabola and ſome others of the Society Iſlands which greatly exceed it is conſidered, it is remarkable that it ſhould acquire and maintain a predominance. We therefore preſume that the following conciſe account of the war by which it was effected will be acceptable and entertaining.

Ulietea and Otaha had long been friends; or, as the natives emphatically expreſs it, they were conſidered as two brothers, whoſe views and intereſts were the ſame. The iſland of Huaheine was alſo admitted as a friend, but not in ſo eminent a degree. Like a traitor Otaha leagued with Bolabola, jointly to attack Ulietea, whoſe people required the aſſiſtance of their friends in Huaheine againſt thoſe united powers. The inhabitants of Bolabola were encouraged by a pretended propheteſs, who predicted their ſucceſs.

Elevated with the hopes of victory, the canoes of Bolabola attacked thoſe of Ulietea and Huaheine: the encounter laſted long, they being laſhed ſtrongly together with ropes; and, notwithſtanding the prediction, the Bolabola fleet would have been vanquiſhed, had not that of Otaha arrived at the critical moment. The fortune of the day was now turned; victory declared in favour of the Bolabolans; and their enemies were totally defeated. Two days after the conquerors invaded Huaheine, which they ſubdued, it being weakly defended, as moſt of its warriors were then abſent. Many of its fugitives, however, having got to Otaheite, there related their melancholy tale. This ſo affected thoſe of their own country, and of Ulietea, whom they found in that iſland, that they obtained their aſſiſtance. They were furniſhed with only ten fighting canoes; with which inconſiderable force they effected a landing at Huaheine in the night; and, taking the Bolabola men by ſurprize, killed many of them, and diſperſed the reſt. Thus were they again, by one bold effort, poſſeſſed of their own iſland, which at this day remains independent, and is governed by its own chiefs. When the combined fleets of Ulietea and Huaheine were defeated, the men of Bolabola were applied to by their allies of Otaha to be allowed an equal ſhare of the conqueſts. This being refuſed the alliance broke; and, during the war, Otaha was conquered as well as Ulietea, both of which remain ſubject to Bolabola; the chiefs by whom they are governed being only deputies to Opoony the king of the iſlands. Such is the account of the war; and in the reduction of the two iſlands five battles were fought at different places, in which great numbers were killed on each ſide.

So exceedingly deficient are the natives in recollecting the exact dates of paſt events, that though this war happened but a few years ago, our people could not gueſs with any preciſion at the time of its commencement and duration. Since the conqueſt of Ulietea and Otaha, the Bolabola men are conſidered as invincible; and their fame is ſo far extended, that, even at Otaheite, if not dreaded, they are reſpected for their valour. It is aſſerted, they never fly from an enemy, and that they are victorious againſt an equal number of the other iſlanders.

The eſtimation in which the people of Bolabola are held at Otaheite may be gathered from M. de Bougainville's anchor having been ſent to their ſovereign. The intention of tranſporting the Spaniſh bull to their iſland muſt be aſcribed to the ſame cauſe. They alſo had a third European curioſity brought to Otaheite by the Spaniards. This animal had been ſo imperfectly deſcribed by the natives, that our voyagers had been much puzzled to conjecture what it could be. When Captain Clerke's deſerters, however, were brought back from Bolabola, they ſaid the animal had been ſhewn to them, and that it was a ram. Had our men not deſerted, it is probable more would have been known about it. In conſequence of this intelligence, Captain Cook, when he landed to meet Opoony, took an ewe with him in the boat, of the Cape of Good Hope breed, whereby a foundation is laid for a breed of ſheep at Bolabola. He alſo left with Oreo, at Ulietea, two goats, and an Engliſh boar and ſow: ſo that the race of hogs will be conſiderably improved, in a few years at Otaheite, and all the neighbouring iſlands; and they will, perhaps, be ſtocked with many valuable European animals. When this is really the caſe, theſe iſlands will be unrivalled in abundance and variety of refreſhments for the ſupply of future navigators. Even in their preſent ſtate they are hardly to be excelled. When the inhabitants are not diſturbed by inteſtine broils, which had been the caſe for ſeveral years paſt, their productions are numerous and plentiful.

As the following mode of curing pork adopted by Captain Cook in his ſeveral voyages proved of very ſalutary effect, it is preſented on its preſumed benefit to future navigators.

The hogs were killed in the evening, and, when cleaned, were cut up, after which the bones were taken out. The meat was ſalted while hot, and laid in ſuch a manner as to permit the juices to drain from it, till the next morning; it was then ſalted again, put into a caſk, and covered with pickle. It remained, in this ſituation, four or five days, when it was taken out, and carefully examined; and if any of it appeared to be in the leaſt tainted, which ſometimes happened, it was ſeparated from the reſt, which was repacked, headed up, and filled with good pickle. It was again examined in about eight or ten days time, but there appeared no neceſſity for it, as it was generally found to be all thoroughly cured. Bay and white ſalt mixed together anſwers the beſt, though either of them will do alone. Great care was taken that none of the large blood-veſſels remained in the meat; and that not too much ſhould be packed together at the firſt ſalting, leſt thoſe pieces which are in the middle ſhould heat, and hinder the ſalt from penetrating them. In tropical climates, meat ought not to be ſalted in rainy and ſultry weather.

Captain Cook quitted Bolabola, and took leave of the Society Iſlands the 8th of December 1777.

OTAHA.

This iſland in all general reſpects bears reſemblance to thoſe adjacent. It is not populous. The harbour on the eaſt ſide was found ſafe and convenient, with good anchorage.

Otaha is ſituated within about two miles of Ulietea, but as both iſlands are encloſed in one reef of coral rocks, there is no paſſage for ſhipping between them.

Like the inhabitants of every part of this ſocial ſpot, they

they received our countrymen who landed from the boat on their coaſt with all tokens of courteſy, and paid particular reſpect to Mr. Banks and Dr. Solander, uſing the ſame honorary compliments to them as they did to their kings.

TUBAL.

This iſland is very inconſiderable, producing nothing but cocoa-nuts, and is ſaid to be inhabited only by three families. As the coaſt abounds with fiſh, the ſhore is frequently viſited by the people of the adjacent iſlands.

MAWRUA, or MOROUA,

Is a ſmall iſland ſurrounded with a reef of rocks, and has no harbour for ſhipping. It has ſome few inhabitants, and produces the ſame articles with thoſe adjacent. In the midſt of it is an high round hill, which may be ſeen at the diſtance of ten leagues.

SECTION IV.

Perſons, Diſpoſition, Manners, Cuſtoms, Religion, &c. of the Inhabitants of the Society Iſlands in general.

AS the productions, both animal and vegetable, of theſe iſlands reſemble, in a very near degree, thoſe of Otaheite heretofore deſcribed, we ſhall paſs them over, and proceed to the conſideration of ſuch particulars only as are conducive to our main deſign.

Theſe iſlanders in general are ſtout and well made, and many of them tall. They are not of ſo dark a complexion as thoſe of Otaheite, and the women are in general as handſome, and nearly of the ſame colour as Europeans.

With reſpect to diſpoſition, they are exceeding indolent, and have very little curioſity. Dogs, in ſpite of their ſtupidity, are in great favour with all the women, "who (ſays an ingenious obſerver) could not have ca-"reſſed them with a more ridiculous affection if they "had been European ladies of faſhion." Here was ſeen a middle aged woman, whoſe breaſts were full of milk, offering them to a little puppy that had been trained up to ſuck them: the ſight diſguſted thoſe who ſaw it to ſuch a degree that they could not forbear expreſſing their diſlike of it; but the women only ſmiled at them, and ſaid, that ſhe ſuffered little pigs to do the ſame: it appeared afterwards that this woman had loſt her child.

The veneration of the inhabitants for certain kinds of birds is evident from the following circumſtance. On a ſhooting party our people happened to kill ſeveral king-fiſhers; and juſt as they had brought down one of thoſe birds, they met Oreo and his family walking with Captain Cook; the chief took no notice of the bird, but his fair daughter lamented the death of her Eatooa; her mother, and moſt of the women, ſeemed alſo grieved at its fate; and on ſtepping into the boat, Oreo himſelf deſired them, with a very ſerious air, not to kill the king-fiſhers and the herons, allowing them, at the ſame time, the liberty of killing any other ſorts of birds.

The inhabitants mix the cocoa-nuts with yams, and make a food which they call *poe*; having ſcraped both very fine, and mixed them together, they put the whole into a kind of wooden trough, with a number of hot ſtones, by which an oily kind of haſty pudding is produced, which, when fried, taſtes very agreeable.

Great quantities of the root called *ava ava* are cultivated in theſe iſlands, with which the natives make their intoxicating liquor. This is no other than the pepper plant. It ſeems, however, that drunkenneſs here is puniſhed like all other exceſſes, with diſeaſes; the old men who make a practice of hard-drinking are lean, and covered with a ſcaly or ſcabby ſkin, have red eyes, and red botches on all parts of their bodies: they acknowledge theſe evils to ariſe from intemperance, and perhaps thoſe leprous diſorders that ſome were ſeen to be afflicted with at Otaheite are produced by taking large potions of this liquor.

Their entertainments of a public nature conſiſt of dancing, and a kind of dramatic exhibition.

As their dances reſemble thoſe of Otaheite, already deſcribed, we paſs on to ſome account of their dramatic exhibitions, as well as feſtive entertainments, which, from their ſingularity, are worthy of attention.

A party of our people were preſent at Ulietea, where a performance was exhibited, called by the natives *Mi-diddij Marramy*; which ſignifies "the child is coming." It concluded with a repreſentation of a woman in labour, acted by a ſet of great brawny fellows, one of whom brought forth a great ſtrapping boy about ſix feet high, who ran about the ſtage, dragging after him a large whiſp of ſtraw, which hung by a ſtring from his middle. Captain Cook obſerved, that the moment they got hold of the fellow, they flattened or preſſed his noſe, from whence he concludes, that their new-born infants are ſo treated, which accounts for the natives in general having flat noſes.

The only actreſs at Oreo's theatre was his daughter Poyadua, a pretty brown girl, at whoſe ſhrine many offerings were made by her numerous votaries on theſe occaſions.

Another dramatic exhibition was preſented to our people at Huaheine: the piece repreſented a girl running away from her parents, and ſeemed to be levelled at a female paſſenger whom they had brought from Otaheite, who happened to be preſent at the repreſentation. It had ſuch an impreſſion upon the girl, that ſhe could ſcarcely be perſuaded to ſee the piece out, or to refrain from tears while acting. It concluded with the reception ſhe was ſuppoſed to meet with from her friends at her return, which was made out to be not a very favourable one.

Theſe people introduce extempore pieces on occaſion, and it is moſt probable, that this was meant as a ſatyr upon the girl, and to diſcourage others from acting in the ſame manner.

Oreo likewiſe gave a public dinner to the captains Cook and Furneaux, ſeveral of the officers of both ſhips, and the paſſengers. On this occaſion a great part of the ſpacious houſe was ſpread with large quantities of leaves, which ſerved for a table-cloth, round which the viſitants ſeated themſelves, together with the principal people of the iſland. Soon after, one of the ſervants, or towtows, brought a hog ſmoaking on his ſhoulders, which was roaſted whole, and wrapped in a large bundle of plantain leaves; this he threw upon the floor, round which the company was ſeated. Another ſmaller hog was toſſed in the ſame manner, and both ſo hot as hardly to be touched; the table, or rather floor, was garniſhed about with hot bread fruit and plantains, with a quantity of cocoa-nuts for drink. Each man being ready with his knife in his hand, the hogs were prettily cut to pieces, and the European part of the company agreed, that they taſted better than an Engliſh barbicue: the equal degree of heat with which it ſtews under ground, had preſerved and concentrated all its juices; the fat was not luſcious and furfeiting, and the ſkin, inſtead of being very hard, which is the caſe of roaſted pork with us, was as tender as any other part. One of theſe hogs weighed between 50 and 60 pounds, and the other about half as much, yet all the parts were equally done.

The chief, his ſon, and ſome others of his male friends, partook of this repaſt with their gueſts: the men eat with great guſt; but all the women were ſtationed behind, and were not admitted as ſharers in the feaſt.

It is the cuſtom at theſe iſlands for all the great families to have burial places of their own, where their remains are interred. This undoubtedly gave riſe to Oreo's enquiring of Captain Cook, (when he could

not

not obtain his promiſe to return in departing from Ulietea in his ſecond voyage,) the name of his Morai, or burying-place. Hence it appears that theſe people could not give a greater proof of their affection to their Engliſh friends, than in expreſſing a deſire to remember them even beyond the period of their lives.

From the beſt accounts that could be obtained of the religion of the inhabitants of the Society Iſlands, it appeared that they had a diverſity of gods peculiar to each iſland. But they believe in general every man to have a ſeparate being within himſelf, named *Tee*, which acts in conſequence of the impreſſion of the ſenſes, and combines ideas into thoughts, which they call *paroo no te oboo*, which literally ſignifies "words in the belly." This mind they ſuppoſe to have an exiſtence after the diſſolution of the body, and that the man in that ſtate feaſts on bread-fruit and pork, which need no preparation from the fire.

Beſides their greater divinities, they have a number of inferior ones, ſome of whom they ſuppoſe to be inimical to mankind. The high prieſt of the iſland is called Tahowarahai; to him the Eatooa, or God, is ſuppoſed to deſcend, and hold converſe with him, whilſt he remains inviſible to the people that ſurround him. Offerings are made to the deities of hogs and poultry roaſted, and all kinds of eatables; but the inferior, and particularly the malevolent ſpirits, are only revered by a kind of hiſſing.

The prieſts in theſe iſlands continue in office for life, and the dignity is hereditary. The high prieſt is always an Earee who has the higheſt rank next to the king.

They are conſulted upon many important occaſions; partake largely of the good things of the country, and, in ſhort, have found means to make themſelves neceſſary.

Beſides the prieſts, there are in every diſtrict teachers, or *tata-o-rerros*, who inſtruct the people in aſtronomy and the navigation of thoſe Seas.

CHAP. XI.

Deſcription of the MARQUESAS ISLANDS, and the Low Iſlands to the South-Weſt.

SECTION I.

MARQUESAS ISLANDS.

THIS group of iſlands being diſcovered in 1597, by Mendana, a Spaniard, received from him the general appellation of Marqueſas, as did the reſpective iſlands which compoſe it (one excepted) their particular names. Theſe are La Magdalena, St. Pedro, La Dominica, and Santa Chriſtina.

Hood Iſland, not ſeen by Mendana, but diſcovered by Captain Cook in April 1774, was ſo called, by him, from the name of one of the crew of the Reſolution, who firſt ſaw the land. The whole group of theſe iſlands occupy one degree of latitude, and near half a degree of longitude.

HOOD ISLAND

Is the moſt northern of the group, and ſituated five leagues and a half from the eaſt end of La Dominica, in latitude 9 deg. 26 min. ſouth, and 139 deg. 13 min. weſt longitude.

LA MAGDALENA

Was only ſeen at 9 leagues diſtance, and was ſuppoſed to be about 5 leagues in circuit, to lie in latitude 10 deg. 25 min. ſouth, and longitude 138 deg. 50 min. weſt.

ST. PEDRO,

Called by the natives *Onateyo*, is very inconſiderable in extent, fertility and number of inhabitants. It is about three leagues and an half diſtant from the eaſt end of La Dominica.

LA DOMINICA

Is ſix leagues in extent, and fifteen in circumference. This iſland is called by the natives Heevaroa; is in general mountainous; but, to the northward, there are vallies covered with trees, among which a few huts are ſcattered. It appears, from many craggy rocks, like ſpires, and ſeveral hollow ſummits, in the centre of the iſland, that it has been ſubject to the tremendous effects of volcanos and earthquakes. All the eaſtern ſide is one prodigious ſteep, almoſt perpendicular, of vaſt elevation, which forms a ſharp ridge ſcattered into ſpires and precipices.

ST. CHRISTINA,

Called by the natives WAITAAOA, is the moſt weſtern of the group, and lies in latitude 9 deg. 55 min. ſouth, and longitude 139 deg. 8 min. weſt. It is in extent, from north to ſouth, about three leagues, and about ſeven or eight in circumference. One ridge of hills runs through the iſland; but the vallies are luxuriant in vegetation, and watered by ſweet rivulets. The ſoil is rich, well cultivated, and copious in it productions. This iſland has alſo undergone the effects of volcanos, as different kinds of lava, ſome of which were full of white and greeniſh ſhells, were ſeen on the rocks. On the weſtern ſide, under the higheſt land is an harbour, in which Mendana anchored in 1595, and to which he gave the appellation of *Madre de Dios*; but Captain Cook called it Reſolution Bay.

SECTION II.

Perſons. Dreſs. Habitations. Canoes. Weapons. Beaſts. Birds. Food. Drink. Diſpoſition, &c. of the Inhabitants of the Marqueſas Iſlands in general.

THE inhabitants of the Marqueſas Iſlands in general are declared, by Captain Cook, to excel all the nations of the South Seas, in ſymetry of form and regularity of features. He mentions in particular, that not one diſproportioned perſon was ſeen upon the iſland of Chriſtina; but that all were robuſt, well made and active. Their countenances were open and lively. The men are about five feet ſix inches in ſtature; their hair is of divers colours, but none red. It is moſtly worn ſhort, unleſs it be a bunch tied in a knot on each ſide of the crown. Their complexion, naturally tawny, is rendered almoſt black by punctures over the whole body. Their only covering was a ſmall piece of cloth round the waiſt and loins.

The women were inferior to the men in ſtature, but well

well proportioned. Their general complexion was brown. They were ſome of them punctured, and their body dreſs was a ſingle piece of cloth made of the mulberry bark, which covered them from the ſhoulders to the knees.

They uſe a head-dreſs, a kind of broad fillet, curiouſly made of the fibres of the huſks of cocoa-nuts. This fillet is interſperſed with mother-of-pearl and tortoiſe-ſhells, wrought into curious figures, and diſplayed in divers forms. To the fillet is fixed the tail feathers of tropic birds, which, ſtanding upright when it is tied on, the whole together makes a very brilliant appearance. They wear a kind of ruff, or necklace, made of light wood; the outer and upper ſides covered with ſmall peas, fixed on with gum. They have alſo ſome bunches of human hair faſtened to a ſtring and tied round the legs and arms.

But no one perſon is ever decorated with all theſe ornaments. They were none of them held in eſtimation like the human hair, the bunches of which, it is probable, were worn in remembrance of their deceaſed relations, and therefore looked upon with a degree of veneration. Or, they might have been the ſpoils of their enemies, worn as badges of conqueſt.

They had a kind of fan to cool themſelves in hot weather, formed of a tough bark or graſs, very firmly and curiouſly plaited, and frequently whitened with ſhell lime. Some had large feathered leaves of a kind of palm, which anſwered the purpoſe of an umbrella.

The king, on a viſit to Captain Cook, was completely decorated with all theſe ornaments, and the only one ever ſeen ſo dreſſed. He complimented the captain with ſome preſents, and gave him to underſtand the ſuperiority of his rank.

Their extraordinary ornaments are necklaces and amulets made of ſhells. They had all their ears pierced, though none were ſeen with ear-rings.

Their habitations, which are in the vallies and on the ſides of the hills near the plantations, reſemble, in form, thoſe of Otaheite, but are much meaner, and covered with leaves of the bread-fruit tree. They are built, in general, on a ſquare or oblong pavement of ſtone, raiſed ſome height above the level of the ground. They have alſo a pavement near their houſes for the purpoſe of ſitting to eat, regale and amuſe themſelves. Our people, by the help of glaſſes, could diſcern, along the uppermoſt edge of a mountain, a row of ſtakes or palliſades cloſely connected together, like a fortification, which ſeemed to reſemble the Hippahs of New Zealand already deſcribed.

Their canoes are like thoſe of Otaheite in form, but not in ſize. On the heads was a human face, coarſely carved. The ſails were compoſed of mats of a triangular form, and broad at the top. The paddles were ſhort, but ſharp pointed, with a knob at the upper end. The general length of the canoes were from ſixteen to twenty feet, and the breadth about fifteen inches.

Their weapons were plain ſpears, clubs, and ſlings. The two former were made of the club-wood, or caſuarina. They threw ſtones with their ſlings with great velocity, and to a great diſtance, but were not expert marksmen.

Hogs and rats were the only quadrupeds ſeen here. There were alſo fowls, and many ſmall birds in the woods, that warbled moſt melodiouſly. Notwithſtanding theſe iſlands produce fowls, hogs, and, at certain times, fiſh in abundance, the inhabitants ſubſiſt chiefly on vegetable food. As cocoa nuts do not abound, pure water is their drink in ordinary. In the article of eating, theſe people are by no means ſo cleanly as thoſe of Otaheite. They are alſo dirty in their cookery. Pork and fowls are dreſſed in an oven of hot ſtones: but fruit and roots they roaſt on the fire; and after taking off the rind or ſkin, put them into a platter or trough, with water, out of which Captain Cook affirms he ſaw both men and hogs eat at the ſame time: though he very candidly acknowledges, that the actions of a few individuals, ſhould by no means fix a ſtigma on a whole nation.

From the volcanic productions beforementioned, it appears that theſe iſlands are ſimilar in their origin, and the nature of their minerals, to the Society Iſlands, the greater part of which ſeem to have been burning mountains.

Theſe iſlanders diſcovered the ſame timidity on the approach of ſtrangers, in common with the natives of thoſe ſouthern climes; nor could be induced for ſome time, to come on board the ſhips, by any ſigns of friendſhip that could be made them. They ventured indeed to come along-ſide, and offered ſome pepper-roots, which were fixed on the ſhrouds, as tokens of reciprocal friendſhip. The exchange of nails for fiſh and bread-fruit, in great perfection, was highly ſalutary, as well as gratifying to the whole ſhip's company, who, for the courſe of nineteen weeks, had ſubſiſted on ſalt proviſions, which having then been two years on board, were neither agreeable in flavour, nor of a nutritive quality. The canoes retired a little after ſun-ſet, according to the general cuſtom of the natives of the South-ſea iſlands, who cannot be prevailed on to keep awake a ſingle night, by the moſt attracting novelty.

Such parts of theſe iſlands as are capable of cultivation as are very populous; but as they are in general mountainous, and have many inacceſſible rocks, it is doubted whether the whole group contain fifty thouſand inhabitants. According to Dalrymple's account, the manners of thoſe people are gentle and inoffenſive: though theſe good qualities did not prevent the Spaniards, on their firſt landing, from butchering ſeveral of the natives at Magdalena.

Intercourſe had not long been held between our people and the natives, before it was evident they were more diſpoſed to receive than to give; for having taken a nail in exchange for ſome bread-fruit, they with-held the article ſo purchaſed, till Captain Cook had recourſe to the ordinary means of firing a muſket over their heads, and thus terrified them into fair dealing.

Nor were theſe iſlanders exempt from that propenſity to theft, which characterizes the nations of the South Seas. Soon after they had courage enough to venture on board, one of them ſtole an iron ſtaunchion from the gangway, with which he ſprang into the ſea, and notwithſtanding its weight, ſwam with it to his canoe, and was making to the ſhore with all ſpeed. A muſket was fired over his head to frighten him back, but to no effect; he ſtill continued to make off with his booty. The whiſtling of another ball over his head was as ineffectual. An officer, leſs patient of ſuch an injury than reaſon and humanity ſhould have taught him to be, leveſſed at him, and ſhot him through the head. Captain Cook had given orders to fire *over* the canoe, but not to kill any one. He was in a boat, and came up with the canoe ſoon after. There were two men in her; one ſat bailing out the blood and water, in a kind of hyſteric laugh; the other, a youth of about fourteen or fifteen years of age, who afterwards proved to be the ſon of the deceaſed, fixed his eyes on the dead body, with a ſerious and dejected countenance. This act of ſeverity, however, did not eſtrange the iſlanders to the ſhip, and a traffic was carried on to the ſatisfaction of both parties. Bread-fruit, bananas, plantains, and ſome hogs, were given in exchange for ſmall nails, knives, and pieces of Amſterdam cloth. Red feathers of the Amſterdam iſland were greatly eſteemed here. Captain Cook, accompanied with the gentlemen of the ſhip, in their walks about the country, came accidentally to the houſe which had been the habitation of the man who had been ſhot; there they found his ſon, who fled at their approach: they enquired for his female relations, and were told that they remained at the top of the mountain to weep and mourn for the dead. Notwithſtanding they were then among the relations of a man who had been killed by them, not the leaſt tokens of animoſity or revenge, were diſcernible among the natives.

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As theſe iſlanders, like the natives of the Society Iſles, look on themſelves as one family, ſo they entertained an idea of the ſame relative tie ſubſiſting between our people. A ſailor having been chaſtiſed by Captain Cook for neglect of duty, they exclaimed, on ſeeing him receive ſeveral blows, *tape-ahai-te-tina!* "He "beats his brother!" From other inſtances, however, that occured, it was evident that they knew the ſuperiority of the commander over his people.

When the natives became familiar with our people, they frequently danced upon deck, for the diverſion of the ſailors. Their dances and muſical performances reſemble thoſe of Otaheite; as did their language, more than any other dialect in the South Seas.

SECTION III.

Deſcription of Iſlands termed by Navigators, "The Low "Iſlands in the South-Weſt."

THE moſt conſiderable of this group of iſlands, which are connected by a reef of coral rocks, and lie ſcattered in general, between the latitude of 14 deg. 28 min. ſouth, and the longitude of 138 deg. and 56 min. weſt, are the following: King George's, Diſappointment, Palliſer, Dog, Queen Charlotte's, Lagoon, Thumb-Cap, Bow, The Groups, Bird, Chain, Oſnaburg, and Pitcairn Iſlands. Of theſe we ſhall treat in their reſpective order.

KING GEORGE's ISLANDS.

Theſe are two iſlands, firſt diſcovered by Commodore Byron in 1765. When the Engliſh firſt went on ſhore, they found many huts deſerted by the natives, the dogs being the only tenants; and thoſe animals, terrified by the appearance of ſtrangers, kept an inceſſant howling all the time they continued on ſhore. The hovels, though very mean and low, were ſituated in a charming ſpot, amidſt a grove of lofty trees, ſome of which were the cocoa, and others of a ſpecies unknown. The natives ſeemed to derive the neceſſaries of life in general, from the cocoa nut tree, as it ſupplied them not only with food, but ſails, cordage, and timber. The cocoa-palm may well be deemed the ſtaple of life, as it produces every eſſential requiſite for the ſupport of many nations on the globe. Every part of it is converted to ſome uſeful purpoſe: as for inſtance; the nuts, whilſt green, contain a liquor pleaſant to the palate, and of a quality ſo ſingularly cooling, that it allays thirſt, and affords refreſhment in a hot climate, beyond any other production. When in due progreſs the kernel forms, it is at firſt of the ſubſtance of a rich cream; and afterwards growing rich and oily, like an almond, becomes equally balſamic and nouriſhing. The oil extracted from it is adapted to divers purpoſes, and particularly that of anointing the hair, and frequently the whole body. Cups are made of the hard ſhell; and a variety of cordage, elaſtic and durable, from the fibrous coating around it. Several articles of Indian houſehold furniture, and divers kinds of ornaments, are fabricated of theſe materials. The long-feathered leaves or branches, which ſpread from the top of the ſtem, are convenient coverings for their houſes; and thoſe, when plaited, make excellent baſkets for proviſions. A cloth ſufficient for covering the body in a hot climate is made of the inner bark: and the very ſtem itſelf when grown too old to bear, may be uſed in the conſtruction of a hut, or the maſt of a canoe. All theſe very eſſential benefits are derived from this one production.

The ſhore was covered with coral, and the ſhells of very large pearl oyſters.

The beſt deſcription that can be given of the natives, their cuſtoms, &c. from Commodore Byron's account, is the following. The women wear a piece of cloth hanging from the waiſt down to the knee; and the men were naked. Near their houſes were buildings of a different kind, which were ſuppoſed to be burying places. Theſe were ſituated under lofty trees, the ſides and tops were of ſtone; and in their figure, they ſometimes reſembled the ſquare tombs with a flat top, which are in our country church-yards. Near theſe buildings were found many neat boxes, full of human bones: and upon the branches of the trees which ſhaded them hung a great number of the heads and bones of turtle, and a variety of fiſh, encloſed in a kind of baſket-work of reeds; on examining which, nothing appeared to remain but the ſkin and the teeth: the bones and entrails ſeemed to have been extracted, and the muſcular fleſh dried away.

But Captain Cook, who gives a more ample and ſatisfactory account of them, ſailed between theſe two iſlands in April 1774: he ſays they lie nearly eaſt and weſt. The iſland to the eaſtward is called by the natives *Tiookea*; it is ſomething of an oval ſhape, and about ten leagues in circuit. The inhabitants of this iſland, and probably of all the low ones, are of a much darker colour than thoſe of the higher iſlands, and of an hoſtile diſpoſition. Their origin is doubtleſs one and the ſame; but being dependent on the ſea for a ſubſiſtence, and from their way of life expoſed to the ſun and weather, their colour is darker, and their bodies become more hardy and robuſt. The figure of a fiſh is punctured or marked on their bodies. A lieutenant, with two boats well armed, were ſent on ſhore; two gentlemen were of the party; they landed without any oppoſition from the natives. As ſoon as they came on ſhore, the iſlanders embraced them by touching noſes, a mode of civility uſed in New Zealand, which is ſome hundred leagues diſtance, and the chief place beſides this where the cuſtom has been obſerved to prevail.

Our naturaliſts found here various plants, and particularly a ſcurvy-graſs. The natives ſhewed them that they bruiſed this plant, mixed it with ſhell-fiſh, and threw it into the ſea, whenever they perceived a ſhoal of fiſh, which, intoxicated by it, were caught on the ſurface of the water without trouble. The ſoil is but barren, the foundation conſiſting of coral, very little elevated above the ſurface of the water.

The officer of the boats perceiving the Indians collecting into a body, having diſtributed preſents to thoſe who ſurrounded him, ſoon prepared to go, deſirous of avoiding any affray. The collected body crowded about the boats, and ſeemed doubtful whether they ſhould detain our people, or ſuffer them to depart. At length, however, they aſſiſted them in puſhing off the boats. Some of the moſt turbulent threw ſtones into the water, and ſeemed to glory as if they had driven them off. Captain Cook, from this circumſtance, found it expedient to give orders for firing four or five cannon ſhot into the ſea, cloſe by the ſhore, and over the heads of the Indians, as they were ſeated along the beach, to ſhew them that they were entirely at the mercy of their viſitors. Notwithſtanding theſe inimical appearances, the party brought off to the ſhip five dogs, with which the iſland ſeemed to be plentifully ſupplied. Theſe they purchaſed with ſmall nails, and ſome ripe bananas, which latter they brought from the Marqueſas. The dogs had fine long hair, and were of a white colour.

The other iſland, which is inconſiderable, is ſituated two leagues to the weſtward of Tiookea, is four leagues in length, and from five to three miles in breadth.

ISLANDS OF DISAPPOINTMENT.

Theſe were firſt diſcovered by Commodore Byron in 1765, and ſo named from the ſhores affording no anchorage for his ſhips, on which account he was obliged to quit them, without landing or procuring any refreſhments for his crew, who were then languiſhing with ſickneſs. They are a cluſter of ſmall iſlands, and lie in latitude 14 deg. 10 min. ſouth; longitude, 141 deg. 6 min. weſt. They are inhabited by Indians, who appeared on the beach with ſpears in their hands, that were at leaſt ſixteen feet long. They every where diſcovered

hoſtile

hoſtile intenſions, and ſeemed by ſigns, to threaten the people in the boat with death, if they came on ſhore. There are cocoa trees in great abundance, and the ſhore abounds with turtle.

PALLISER ISLANDS.

Theſe iſlands, diſcovered by Captain Cook in April 1774, lie in 15 deg. 26 min. ſouth; and 14 deg. 20 min. weſt. They are four in number; the largeſt is ſeven miles long, and not above two broad. The greateſt diſtance of one from the other is not above ſix leagues.

People, huts, canoes, and places erected for drying fiſh, were ſeen here. The natives were armed with long ſpikes.

DOG-ISLAND, 15 deg. 12 min. ſouth, was diſcovered by Le Mair and Schouten, April 1616, who gave it that name from having ſeen three Spaniſh dogs on the iſland.

QUEEN CHARLOTTE'S ISLAND, 19 deg. 18 min. ſouth; 138 deg. 4 min. weſt; firſt diſcovered by Captain Wallis, in the Dolphin, in 1767, who took poſſeſſion of it in the name of King George the Third. Here is good water, and plenty of cocoa-nuts, palm-nuts, and ſcurvy-graſs. The inhabitants are of a middle ſtature, and dark complexion, with long hair hanging looſe over their ſhoulders. The men well made, and the women handſome. Their cloathing is a kind of coarſe cloth, or matting, which they faſten about their middle.

LAGOON ISLAND, 18 deg. 47 min. ſouth; 139 deg. 28 min. weſt; is of an oval form, with a lake in the middle, which occupies much the greateſt part of it. The whole iſland is covered with trees of different verdure. It is inhabited by a race of Indians, tall, of a copper colour, with long black hair. Their weapons are poles, or ſpikes, which reach twice as high as themſelves. Their habitations were ſeen under ſome clumps of palm-trees, which formed very beautiful groves. This iſland was diſcovered by Captain Cook, April 1769.

THUMB-CAP lies about ſeven leagues north-weſt of Lagoon-Iſland: it is a low, woody iſland, of a circular form, and not much above a mile in compaſs. There was no appearance of inhabitants: the land was covered with verdure.

BOW ISLAND, ſo called by Captain Cook, in 1769, on account of its ſingular figure, being ſhaped exactly like a bow; the arch and curve of which is land, and the ſpace between them water. The curve is a flat beach, without any ſigns of vegetation, having nothing upon it but heaps of ſea-weed. It appeared to be narrow, and about three or four leagues in length. The horns, or extremities of the bow, were two large tufts of cocoa-nut trees, of different height and figure. From the ſmoak ſeen in different parts the iſland appeared to be inhabited.

THE GROUPS are long, narrow ſtrips of land, ranged in all directions; ſome of them ten miles or upwards in length, but none more than a quarter of a mile in breadth. Trees of various kinds, particularly the cocoa-nut, abound here. The people appeared to be well made, of a brown complexion; moſt of them carried in their hands a ſlender pole, about fourteen feet long, pointed like a ſpear: they had likewiſe ſomething ſhaped like a paddle, about four feet long. Their canoes were of different ſizes; ſome ſo ſmall, as to carry no more than three men; others had ſix or ſeven; and ſome of their boats hoiſted a ſail.

BIRD ISLAND, ſo called by Captain Cook, from the great number of birds that were ſeen on it, is ſuppoſed to be about four miles in circumference. It is low, with a piece of water in the middle. No inhabitants appeared.

CHAIN-ISLAND ſeemed about five leagues long, in the direction of north-weſt and ſouth-eaſt, and about five miles broad. It appeared to be a double range of woody iſlands, joined together by reefs, ſo as to compoſe one iſland in the form of an elipſis, or oval, with a lake in the middle. The trees are large, and from the ſmoak that iſſued from the woods it ſeemed to be inhabited.

OSNABURGH-ISLAND, called by the natives Maitea, was firſt diſcovered by captain Wallis in 1767. It is an high round iſland, not above a league in circuit; in ſome parts covered with trees, in others a naked rock, and is 44 leagues diſtant from Chain-Iſland, weſt by ſouth.

PITCAIRN-ISLAND was diſcovered by captain Carteret. Captain Cook was very near it in Auguſt 1773, but could not fall in with it.

Beſides theſe, which we have deſcribed from the moſt authentic accounts, Captain Wallis, alſo ſaw five other iſlands, which he named *Whitſunday*, *Egmont*, *Gloucester*, *Cumberland*, and *Prince William Henry*; and in Auguſt 1773 Captain Cook fell in with five others, which he named *Reſolution*, *Doubtful*, *Furneaux*, *Adventure*, and *Chane*. Some of the moſt weſterly of theſe ſcattered iſlands were ſeen by M. de Bougainville, and called *Les quatre Facardins, and Iſle des Lanciers*. That navigator very properly calls this cluſter of low, overflowed iſlands, *The dangerous Archipelago*.

To the ſouth-weſt of this group is the iſland of

TOOBOUAI,

Diſcovered by Captain Cook in 1777. It is ſituated in latitude 23 deg. 25. min. ſouth, longitude 218 deg. 37 min. eaſt. The ſpot, at firſt view, appeared like ſeveral diſtinct iſlands, but on nearer approach it was found to be connected, and to form but one iſland. It is guarded by a reef of coral rock, extending in ſome places a mile from the land, with a high ſurf breaking upon it. Our people obſerved from the ſhips the natives walking or running along ſhore, and then ſaw two canoes launched, in which were about a dozen men making towards them. Stopping ſuddenly when they came near the ſhips, Omai, according to cuſtom, was deſired to uſe his endeavours to prevail on them to come nearer, but all his efforts proved ineffectual. Thoſe in the canoes, however, indicated by ſigns a ſtrong deſire for our people to go on ſhore, and thoſe on the beach diſplayed ſomething white, which was conſidered as an intimation to the ſame purport.

Their landing might have been effected with eaſe and ſafety: there was a good anchorage without the reef, and an opening in it free from ſurf. But as no refreſhments were wanting, and Captain Cook was deſirous of availing himſelf of a fair wind for the proſecution of his voyage, after divers ineffectual attempts to prevail on the natives to come near the veſſel, and hold intercourſe, he left them, and ſtood to the northward.

From obſervation on board, the greateſt extent of this iſland, in any direction, could not be above five or ſix miles. There are hills in it of conſiderable height. At the foot of theſe is a narrow border of flat land, extending almoſt round it, with a white ſand-beach. The hills, except a few rocky cliffs, were covered with herbage. According to the information our people derived from the men in the canoes, the iſland abounds with the ſame animal and vegetable productions as were found in its vicinity.

Thoſe of the natives ſeen in the canoes were copper-coloured: ſome wearing their hair (which was ſtraight and black) flowing about the ſhoulders, and others having it tied in a bunch on the crown of the head. Their faces

faces were rather round and full, and expreſſed a ferocity of diſpoſition. All the covering of thoſe in the canoes was a piece of narrow ſtuff wrapped round the waiſt, and paſſing between the thighs; but ſome upon the beach were obſerved to be completely dreſſed in white. Several in the canoes wore ornaments of pearl ſhells about their necks. One in particular continued a conſiderable time blowing a large conch-ſhell, in a long tone without any variation; but what it portended our people could not determine. The men in the canoes finding the captain's reſolution to depart, ſtood up and repeated ſomething aloud, though it was not known whether it expreſſed hoſtile or friendly deſigns. They had, however, no weapons with them; nor could it be diſcovered by the glaſſes, that thoſe on ſhore were armed.

CHAP. XII.

EASTER ISLAND.

SECTION I.

Diſcovery, Situation, Soil, Climate, &c.

THE firſt diſcovery of this iſland is attributed to Captain Davis, an Engliſhman, in 1686; and Captain Cook obſerves, that the view of it from the eaſt anſwered the geographical deſcription given of it. Hence it was called Davis's Land. Admiral Roggewein touched at it in 1722, and gave it the name of Eaſter Iſland: but the accounts given of it by the writers of his voyage appear rather fabulous than authentic; at leaſt they by no means agree with the ſtate in which it was found by thoſe Britiſh navigators who laſt viſited it. This iſland was called by the natives by a variety of names, as *Wachu*, *Tamarebi*, *Whyhue*, and *Teapy*. It ſeems that the Spaniards had viſited it in 1769, and given it the appellation of the Iſland of St. Carlos. Some ſigns of this viſit were ſeen among the natives, and in particular, ſeveral articles of wearing apparel, which were of European manufacture.

It is ſituated in latitude 27 deg. 30 min. ſouth; and longitude 109 deg. 46 min. weſt; and is about ten or twelve leagues in circuit.

Soon after the Reſolution, Captain Cook, made the iſland, the maſter being ſent out in a boat to ſound the coaſt, one of the natives ſwam off to her, and inſiſted on coming aboard the ſhip. The firſt thing he did was to meaſure the length of the ſhip, by fathoming her from the taffarel to the ſtem, and as he counted the fathoms, it was obſerved by our people, that he called the numbers by the ſame names that they do at Otaheite; nevertheleſs his language was nearly unintelligible to all of them.

When Captain Cook went on ſhore, accompanied by a party, to ſee what the iſland was likely to afford, they landed at the beach, where ſome hundreds of the natives were aſſembled; and who were ſo impatient to ſee them, that many of them ſwam off to meet the boats. Not one of them had ſo much as a ſtick, or weapon of any ſort in his hand. After diſtributing a few trinkets among them, our people made ſigns for ſomething to eat, on which they brought down a few potatoes, plantains, and ſugar-canes, and exchanged them for nails, looking-glaſſes, and pieces of cloth.

Near the place where they landed were ſome tall ſtatues, which ſhall be deſcribed hereafter. The country appeared quite barren, and without wood. There were, nevertheleſs, ſeveral plantations of potatoes, plantains, and ſugar-canes. They alſo ſaw ſome fowls, and found a well of brackiſh water.

The captain was obliged to content himſelf with remaining at the landing place among the natives, as he was not yet quite recovered from a bilious cholic, which had been ſo violent as to confine him to his bed. It was ſeveral days before the moſt dangerous ſymptoms of his diſorder were removed; during which time, the ſurgeon was to him not only a ſkilful phyſician, but an affectionate adviſer. When he began to recover, a favourite dog fell a ſacrifice to his diſordered ſtomach. They had no other freſh meat whatever on board; and the captain could eat of this fleſh, as well as broth made of it, when he could taſte nothing elſe. Thus he received nouriſhment and ſtrength from food, which would have made moſt people in Europe ſick. So true it is, that neceſſity is governed by no law.

The ſoil of this iſland is in general a dry, hard clay; but towards the higheſt part of the ſouth end it is a fine red earth, ſeemed much better, bore a longer graſs, and was not covered with ſtones, as in the other parts.

The moſt remarkable curioſity belonging to this iſland, is a number of gigantic ſtatues, of which, however, very few remain entire. Theſe ſtatues are placed on the ſea-coaſt. On the eaſt ſide of the iſland were ſeen the ruins of three platforms of ſtone work, on each of which had ſtood four of theſe large ſtatues; but they were all fallen down from two of them, and one from the third: they were broken or defaced by the fall. One which had fallen, being meaſured, was fifteen feet in length, and ſix broad over the ſhoulders. Each ſtatue had on its head a large cylindric ſtone, of a red colour, wrought perfectly round. Others were found that meaſured near twenty-ſeven feet, and upwards of eight feet over the ſhoulders: and ſtill a larger one was ſeen ſtanding, the ſhade of which was ſufficient to ſhelter all the party, conſiſting of near thirty perſons, from the rays of the ſun. The workmanſhip was rude, but not bad, nor were the features of the face ill formed: the ears were long, according to the diſtortion practiſed in the country, and the bodies had hardly any thing of a human figure about them. How theſe iſlanders, wholly unacquainted with any mechanical power, could raiſe ſuch ſtupendous figures, and afterwards place the cylindric ſtones upon their heads, is truly wonderful.

The party, on their farther progreſs, came to a more fertile part of the iſland, interſperſed with plantations, and not ſo much encumbered with ſtones, as thoſe they had ſeen before: but they could find no water, except what the natives twice or thrice brought them, which, though brackiſh and ſtinking, was rendered acceptable, by the extremity of their thirſt. They alſo paſſed ſome huts, the owners of which met them with roaſted potatoes and ſugar-canes, and placing themſelves a-head of the party (for they marched in a line, in order to have the benefit of the path) gave one to each man as he paſſed by. But at the very time ſome were relieving the thirſty and hungry, there were others who endeavoured to ſteal from them the very things which had been given them. At laſt, to prevent worſe conſequences, they were obliged to fire a load of ſmall ſhot at one, who was ſo audacious as to ſnatch the bag which contained every thing they carried with them. The ſhot hit him on the back, on which he dropped the bag, ran a little way, and then fell: but he afterwards got up and walked, and what became of him they knew not, nor whether he was much wounded. This affair occaſioned ſome delay, and drew the natives together. They preſently ſaw the man who had hitherto led the way, and one or two more, coming running towards them; but inſtead of ſtopping when they came up, they continued to run

round them, repeating, in a kind manner, a few words, until they ſet forwards again. Then their old guide hoiſted his flag, leading the way as before; and none ever attempted to ſteal from them the whole day afterwards.

Towards the eaſtern end of the iſland they met with a well whoſe water was perfectly freſh, being conſiderably above the level of the ſea; but it was dirty, owing to a cuſtom of the natives, who never go to drink without waſhing themſelves all over as ſoon as they have done: and if ever ſo many of them are together, the firſt leaps right into the middle of the hole, drinks, and waſhes himſelf without the leaſt ceremony; after which another takes his place and does the ſame.

SECTION II.

Productions, animal and vegetable.

NO quadrupeds were ſeen upon this iſland, except black rats, which are common to all the iſlands of the South Seas. It appeared that the iſlanders eat theſe rats; for our people ſaw a man with ſome dead ones in his hand, who ſeemed unwilling to part with them, giving them to underſtand, they were for food. There were a few domeſtic fowls, ſmall, but well taſted: and two or three noddies were ſeen, which were ſo tame as to ſettle on the ſhoulders of the natives.

The coaſt did not appear to abound with fiſh, at leaſt our people could catch none with hook and line; and they ſaw but very little among the natives.

This country produces only a few ſhrubs, the leaf and ſeeds of one of which (called by the natives *Torremedo*) was not much unlike that of the common *Vetch*: the ſeeds had a diſagreeable bitter taſte, and are conſidered by the natives as poiſonous: the wood is of a reddiſh colour, hard and heavy, but crooked, and exceeding ſix or ſeven feet in heighth: and not a tree was ſeen on the whole iſland that exceeded the heighth of ten feet. Another ſmall ſhrub was ſeen here, whoſe wood is white and brittle, and, as well as its leaf, ſomewhat reſembles the aſh. There are alſo ſome of the Otaheitean cloth plant, but dwarfiſh and weak, being from two to four feet high. They are planted in rows among very large rocks, where the rains have waſhed a little ſoil together. Here are ſugar-canes, bananas, and yams, which thrive to admiration, conſidering the ſtony quality of the ground. The ſugar-canes were about nine or ten feet high, and contained a very ſweet juice, which the inhabitants very hoſpitably preſented to their gueſts, whenever they aſked for ſomething to drink. Theſe are ſaid to be ſweeter than thoſe at Otaheite. The whole number of plants growing on this iſland does not exceed twenty ſpecies.

Here are potatoes of a gold-yellow colour, as ſweet as carrots: theſe were found very nouriſhing, and antiſcorbutic. Here is likewiſe a ſpecies of nightſhade, which is made uſe of at Otaheite, and the other iſlands, as a vulnerary medicine, and is probably cultivated here for the ſame purpoſe. The graſs, which commonly ſprings up among the ſtones, on the uncultivated ſoil, is carefully plucked up, and ſpread over their plantations as a manure, or to preſerve them in ſome meaſure from the parching beams of the ſun. This is mentioned as a proof of the œconomy and induſtry of the natives.

SECTION III.

Perſons, Dreſs, Diſpoſitions, Cuſtoms, Manners, Weapons, Canoes, Government, &c. of the Natives.

THE natives of this iſland are in general ſlender, but briſk and active, have good features, and countenances not diſagreeable. Their colour is of a cheſnut brown; their hair black, curling, and remarkably ſtrong; that on the head, as well as on the face, is cut ſhort. The men for the moſt part are in a manner naked, wearing nothing but a ſlip of cloth between their legs, each end of which is faſtened to a cord or belt they wear round the waiſt. The cloth from Otaheite, as indeed any ſort, was much valued by theſe people. The men have punctures on their bodies, which is common, in a greater or leſs degree, to all the South-ſea iſlands. The greateſt ſingularity is the ſize of their ears, the lobe or extremity of which is ſo ſtretched out, as almoſt to reſt on the ſhoulder, and is pierced by a very large hole, through which three or four fingers might be thruſt with eaſe. The chief ornaments for their ears are the white down of feathers, and rings, which they wear in the inſide of the hole, made of the leaf of the ſugar-cane, which is very elaſtic, and rolled up like a watch-ſpring. Some were ſeen covered with a kind of bright cloth, of an orange colour, and theſe were ſuppoſed to be chiefs.

One of the natives who came on board the ſhip had a belt round his middle, from whence a kind of network deſcended before, but too thin to anſwer the purpoſe of a concealment. A ſtring was tied about his neck, and a flat bone, ſomething ſhaped like a tongue, and about five inches long, was faſtened to it, and hung down on the breaſt, which he gave our people to underſtand was the bone of a porpoiſe. He was preſented with nails, medals, and ſtrings of beads, all of which he deſired to have tied round his head.

At firſt he ſhewed ſigns of fear and diffidence, aſking in a dialect of the language generally uſed in the South Seas, and which was ſomewhat underſtood by many on board, whether they would kill him as an enemy? On being aſſured of good treatment, he became perfectly unconcerned, and at eaſe, and talked of nothing but dancing.

The women of this iſland are ſmall, ſlender limbed, and have punctures on the face, reſembling the patches ſometimes in faſhion among European ladies. They paint their whole face with a reddiſh brown ruddle, over which they lay a bright orange colour, extracted from the *turmeric* root; or they variegate their faces with ſtrokes of white-ſhell lime; which led an obſerver to remark, that the art of painting is not confined to thoſe ladies who have an opportunity of imitating French faſhions. All the women were clad in ſcanty pieces of cloth; one piece wrapped round their loins, and another over their ſhoulders, made a complete dreſs. Both ſexes have thin, but not ſavage features. The women wear their hair long, and ſometimes tied on the crown of their head.

The violent action of the ſun upon their heads, has led them to contrive various coverings for that part. Their head-dreſs is a round fillet adorned with feathers, and a ſtraw bonnet, ſomething like a Scotch one; the former worn by the men, the latter by the women. Many of the men wore a ring about two inches thick, ſtrong and curiouſly plaited of graſs, and fitted cloſe round the head. This was covered with the long feathers of the man of war bird. Others had huge buſhy caps of brown gull's feathers, which were almoſt as large as the full-bottomed wigs of European lawyers; beſides which, ſome wear a ſingle hoop of wood, round which the long white feathers of the gannet hung nodding. In colour, features, and language, the inhabitants of Eaſter Iſland bear ſuch affinity to the people of the more weſtern iſlands, that there can be no doubt of their having had the ſame origin.

The niceſt calculation that could be made never brought the number of inhabitants in this iſland to above ſeven hundred, and of theſe the females bore no proportion in number to the males. Either they have but few females, or elſe their women were reſtrained from appearing during the ſtay of the ſhip; notwithſtanding, the men ſhewed no ſigns of a jealous diſpoſition, or the women any ſcruples of appearing in public: in fact, they ſeemed to be neither reſerved or chaſte. But as all the women who were ſeen were liberal of their favours, it is more than probable, that all the married

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and modeſt had concealed themſelves from their impetuous viſitants, in ſome diſtant parts of the iſland; and what further ſtrengthens this ſuppoſition is, that heaps of ſtone were ſeen piled up in little hillocks, which had one ſteep perpendicular ſide, where a hole went under ground. Theſe iſlanders, in common with thoſe of the South Seas, ſoon gave proofs of their propenſity to theft, as before obſerved. It was with difficulty the ſhip's crew could keep their hats on their heads, and hardly poſſible to keep any thing in their pockets. One thief was fired at with ſmall ſhot, which wounded him ſo that he fell ſoon after he had thrown down the fatal acquiſition.

There is a mildneſs and good nature in the diſpoſition of theſe people, which prompt them to behave as kindly and hoſpitably as their barren country will permit them. A party who had rambled up the iſland, and were returning to the ſhip, paſſed a native who was digging potatoes in a field; they no ſooner complained to him of great thirſt, than he ran immediately to a large plantation of ſugar canes, and brought out a load of the beſt and juiciſt on his back, for their refreſhment. Their diſpoſition is far from being warlike, although they have weapons of defence.

Potatoes, bananas, yams, ſugar-canes, and about fifty fowls, were the only proviſions obtained here; in exchange for which the natives received, with great pleaſure, empty cocoa-ſhells, which had been procured upon other South-ſea iſlands. The cloth made at Otaheite, and European cloth, bore the next degree of eſteem, and iron ware held the loweſt place. Moſt of the natives, on receiving a cocoa-nut, piece of cloth, or a nail, in the way of barter, ran away immediately, as if apprehenſive leſt the other ſhould repent his bargain, and inſiſt on a re-exchange. Their eagerneſs for cloth led them to part with their caps, head-dreſſes, necklaces, ornaments for the ears, and ſeveral human figures, made out of narrow pieces of wood, about eighteen inches or two feet long, and wrought in a much neater and more proportionate manner, than could have been expected from ſuch a forlorn race. They repreſented men and women. The features were not pleaſing, and the whole figure was much too long to be natural; but notwithſtanding, there was ſomething characteriſtic in them, which beſpoke a taſte for the arts. The wood of which they were made was finely poliſhed, cloſe grained, and of a dark brown: nor can it be explained how ſuch toys could come into their poſſeſſion, as nothing could be found on the iſland, after the niceſt ſcrutiny, which produced this kind of wood, it being the perfume wood of Otaheite. A very ſingular figure thus carved, with long nails and fingers bent downwards, was brought to England, and preſented to the Britiſh Muſeum.

Their houſes are low, miſerable huts, conſtructed by ſetting ſticks upright in the ground, at ſix or eight feet diſtance, then bending them towards each other, and tying them together at the top, forming thereby a kind of Gothic arch. The longeſt ſticks are placed in the middle, and ſhorter ones each way, and at leſs diſtance aſunder; by which means the building is higheſt and broadeſt in the middle, and lower and narrower towards each end. To theſe are tied others horizontally, and the whole is thatched over with leaves of ſugar-cane. The door-way is in the middle of one ſide, formed like a porch, and ſo low and narrow as juſt to admit a man to enter upon all fours.

The weapons of theſe iſlanders are ſhort wooden clubs, and ſpears about ſix feet long, crooked, and armed at one end with pieces of flint. They have likewiſe a weapon made of wood, like the patoo-patoo of New Zealand.

Not more than three or four canoes were ſeen on the whole iſland, and theſe very mean, and badly conſtructed. From the ſmall number, and ſlightneſs of their boats, it may be ſuppoſed, that they procure very little of their ſubſiſtence from fiſhing, and particularly as no mention is made of any fiſhing implements ſeen here.

A circumſtance happened during the ſhort time that the Reſolution lay at Eaſter Iſland, which plainly proved that the natives had no idea of private property. A field of ſweet potatoes furniſhed a deſirable article of traffic to the ſhip's company. Several of the natives dug up theſe roots, and exchanged them with the officers for what they moſt valued. After they had employed themſelves in this manner for ſome hours, another native arrived, who with great fury drove the intruders away, and himſelf alone dug up the roots, and ſold them in the manner that the others had done; from which circumſtance it was inferred very naturally, that this man was the owner of the field, whom the others had robbed of the fruits of his labour, being tempted to commit the treſpaſs by the ready market to which they brought their plunder.

They have a king, whom they ſtile *aree* or *bareekee*: he is deſcribed as a middle-aged man, rather tall, his face and whole body ſtrongly punctured. He wore a piece of cloth made of the mulberry bark, quilted with threads of graſs, and ſtained yellow with turmeric. On his head he had a cap of long ſhining black feathers, which might be called a diadem. No great degree of homage was obſerved to be paid to him by the people; and from the poverty of the country, his ſubjects can afford to ſhew but few diſtinctions to their monarch. Of the religion of theſe people, our navigators declare themſelves entirely ignorant.

CHAP. XIII.

NEW GUINEA, NEW BRITAIN, NEW IRELAND, NEW HANOVER, and other ſmall Iſlands.

NEW GUINEA.

FROM the beſt accounts that can be obtained, this iſland was firſt viſited by an European ſhip, in 1529. It was called by Saavedra, a Portugueſe, who diſcovered the north-weſt part of it, Terra de Papuas, or Papos, as was the ſouth-weſt part of it New Guinea, by Van Schouten, a Dutch diſcoverer. The eaſtern part of it was ſtiled by a French navigator, Louiſiade. Dampier touched here; and after him Admiral Roggewein. Captain Cook made the coaſt of this iſland in September 1770, in latitude 6 deg. 15 min. ſouth; longitude 130 deg. eaſt. But his ſurvey of the iſland could be but tranſient; for perceiving when he landed with a party of our people, that the Indians were reſolutely bent on hoſtilities, it was generally agreed upon, to prevent the deſtruction of thoſe people, as they had no intention to invade their country, to return to the boat. They are ſaid by Captain Cook to make the ſame perſonal appearance as the New Hollanders; and the country in general is by him deſcribed, as reſembling the South-ſea iſlands, New Zealand, and New Holland, in its vegetable productions. Indeed, New Guinea was ſuppoſed to be connected with New Holland, until Captain Cook

Cook diſcovered the ſtrait which ſeparates them. The only particular circumſtance relative to the people of this iſland, mentioned in Captain Cook's account, is the following.

When our people got on board the boat, they rowed along the ſhore, and the number of Indians aſſembled ſeemed to be between ſixty and an hundred. All the while they were ſhouting defiance, and throwing ſomething out of their hands, which burnt exactly like gunpowder, but made no report. What theſe fires were, or for what purpoſe intended, could not be gueſſed at. Thoſe who diſcharged them had in their hands a ſhort piece of ſtick, poſſibly a hollow cane, which they ſwung ſideways from them, and immediately fire and ſmoke iſſued, exactly reſembling the diſcharge of a muſket, and of no longer duration. This wonderful phœnomenon was obſerved from the ſhip, and the deception was ſo great, that the people on board thought they had fire-arms: and even in the boat, if they had not been ſo near as that they muſt have heard the report, if there had been any, they ſhould have thought they had been firing vollies. After looking at them attentively ſome time, without taking any notice of their flaſhing and vociferation, the ſailors fired ſome muſkets over their heads. Upon hearing the balls rattle among the trees, they walked leiſurely away, and the boat returned to the ſhip. Upon examining ſome weapons which the natives had thrown, they were found to be light darts, about four feet long, very ill made, of a reed or bamboo cane, and pointed with hard wood, in which there were many barbs. They were diſcharged with great force; for at ſixty yards diſtance they went beyond the party; but in what manner they were thrown could not be exactly ſeen. But the general opinion was, that they were thrown with a ſtick, in the manner practiſed by the New-Hollanders.

The lateſt accounts of New Guinea are thoſe of Captain Foreſt, who viſited it in 1775. As the Tartar galley, belonging to the Eaſt India Company, then under his command, ſtood on towards Dory harbour, two of the natives of Papua came on board, and appeared perfectly complacent. Their hair was buſhed, or rather frizzled out to an incredible extent. To render it as bulky as poſſible, it was combed in a direction ſtrait from the head, which is ſometimes ornamented with feathers. The left ears of the women were perforated, and adorned with ſmall braſs rings.

Coming to an anchor, our countrymen had an opportunity of taking a view of one of the capital manſions of theſe people, ſituated on the bank. Theſe were erected on poſts fixed ſeveral yards below low water mark, for the convenience of the tenants, who occupied divers diſtinct parts of the manſion, that contained many families. In this country, the married people, unmarried women, and children, live in the larger tenements, and the batchelors by themſelves in the ſmaller.

The common dreſs worn by the men was a thin ſtuff, produced from the cocoa-nut tree, tied about the middle, and taken up behind between the thighs. That of the women was a coarſe blue ſtuff, worn round the middle, and tucked up behind like the men. The boys and girls went naked. Laborious offices here ſeemed to fall to the lot of the women, while the men idly ſauntered about. The natives follow the diverſion of hunting the wild hog, which they called ben, with a kind of fox-looking dogs they called naf. Among ſmall iſlands, the wild hogs often ſwim in a ſtring from one iſland to another; the hog behind leaning his ſnout on thoſe before; ſo that the ſportſmen kill them with eaſe.

The coaſt of the promontory of Dory is deſcribed as extending about thirteen or fourteen leagues; the height not extreme, and the riſe gradual. The country abounds with lofty trees, whoſe branches afford the traveller an agreeable ſhade. There are many rivulets of freſh water; and, ſcattered in particular tracks, good herbage.

Of animal productions, the country abounds with hogs; and there are albecores, and other kinds of fiſh.

The birds of paradiſe, which ſo much excite the curioſity of ſpeculatiſts, are ſaid to have been firſt found by the Portugueſe, on the iſland of Gilolo, the Papuſas Iſlands, and on New Guinea. They were denominated *Paſſaros de Sol*, i. e. "Birds of the ſun." By ſome they were called *Manuco Deivata*, "the bird of God." Capt. Foreſt was informed at an iſland called Linty, on this coaſt, (the ſmall iſlands on which are numberleſs,) that the birds of paradiſe came thither at certain ſeaſons in flocks, and that ſettling on trees, they are caught with bird-lime, after which their bodies are dried with the feathers on, as they are ſeen in Europe. It appeared further, that the account of theſe birds having no legs, being conſtantly on the wing, and living on the air, which gave riſe to the cuſtom of cutting off their legs when offered to ſale, was without foundation. The natives kill them as ſoon as taken. They have formidable bills, and defend themſelves with great reſolution. But what they ſubſiſt on has not been yet diſcovered. There are ſix diſtinct ſpecies of theſe birds, and they have afforded great ſcope for the ſpeculation of naturaliſts.

In Dory were found neither fowl or goat. All the refreſhment that could be procured on ſhore was the fleſh of the wild hog, ſome ſpecies of fiſh and vegetables excepted. The quadrupeds ſeen were hogs, dogs, and wild cats.

The nutmeg tree was found at different iſlands on this coaſt, but when cut down, it appeared that the fruit was not ripe. Our people were informed by the natives, that there were many ſuch trees about the country; but they did not diſcover any knowledge of their worth and importance, though they ſeemed to ſet a due value upon other productions. They acknowledged that quantities of nutmegs were collected at certain places, but for what uſe could not be learnt. The natives, indeed, did not ſeem inclined to gratify the curioſity of our people as to this and other particulars.

As the Dutch derive ſuch a ſource of wealth from the nutmeg tree, they are jealous leſt any foreign power ſhould deprive them of ſo profitable a monopoly; and being apprehenſive that the Chineſe, from being ſo near, ſhould eſtabliſh a trade with the natives for this uſeful commodity, they have prevented them by an agreement from coming to this place, though a trade might be ſo advantageouſly carried on between the parties. They even ſend out people yearly to deſtroy all the nutmeg trees, wherever they can find them: but it being the natural produce of this part of the country, it will grow, in ſpite of their utmoſt efforts to prevent it.

Such is the value of iron amongſt theſe people, that for the conſideration of receiving an axe or a chopping-knife, the receiver ſubjects his lands or his labour to a continual tax of ſome article or other for its uſe.

The natives, and eſpecially the females, ſeemed to be of a muſical turn. One of them being aſked by one of our people to ſing, ſhe gave proofs of a good voice and ear, as did others upon future occaſions.

Their mode of courting is rather extraordinary. The lover comes freely to the manſion of the favourite female, and without ceremony places himſelf by her. The old folks at a diſtance are then ſaid often to call out, "Well, have you agreed?" If the parties agree before witneſſes, a cock, procured with great difficulty, is killed, and thus ends the ceremony.

The tenements in which they dwell are poorly furniſhed; and as they cook in each ſeparate apartment, and have no chimney, the ſmoke iſſues out at every part of the roof; ſo that at a diſtance the whole roof ſeems to ſmoke.

They are very expert with the bow. Some of their arrows are ſix feet long. The former is made of bamboo, and the ſtring of ſplit ratan. They carry on a conſiderable traffic with the Chineſe, of whom they purchaſe their iron tools, beads, plates, baſons, &c. They trade alſo in ſlaves, ambergreaſe, tortoiſeſhell, ſmall pearls, and divers kinds of birds, and particularly the bird of paradiſe.

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The inhabitants of New Guinea are in general repreſented as numerous, fierce and hoſtile, as appeared from their behaviour when viſited by Capt. Cook.

It appears that the people of New Guinea are frequently invaded and carried into ſlavery by the Mahometans of the Molucca iſlands adjacent.

NEW BRITAIN

Was ſuppoſed to be connected with New Guinea until Dampier diſcovered it to be divided by a ſtreight. Its moſt northern point is in 4 deg. ſouth latitude, and it extends to 6 deg. 30 min. ſouth. Dampier gave its moſt eaſtern point the name of Cape Orford: it lies in 151 deg. 34 min. eaſt longitude: the weſtern limits had not then been accurately ſurveyed. Dampier likewiſe gave names to ſeveral ſmall iſlands which he ſaw in paſſing between New Guinea and New Britain. From four of theſe volcanos were obſerved emitting ſmoak and fire. The country appeared to be high land mixed with vallies, every where abounding with large and ſtately trees, and well inhabited by a ſtrong race of people of a very dark complexion. M. Bougainville repreſents the natives of this iſland as entirely black, with frizzled woolly hair, which ſome of them powdered white, having pretty long beards and white ornaments round their arms in form of bracelets; their nudities but indifferently covered with leaves of trees, and in their perſons tall, active, and robuſt. He obſerves, that they kept at ſome diſtance from the ſhips, and diſcovered a diſpoſition alternately inclined to war and traffic. No European had ever yet any friendly intercourſe with the inhabitants of this iſland.

NEW IRELAND

Was ſuppoſed by Dampier, who ſailed round its northern coaſt, to be a part of New Britain. That navigator called the moſt ſouthern point of it Cape St. George, which, together with Cape Orford in New Britain, were thought to be the two points that formed a deep bay, which he called St. George's Bay. But Captain Carteret, who ſailed round it in 1767, found it to terminate in a narrow channel, to which he gave the name of St. George's Channel. This iſland is a long narrow ſlip of land lying north-weſt and ſouth-eaſt, in extent about eighty leagues. The harbour, called by Captain Carteret Engliſh Cove, lies in lat. 5 deg. ſouth, long. 157 deg. 19 min. eaſt. There is another harbour about four leagues to weſtward, which he named Carteret Harbour.

The crew of the Swallow, who at that time were in general periſhing with ſickneſs, obtained relief from ſome cocoa nuts found upon this iſland, as they did alſo from ſome rock oyſters and cockles they procured from the rocks at low water.

The upper part of the tree which bears the cocoa-nut is called the cabbage. This is a white, criſp, juicy ſubſtance: it taſtes ſomewhat like a cheſnut, but when boiled is ſuperior to the beſt parſnip, and is, perhaps, the moſt powerful antiſcorbutic in the world. For every one of theſe cabbages which were obtained, they were forced to cut down a tree, which was done with great regret, but this depredation on the parent ſtock was unavoidable. Theſe almoſt-expiring navigators likewiſe received great refreſhment from the fruit of a tall tree that reſembles a plumb, and particularly that which in the Weſt Indies is called the Jamaica Plumb.

The ſhore about this place is rocky, and the country high and mountainous, but covered with trees of various kinds, ſome of which are of an enormous growth. Among others, the nutmeg-tree was found in great plenty. Captain Carteret gathered a few of the nuts, but they were not ripe. They did not appear to be the beſt ſort, but he imputes that to their growing wild, and being too much in the ſhade of taller trees. The woods abound with pigeons, doves, rooks, parrots, and a large bird with a black plumage, which makes a noiſe ſomewhat like the barking of a dog.

The only quadrupeds ſeen in this iſland by the crew of the Swallow were two of a ſmall ſize, which were ſuppoſed to be dogs; they were very wild, and ran with great ſwiftneſs: here were ſeen centipedes, ſcorpions, and a few ſerpents of different kinds, but no people. They fell in, however, with ſeveral deſerted habitations, and by the ſhells that were ſcattered about them, and ſeemed not to have been long taken out of the water, and ſome ſticks half burnt, the natives were ſuppoſed to have juſt left the place when they arrived. Captain Carteret was in ſo enfeebled a ſtate of body as to be prevented from attending circumſtantially to a deſcription of the country. However, in Engliſh Cove he took poſſeſſion of it for his Britannic majeſty, and nailed upon a high tree a piece of board faced with lead, on which was engraved an Engliſh union, with the name of the ſhip and her commander, the name of the cove, and the time of her coming in and going out of it. M. de Bougainville touched here about a year after, and gave it the name of Port Praſlin. He found part of Captain Carteret's inſcription, which ſeemed to have been taken down and defaced by the natives.

In this iſland were found ſome wild boars, large pidgeons of beautiful plumage, turtle doves, parrots, and crown birds. Ants ſwarmed about the thatch-palm and cabbage-trees. The country appeared mountainous; the ſoil light, yet producing ſeveral kinds of fine timber trees. The pepper-tree is ſaid to be common. Here was found a very extraordinary inſect about three inches long; almoſt every part of its body was of ſuch a texture as to appear like a leaf, even when cloſely viewed. Each of its wings forms one half of a leaf, and when the two are cloſed together, it appears like an entire leaf. The under ſide of its body reſembles a leaf of a more dead colour than the upper one. It has ſix legs, of which the upper joints are likewiſe ſimilar to parts of leaves. Several ſhocks of an earthquake were felt here, which laſted about two minutes, and were very diſtinctly noticed on board, as well as on ſhore. Here was a prodigious caſcade precipitated through vaſt rocks, which diverſify the fall of water.

In the weſtern part of St. George's Channel lies Sandwich Island, on which coaſt the Swallow anchored. Soon after ten canoes put off from New Ireland, with about one hundred and fifty men on board: they exchanged ſome trifles, but none of them would venture up the ſide of the ſhip. They preferred iron to every thing elſe, although none of it was manufactured except nails, there being no cutlery ware on board. One of theſe canoes was not leſs than ninety feet long, being very little ſhorter than the ſhip, notwithſtanding which, it was formed of a ſingle tree. It had ſome carved ornaments about it, and was rowed or paddled by thirty-three men. There was no appearance of ſails. The Indians were black and woolly headed like negroes, without their flat noſes and thick lips. They were all ſtark naked, except ornaments of ſhells about their legs and arms. Their hair, as well as their beards, was profuſely covered with a white powder. They were armed with ſpears, and long ſticks or poles, like the quarter ſtaff. As they kept a watchful eye upon the ſhip's guns, it is probable that they were not wholly unacquainted with the effect of fire-arms. They had fiſhing nets with them, which, as well as their cordage, ſeemed to be very well made. After they had continued this intercourſe for ſome time, a breeze ſprung up, and they returned to the ſhore.

The Swallow having reached the weſtern point of New Ireland, a fine large iſland preſented itſelf, to which Captain Carteret gave the name of

NEW HANOVER.

The land is high, and finely covered with trees, among which are many plantations, and the whole has

a beautiful appearance. About eight leagues to the weſtward, appeared ſix or ſeven ſmall iſlands, which received the name of the DUKE OF PORTLAND'S ISLANDS.

ADMIRALTY ISLANDS lie in about 2 deg. 18 min. ſouth latitude; and 146 deg. 44 min eaſt longitude. There are between twenty and thirty iſlands ſaid to be ſcattered about here, one of which is very extenſive. Captain Carteret, who firſt diſcovered them, was prevented touching at them, although their appearance was very inviting, on account of the condition of his ſhip; and as he was entirely unprovided with ſuch articles of barter as ſuited the Indian trade.

Theſe iſlands abound with vegetable productions of various kinds; and the natives ſeemed to be very numerous. Captain Carteret was of opinion that they produced ſpices, as he found the nutmeg tree upon a ſoil comparatively rocky and barren, upon the coaſt of New Ireland.

CHRISTMAS ISLAND.

This Iſland was diſcovered by Captain Cook, on the 24th of December, 1777, and called by him Chriſtmas Iſland from the ſhips companies having kept that feſtival there. It lies in latitude 1 deg. 58 min. north; longitude 202 deg. 28 min. eaſt. Its form is ſemicircular, and, like moſt other iſles in this ocean, it is ſurrounded by a reef of coral rocks, extending but a little diſtance from the ſhore: and further out than this reef, on the weſtern ſide, is a bank of ſand, which extends a mile into the ſea. There is good anchorage on this bank, between eighteen and thirty fathoms.

The ſoil of this iſland is in ſome places light and blackiſh, compoſed of ſand, the dung of birds, and rotten vegetables. In other parts, it is formed of broken coral ſtones, decayed ſhells, and other marine productions. Theſe are depoſited in long narrow ridges, parallel with the ſea coaſt, and muſt have been thrown up by the waves. This ſeems to prove that the iſland has been produced by different acceſſions from the ſea, and is in a ſtate of augmentation; the broken pieces of coral, and likewiſe many of the ſhells, being too large and heavy to have been brought from the beach by any birds, to the places where our navigators found them lying.

Not a drop of freſh water could be found in the whole iſland, though our people frequently dug for it. They met with ſeveral ponds of ſalt water, which having no viſible communication with the ſea, were ſuppoſed to have been filled by the water filtrating through the ſand, during the time of high tides. Not the ſmalleſt trace of any human foot-ſtep bould be diſcerned by our people, who went on ſhore for the purpoſe of obſerving an eclipſe of the ſun, which happened on the 30th of December; and alſo for the catching of turtle. Indeed, ſhould any human being be accidentally driven upon the iſland, or left there, they could ſcarcely be able to prolong their exiſtence; for though there are birds and fiſh in abundance, there are no viſible means of allaying thirſt, nor any vegetable that would ſerve as a ſubſtitute for bread, or correct the bad effects of our ſalt diet. Very little fruit was found on the few cocoa-nut trees upon the iſland, and though little, not good.

A few low trees were obſerved in ſome parts, beſides ſeveral ſmall ſhrubs and plants, which grew in a very languid manner. There was a kind of purſlane, a ſpecies of ſida, or Indian mallow, with two ſorts of graſs.

Under the low trees ſat vaſt numbers of a new ſpecies of tern or egg-bird, black above, and white below, having a white arch on the forehead. Theſe birds are ſomewhat larger than the common noddy: their eggs are blueiſh and ſpeckled with black. There were likewiſe many common boobies, a ſort reſembling a gannet, and a chocolate-coloured ſpecies with a white belly. Man-of-war birds, curleus, plovers, tropic birds, petrels, &c. were alſo ſeen here. There were ſmall rats, numbers of land crabs, and lizards.

Fiſh was in ſuch abundance on this iſland, that a party of our people brought on board as many as weighed upwards of two hundred pounds, from a grapling near the ſhore. A great quantity were alſo taken with the hook and line, principally conſiſting of cavallias, ſnappers, and a few rock-fiſh of two ſpecies, one with whitiſh ſtreaks ſcattered about, and the other with numerous blue ſpots.

At this iſland was procured for both ſhips, about three hundred turtles, which weighed one with another about ninety pounds: they were all of the green ſort, and perhaps not inferior in goodneſs to any in the world.

The only occurrence worthy of notice, during the ſhort ſtay of the ſhips upon this iſland, was the following. When the party that was employed in catching turtle returned on board, a ſailor that belonged to the Diſcovery, had been miſſing two days. At firſt there were two men who had loſt their way; but happening to diſagree with reſpect to the track that was moſt likely to bring them to their companions, they had ſeparated, and one of them found means to rejoin the party, after an abſence of twenty-four hours, during which he had experienced great diſtreſs. There being, as before obſerved, no freſh water upon the iſland, and not one cocoa-nut tree in that part of it where he was ſtraggling, in order to allay his thirſt, he had recourſe to the extraordinary expedient of drinking the blood of a turtle, which he had killed for that purpoſe. His method of refreſhing himſelf when fatigued, was equally ſingular, though he ſaid he felt the good effects of it. He undreſſed himſelf and lay down in the ſhallow water on the beach for ſome time.

It was matter of aſtoniſhment how theſe two men loſt their way. The land over which their journey lay, from the ſea-coaſt to the place where the boats were ſtationed, did not exceed three miles acroſs; nor was there any thing that could obſtruct their view, for the country was level, with a few ſhrubs diſperſed about it; and from many parts, the maſt of the veſſels could be eaſily diſcerned. This, however, ſeemed to be a rule of direction which they did not think of; nor did they recollect in what part of the iſland the ſhips lay at anchor; and they were totally at a loſs how to get back to them, or to the party they had ſo careleſsly ſtrayed from.

A party was detached in ſearch of the other man, and they ſoon had the good fortune to find their loſt companion. The diſtreſs of this man muſt have been much greater than that of the other ſtraggler, not only as he had been loſt a longer time, but he was too delicate to drink turtle's blood.

As there were ſome yams and cocoa-nuts on board, in a ſtate of vegetation, they were planted by Captain Cooke's order, on the ſmall iſland where the aſtronomers had obſerved the late eclipſe; and ſome ſeeds of melons were ſown in another place. The captain alſo left on that little iſle a bottle, containing the following inſcription:

Georgius Tertius, Rex, 31 Decembris, 1777.
Naves { Reſolution, Jac. Cook, Pr.
{ Diſcovery, Car. Clerke, Pr.

CHAP.

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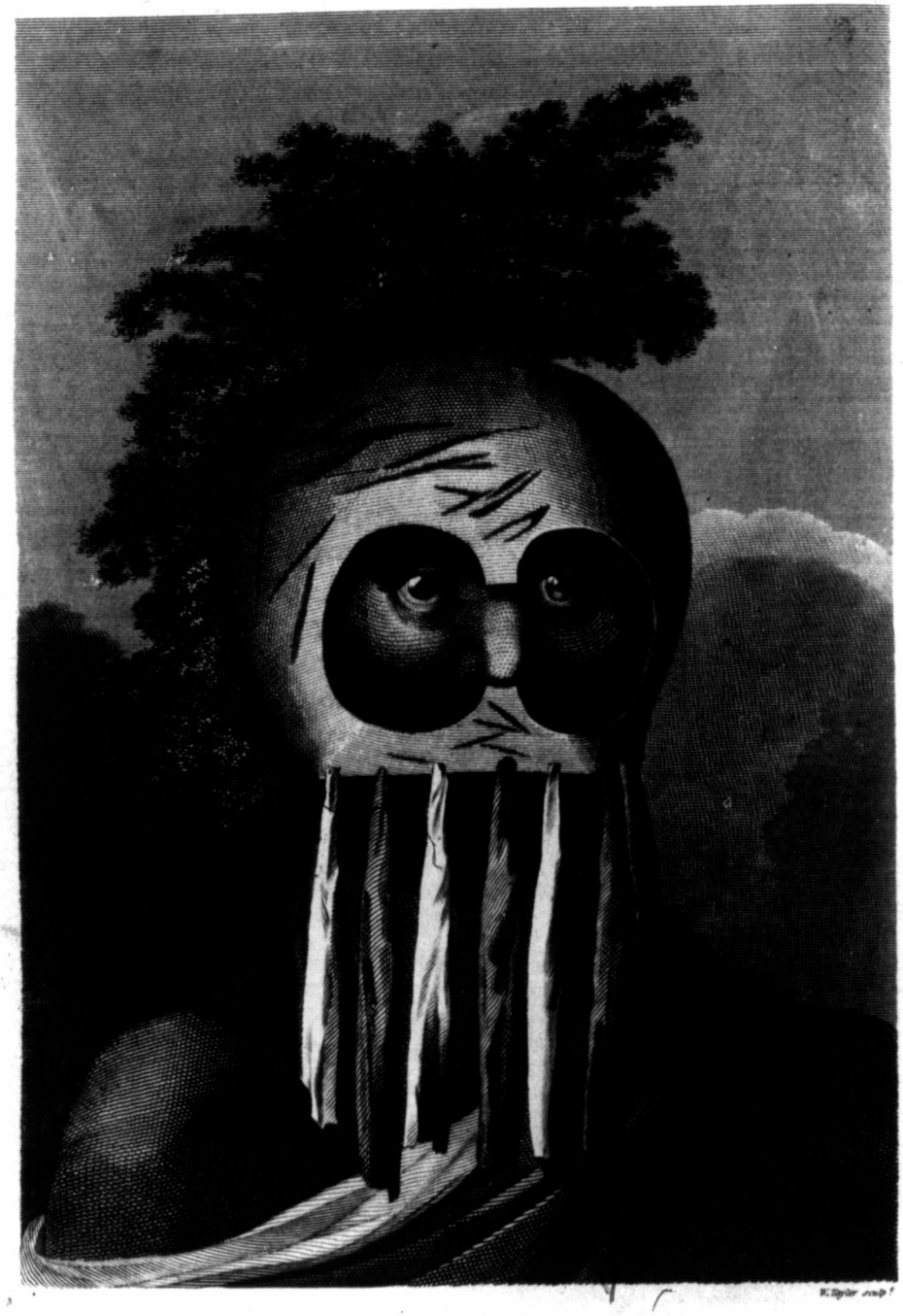
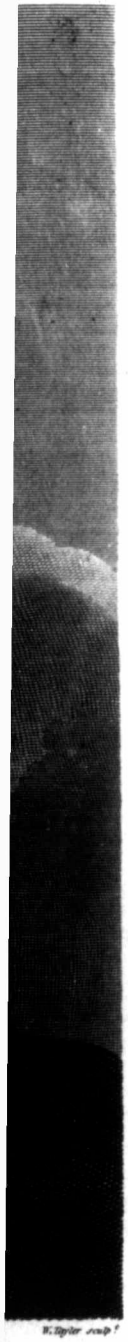


A MAN OF THE SANDWICH ISLANDS, MASKED.



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CHAP. XIV.

SANDWICH ISLANDS.

SECTION I.

General Deſcription.

THESE iſlands were diſcovered by Captain Cook, on his laſt voyage to the Pacific Ocean in 1778, and by him diſtinguiſhed by the name of the Sandwich Iſlands, in honour of the Earl of Sandwich.

The firſt five which he ſaw were called by the natives Woahoo, Atooi, Oneeheow, Oreehoua, and Tahoora. He received ſome intelligence with reſpect to the exiſtence of a low uninhabited iſland in the neighbourhood, named Tammata-pappa, which was never viſited. Beſides, he was farther informed, that there were other iſlands both to the eaſtward and weſtward. Owhyhee, the ſpot where our celebrated navigator fell a victim to the fury of the natives, with ſome others, was not diſcovered till ſome time after thoſe juſt mentioned, and will therefore be introduced, with every tranſaction relative to that memorable event, in its proper place. All theſe iſlands, he obſerved, were ſituated between the latitude of 21 deg. 30 min. and 22 deg. 15 min. north; and between the longitude of 199 deg. 20 min. and 201 deg. 30 min. eaſt.

All the information that could be derived reſpecting Woahoo, the moſt eaſterly of the iſlands diſcovered, was, that it is high land, and inhabited.

Captain Cook touched at Oneeheow, and was paid a degree of homage by the natives that came on board, as they crouched down upon the deck, nor would quit that humble poſture till they were requeſted to riſe. When he went on ſhore, he took with him three goats, a young boar and ſow of the Engliſh breed, and alſo the ſeeds of onions, pumpkins, and melons. Theſe he diſpoſed of in ſuch a manner, as he thought would beſt tend to promote the production of the reſpective ſpecies. This iſland is chiefly low land, excepting one part, which riſes immediately from the ſea to a conſiderable height; as does alſo its ſouth-eaſt point, which terminates in a round hill. Its chief vegetable productions are yams, and the ſweet root called *tee*. Our people procured ſome ſalt here, called by the natives *patai*, which is produced in ſalt ponds. With it they cure both fiſh and pork; and ſome of the fiſh being purchaſed, proved good, and kept well. The anchoring place at this iſland was in latitude 21 deg. 50 min. north; and longitude 199 deg. 45 min eaſt. Oreehoua and Tahoora, are two little iſlands in the vicinity of the former. Tahoora is uninhabited.

Of Atooi, as the largeſt ſeen, and affording the moſt extenſive ſcope for obſervation, as well as exhibiting a full diſplay of the natives, manners, cuſtoms, &c. of the iſlanders in general, we ſhall give a particular deſcription in the two following ſections.

SECTION II.

Of the Natives of Atooi. Manner in which they were affected on firſt coming on board the Ship. Reception of the Commodore on landing. Remarks on the Country. Deſcription of a Morai and its Obeliſk. Divers Cuſtoms, Incidents, &c.

WHEN the ſhips approached this iſland, many of the inhabitants put off in their canoes, and very readily came along-ſide. Our people were agreeably ſurpriſed to find that they ſpoke a dialect of the Otaheitean language. The could not at firſt be prevailed upon by any intreaties to come on board. Captain Cook tied ſome braſs medals to a rope, which he gave to thoſe who were in one of the canoes; and they, in return faſtened ſome mackarel to the rope, by way of equivalent. This was repeated, and ſome ſmall nails, or pieces of iron, were given them; for which they gave in exchange ſome more fiſh, and a ſweet potatoe; a ſure indication of their having ſome notion of bartering, or, at leaſt, of returning one preſent for another. One of them even offered for ſale the piece of ſtuff which he wore about his waiſt.

The natives of this iſland were of the middle ſtature, and of a robuſt form. Their complexion was brown; and though there appeared to be little difference in the caſts of their colour, there was a conſiderable variation in their features. Moſt of them had their hair cropped rather ſhort; a few had it tied in a bunch at the top of the head; and others ſuffered it to flow looſe. It ſeemed to be naturally black; but the generality of them had ſtained it with ſome ſtuff, which changed it to a browniſh colour. Moſt of them had pretty long beards. They had no ornaments about their perſons; nor was it obſerved that they had their ears perforated. Some of them were tatooed on their hands, or near the hips: and the pieces of cloth which were worn by them round their middle were curiouſly coloured with white, black, and red. They ſeemed to be mild and good-natured; and were furniſhed with no arms of any kind, except ſome ſmall ſtones, which, they had manifeſtly brought for their own defence; and theſe they threw into the ſea when they found that there was no occaſion for them.

In proceſs of time, as the ſhips ranged along the coaſt in queſt of a convenient ſpot for anchorage, ſome of the natives ventured to come on board; and it is remarked by our people, that none of the inhabitants they ever met with before, in any other iſland or country, were ſo aſtoniſhed as theſe people were, upon entering a ſhip. Their eyes were inceſſantly roving from one object to another: and the wildneſs of their looks and geſtures fully indicated their perfect ignorance with reſpect to every thing they ſaw; and ſtrongly pointed out, that they had never, till the preſent time, been viſited by Europeans, nor been acquainted with any of their commodities, except iron. This metal, however, they had in all probability only heard of, or had perhaps known it in ſome inconſiderable quantity, brought to them at a remote period. They aſked for it by the appellation of *hamaite*, referring probably to ſome inſtrument, in making which iron could be ſerviceably employed: for they applied that name to the blade of a knife, though they had no idea of that particular inſtrument, which they could not even handle properly. They alſo frequently called iron by the name of *toe*, which ſignifies a hatchet or adze. On being ſhewn ſome beads, they firſt aſked what they were, and then whether they were to be eaten? But on their being informed that they were to be hung in their ears, they rejected them as uſeleſs. They were equally indifferent with regard to a looking-glaſs that was offered them, and returned it for a ſimilar reaſon. China cups, plates of earthen ware and other things of that kind, were ſo new to them, that they aſked whether they were made of wood? they were, in many reſpects, naturally polite; or, at leaſt cautious of giving offence. Some of them, juſt before their venturing on board, repeated a long prayer; and others afterwards ſung, and made various motions with their hands.

When the boats, with a proper officer, were diſpatched to look out for a convenient landing place, the Commodore gave peremptory orders, that none of the crew ſhould go on ſhore, to prevent, if poſſible, the importation of a dangerous diſeaſe into this iſland, which he knew

knew ſome of the people now laboured under, and which they unfortunately had already communicated to other iſlands in this ocean.

From the ſame motive, he commanded that all female viſitants ſhould be excluded from both the ſhips. Many perſons of this ſex had come off in the canoes. Their complexion and ſtature were not very different from thoſe of the men: and though their countenances were extremely open and agreeable, few traces of delicacy were viſible, either in their faces or other proportions. The only difference in their dreſs, was their having a piece of cloth about their bodies, reaching from near the middle, almoſt down to the knees, inſtead of the *maro*, worn by the male ſex. Another prudent precaution was taken, that ſtrictly enjoining that no perſon, capable of communicating the infection, ſhould be ſent upon duty out of the ſhip.

When the ſhips were brought to anchor, the Captain went on ſhore, and was received at Oneeheow, in the moſt ſubmiſſive manner by the iſlanders, who fell proſtrate upon their faces, and continued in that poſture of humiliation, till, by ſigns, he prevailed on them to riſe. They then preſented to him many ſmall pigs, with plantain trees, making uſe of nearly the ſame ceremonies, which had been practiſed on ſimilar occaſions at the Society and other iſles; and a long oration, or prayer, being pronounced by an individual, in which others of the aſſembly occaſionally joined. Captain Cook ſignified his acceptance of their proffered friendſhip, by beſtowing on them in return ſuch preſents as he had brought on ſhore.

The captain, determining on an excurſion into the country, was accompanied by two gentlemen, and followed by a numerous train of natives, one of whom, who had been very active in keeping the others in order, the captain made choice of as a guide. This man, from time to time, proclaiming the approach of the ſtrangers, every perſon who met them fell proſtrate on the ground, and remained in that humble poſition till they had paſſed. This they were afterwards informed is their method of ſhewing reſpect to their own great chiefs.

On their excurſion they ſaw a *morai*, which bore a ſtriking reſemblance, in ſeveral reſpects, to thoſe they had ſeen at Otaheite, and other iſlands in this ocean. It was an oblong ſpace, of conſiderable extent, environed by a ſtone wall, four or five feet high. The incloſed ſpace was looſely paved; and at one end of it was placed the obeliſk or pyramid, called by the natives *hemaináa*, which was an exact model of the larger one that they had diſcerned from the ſhips. It was about twenty feet in height, and four feet ſquare at the baſe. Its four ſides were formed of ſmall poles, interwoven with twigs and branches, thus compoſing an indifferent wicker-work, hollow within, from the top to the bottom. It appeared to be in a ruinous ſtate, and had been originally covered with a thin greyiſh cloth. On each ſide of it were long pieces of wicker-work, termed *hevaaee*, in a condition equally ruinous; with two poles inclining towards each other at one corner, where ſome plantains were placed on a board, fixed at the height of about half a dozen feet. This was called by the iſlanders *herairewy*; and they ſaid, that the fruit was an offering to their deity. Before the *hemaináa* were ſeveral pieces of wood, carved into ſome reſemblance of human figures. There was alſo a ſtone near two feet in height, covered with cloth. Adjoining to this, on the outſide of the *morai*, was a ſmall ſhed, which they denominated *hareepaboo*; and before it there was a grave, where the remains of a woman had been depoſited.

On the further ſide of the area of the *morai*, there was a houſe or ſhed, called *hemaináa*; it was about forty feet in length, ten or eleven feet in height, and ten in breadth at the middle, but narrower at each end; tho' conſiderably longer, it was lower than their common habitations. Oppoſite the entrance into this houſe ſtood two images near three feet high, cut out of one piece of wood, with pedeſtals. They were ſaid to be *Eatooa no Tehetta*, or repreſentations of goddeſſes, and were not very indifferent, either in point of execution or deſign. On the head of one of them was a cylindrical cap, not unlike the head-dreſs at Otaheite, called *tomou*; and on that of the other, a carved helmet, ſomewhat reſembling thoſe of the ancient warriors; and both of them had pieces of cloth faſtened about the loins, and hanging down a conſiderable way. There was alſo, at the ſide of each, a piece of carved wood, with cloth hung on it. Before the pedeſtals lay a quantity of fern, which had been placed there at different times. In the middle of the houſe and before the images juſt deſcribed, was an oblong ſpace, incloſed by an edging of ſtone, and covered with ſhreds of cloth. This was the grave of ſeven chiefs, and was called *heneene*.

From the ſimilarity between this morai, and thoſe of the iſlands they had lately quitted, little doubt was entertained by our people, that a ſimilarity exiſted alſo in the rites here ſolemnized, and particularly in the horrid oblation of human victims. Their ſuſpicions were ſoon confirmed: for on one ſide of the entrance into the *hemaináa*, they obſerved a ſmall ſquare place, and another ſtill ſmaller; and on aſking what theſe were, they were informed by their conductor, that in one of them was interred a man who had been ſacrificed; and in the other a hog, which had alſo been offered up to the deity. At no great diſtance from theſe were three other ſquare incloſed places, with two pieces of carved wood at each of them, and an heap of fern upon them. Theſe were the graves of three chiefs; and before them was an incloſed ſpace of an oblong figure, called *Tangata-taboo*, by the guide, who declared to them, that three human ſacrifices, one at the funeral of each chief, had been there buried. Upon the whole, from appearances in general, there was not room to doubt of the univerſal prevalence of this practice in the iſland under deſcription.

Of all the various articles which the natives brought to exchange with our people, nothing ſo much attracted their notice, and, it might be added their admiration, as a ſort of cloak and cap, which even in more poliſhed countries, might be eſteemed elegant. Theſe cloaks are nearly of the ſhape and ſize of the ſhort ones worn by the men in Spain, and by the women in England, tied looſely before, and reaching to the middle of the back. The ground of them is a net-work with the moſt beautiful red and yellow feathers ſo cloſely fixed upon it, that the ſurface, both in point of ſmoothneſs and gloſſineſs, reſembles the richeſt velvet. The method of varying the mixture is very different; ſome of them having triangular ſpaces of yellow and red alternately; others, a ſort of creſcent; while ſome were entirely red, except that they had a broad yellow border. The brilliant colours of the feathers, in thoſe cloaks that were new, had a very fine effect. The natives, at firſt, refuſed to part with one of theſe cloaks for any thing that was offered in exchange, demanding no leſs a price than one of the muſkets. They afterwards, however, received as the purchaſe of them ſome very large nails. Thoſe of the beſt ſort were ſcarce; and, it is probable, that they are uſed only on particular occaſions.

The caps are made in the form of an helmet, with the middle part, or creſt, frequently of an hand's breadth. They ſit very cloſe upon the head, and have notches to admit the ears. They conſiſt of twigs and oſiers, covered with a net-work, into which feathers are wrought, as upon the cloaks, but ſomewhat cloſer, and leſs diverſified; the major part being red, with ſome yellow, green, or black ſtripes on the ſides. Theſe caps, in all probability, complete the dreſs, with the cloaks; for the iſlanders appeared, ſometimes, in both together.

Our people were at a loſs at firſt to conjecture by what means they procured ſuch a quantity of theſe beautiful feathers, but were ſoon made acquainted with that particular from the great number of ſkins of a ſmall red ſpecies of bird they brought for ſale. Thoſe that were firſt purchaſed conſiſted only of the ſkin from behind

RAPHY

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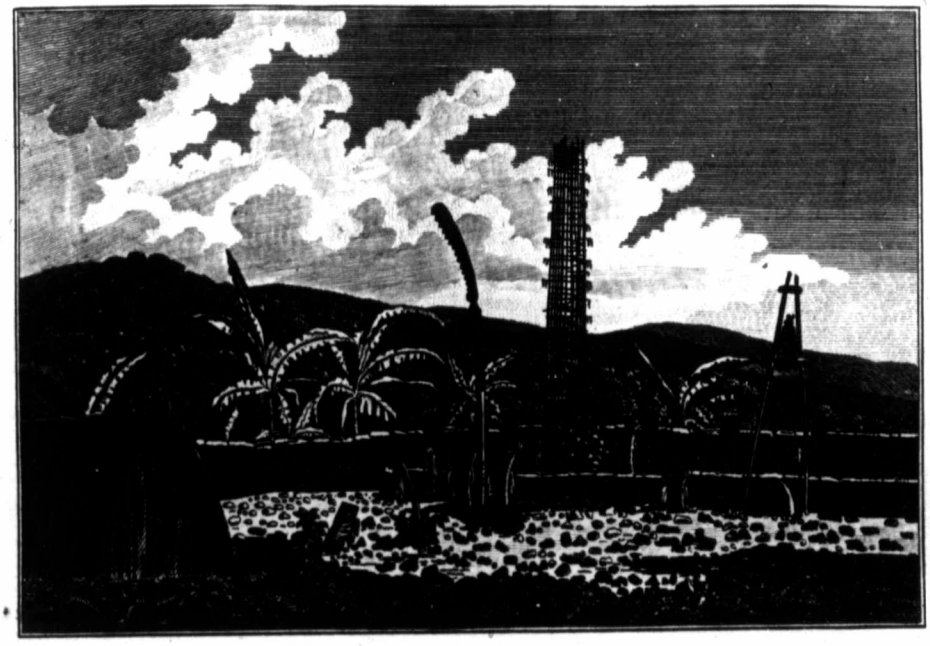
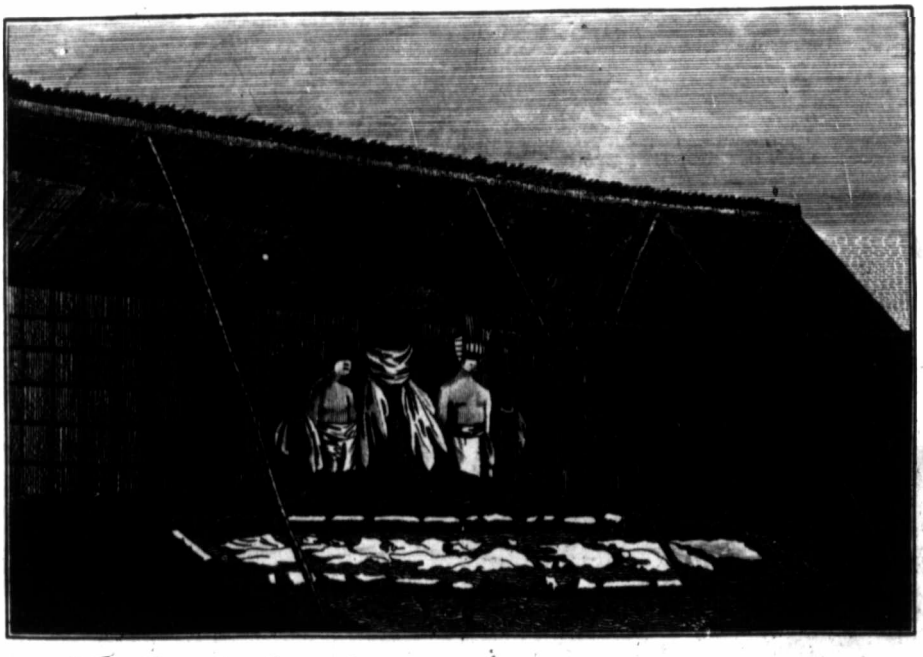
Engraved for BANKES's *New System of* GEOGRAPHY. *Published by Royal Authority.*



The Outside of a MORAI. *or Burial Place in* ATOOI.



The Inside of a House in the MORAI *in* ATOOI.

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hind the ſhoulder of the wings; but they afterwards got many with the hind part, including the feet and tail. The reaſon aſſigned by the inhabitants of Atooi, for the cuſtom of cutting off the feet of theſe birds is, that by this practice they can preſerve them the more eaſily, without loſing any part which they conſider as valuable.

The red-bird of this iſland was a ſpecies of *merops*, about as large as a ſparrow: its colour was a beautiful ſcarlet, with the tail and wings black: and it had an arched bill, twice as long as the head, which, with the feet, was of a reddiſh hue. The contents of the heads were taken out, as in the birds of paradiſe. But it was not obſerved, that they practiſed any other mode of preſerving them, than ſimple drying; for the ſkins, though they were moiſt, had neither ſmell or taſte.

Some inſtances occurred, which proved beyond a doubt, that the inhabitants of this iſland feed upon human fleſh. One of them that came out in a canoe, bringing articles by way of barter, and amongſt the reſt ſome fiſh-hooks, was obſerved to have a very ſmall parcel faſtened to the ſtring of one of them, which he carefully ſeparated, and reſerved for himſelf, when he diſpoſed of the hook. Upon enquiry what it was, he pointed to his belly, and intimated ſomething of its being dead; ſaying, at the ſame time, that it was bad. He was requeſted to open the parcel, which he did with great reluctance, and it was found that it contained a ſmall thin piece of fleſh, which had, to all appearance, been dried, but was then wet with ſalt water. Our people imagining it might be human fleſh, put the queſtion to the producer of it, who anſwered, that the fleſh was part of a man. Another of the iſlanders, who ſtood near him, was then aſked, whether it was a cuſtom among them to eat their enemies who had been ſlain in battle, on which he replied in the affirmative.

Candour, however, rendering our people extremely averſe to entertain a belief of the prevalence of this horrid cuſtom, notwithſtanding the late ſuſpicious circumſtance, they made further enquiries on this ſubject. A ſmall inſtrument of wood, beſet with ſhark's teeth, had been purchaſed, which, as it reſembled the ſaw or knife made uſe of by the ſavages of New Zealand, to diſſect the bodies of their enemies, was ſuſpected to be employed here for the ſame purpoſe. One of the iſlanders being queſtioned on this point, acknowledged that the inſtrument before mentioned ſerved the purpoſe of cutting out the fleſhy part of the belly, when any perſon was ſlain. This explained and confirmed the circumſtance before related, of the man's pointing to his belly. The native, however, from whom this intelligence was received, being aſked whether his countrymen eat the part thus cut out, ſtrongly denied it; but, when the queſtion was repeated, he ſhewed ſome degree of apprehenſion, and ſwam off to his canoe. An elderly man, who ſat foremoſt in the canoe, was then aſked whether they eat the fleſh, and he anſwered in the affirmative. The queſtion being put a ſecond time, he again affirmed the fact, adding, that it was ſavoury food.

The curious enquiry, whether theſe iſlanders were cannibals, was renewed when the ſhips were off Oneeheow. The ſubject did not ariſe from any queſtions put by our people, but from a circumſtance that ſeemed to remove all doubt. One of the natives, who wiſhed to get in at the gun-room port, was refuſed; and he then aſked, whether they would kill and eat him, if he ſhould come in? accompanying this queſtion with ſigns ſo expreſſive, that a doubt could not be entertained with reſpect to his meaning. Our people had now an opportunity of retorting the queſtion as to this practice; and a man behind the other in the canoe, inſtantly replied, that if they were killed on ſhore, they would not ſcruple to eat them: not that he meant the natives would deſtroy them for that purpoſe, but that their devouring them would be the conſequence of creating enmity.

The obſervations which Captain Cook was enabled to make of the iſland of Atooi, combined with thoſe of a very expert natural philoſopher who accompanied him, will furniſh materials for the following ſection.

SECTION III.

More particular Deſcription of the Iſland of Atooi, as to extent, Face of the Country, Soil, Climate. Productions, animal and vegetable. Diſpoſition of the Natives, Dreſs. Ornaments. Habitation. Food. Cookery. Diverſions. Muſical Inſtruments. Manufactures. Tools. Weapons. Canoes. Agriculture. Government. Religion. Manners. And Language.

FROM the beſt obſervations that could be made, the iſland of Atooi is at leaſt ten leagues from eaſt to weſt, from whence its circumference may be nearly gueſſed.

The land does not in the leaſt reſemble, in its general appearance, any of the iſlands which our late navigators had viſited within the tropic of Capricorn, except its hills near the center, which are high, but ſlope gradually towards the ſea, or lower lands. Though it preſents not to the view the delightful borders of Otaheite, or the luxuriant plains of Tongataboo, covered with trees, which at once afford a ſhelter from the ſcorching rays of the ſun, a beautiful proſpect to the eye, and food for the natives, yet its poſſeſſing a greater portion of gently riſing land renders it, in ſome degree, ſuperior to the above mentioned favourite iſlands, as being more capable of improvement. The height of the land within, and the number of clouds hanging over it, ſeemed to indicate that there was a ſufficient ſupply of water, and that there were ſome running ſtreams, though our people had not an opportunity of ſeeing them. The ground, from the woody part to the ſea was covered with an excellent kind of graſs, about two feet in height, which ſometimes grew in tufts, and appeared capable of being converted into abundant crops of fine hay. But on this extenſive ſpace not even a ſhrub grows naturally.

In the narrow valley leading to the *morai* the ſoil is of a dark brown colour, rather looſe; but on the high ground it is of a reddiſh brown, more ſtiff and clayey. Its quality may be better eſtimated from its productions, than from its appearance. For the vale, or moiſt ground, produces *taro*, much larger than any ſeen before; and the more elevated ground furniſhes ſweet potatoes, that ſeldom weigh leſs than two or three pounds, frequently ten, and ſometimes a dozen or fourteen.

The temperature of the climate may be eaſily gueſſed from the ſituation of the iſland. It was remarked, however, by thoſe of our people who were moſt capable of judging, that, from what they experienced, it might be ſaid to be very variable; for, according to the general opinion, it was, at this time, the ſeaſon of the year when the weather is ſuppoſed to be moſt ſettled, the ſun being at its greateſt annual diſtance. The heat was now very moderate; and few of thoſe inconveniencies to which many countries lying within the tropics are ſubject, either from heat or moiſture, ſeems to be experienced here. Nor were there any dews of conſequence; a circumſtance which may partly be accounted for by the lower part of the country being deſtitute of trees.

The rock that conſtitutes the ſides of the valley is a dark grey ponderous ſtone, but honey-combed, with ſome ſpots of a ruſty colour, and ſome very minute ſhining particles interſperſed. It is of an immenſe depth, and ſeems to be divided into *ſtrata*, though nothing is interpoſed; for the large pieces always broke off to a determinate thickneſs, and did not appear to have adhered to thoſe that were below them. Other ſtones are, in all probability, much more various than in the ſouthern iſlands. For during the ſhort time the ſhips remained here, beſides the *lapis lydius*, was found a ſpecies of cream-coloured whetſtone, ſometimes variegated with whiter or blacker veins, like marble; and common writing ſlate.

The only tame or domeſtic animals found here were dogs, hogs, and fowls, which were all of the ſame kind as thoſe met with in the South Sea Iſlands in general. There were ſome ſmall lizards and ſome rats, reſembling thoſe of the other iſlands.

Our people did not meet with the ſcarlet birds alive that were brought for ſale; but ſaw one ſmall one, about the ſize of a canary bird, of a deep crimſon colour. They alſo ſaw a large owl, two brown hawks or kites, and a wild duck; and heard from the natives the names of ſome other birds, among which were the *otoo*, or blueiſh bird, and the *tarata*, a ſort of whimbrel. It is probable that the ſpecies of birds are numerous, if a judgment may be formed from the quantity of fine yellow, green, and ſmall, velvet-like, blackiſh feathers uſed upon the cloaks, and other ornaments, worn by theſe people.

The iſland did not appear to produce fiſh either in quantity or variety, as the only fiſh ſeen by our people, beſides the ſmall mackarel, were common mullets; a ſpecies of a chalky colour; a ſmall browniſh rock fiſh, adorned with blue ſpots; a turtle, which was penned up in a pond; and three or four ſorts of fiſh ſalted. The few ſhell-fiſh ſeen were converted into ornaments, tho' they were deſtitute of the recommendation either of beauty or novelty.

Of vegetables produced in this iſland are ſix different kinds of plantains, bread-fruit, a few cocoa palms, ſome yams, the *kappe* of the Friendly Iſlands, or Virginian *arum*; the *etooa* tree, and odoriferous *gardenia*, or *cape jaſmine*. There were ſeveral trees of the *dooe dooe*, that bear the oily nuts, which are ſtuck upon a kind of ſkewer, and made uſe of as candles. The iſlanders wear theſe nuts, hung on ſtrings, round their necks. There is a ſpecies of *ſida*, or Indian mallow; alſo the *morinda citrifolia*, which is here called *none*; a ſpecies of *convolvulus*, the *ava*, or intoxicating pepper, beſides a great quantity of gourds. Theſe laſt grow to a very large ſize, and are of a remarkable variety of ſhapes, which are, perhaps, the effect of art. Upon the dry ſand, about the village, grew a plant, that had never been ſeen by our people in this ocean, of the ſize of a common thiſtle and prickly, but bearing a fine flower, greatly reſembling a white poppy.

The natives of Atooi appear to be of a frank, chearful diſpoſition; equally free from the fickle levity that characterizes the inhabitants of Otaheite, and the ſedate caſt which is obſervable among many of thoſe of Tongataboo. They ſeem to cultivate a ſocial intercourſe with each other, and, except the propenſity to thieving, which is, as it were, innate in moſt of the people of theſe ſeas, they were exceeding friendly. It does no ſmall credit to their ſenſibility to obſerve, that when they ſaw the different articles of European manufacture, they could not refrain from expreſſing their aſtoniſhment, by a mixture of joy and concern, that ſeemed to apply the caſe as a leſſon of humility to themſelves; and, on every occaſion, appeared to have a proper conſciouſneſs of their own inferiority. It was pleaſing to obſerve with what affection the women managed their infants, and with what alacrity the men contributed their aſſiſtance in ſuch a tender office.

They are active, vigorous, and expert ſwimmers; leaving their canoes upon the moſt frivolous occaſion, diving under them, and ſwimming to others, though at a conſiderable diſtance. Women were frequently ſeen with infants at their breaſts, when the ſurf was ſo high as to prevent their landing in the canoes, leap overboard, and ſwim to the ſhore.

If judgment might be formed from the number ſeen by our people as they ranged along the coaſt, the inhabitants of this iſland are pretty numerous. Including the ſtraggling houſes, there might, perhaps, be in the whole iſland, forty ſuch villages as that near which the ſhips anchored; and, if allowance is made of five perſons to each houſe, there would be, in every village, five hundred; or thirty thouſand upon the iſland. This number is by no means exaggerated, for there were ſometimes three thouſand people, at leaſt, collected on the beach, when it could not be ſuppoſed that above a tenth part of the natives were preſent.

We have already deſcribed the ordinary dreſs of the natives of both ſexes; but ſhall now attend to particulars. The women have often much larger pieces of cloth wrapped about them, extending from juſt below the breaſts to the hams, and ſometimes lower; and ſeveral were obſerved with pieces thrown looſely over their ſhoulders, which covered the greateſt part of the body; but the children, when very young, go entirely naked. They do not wear any thing on the head; but the hair, both of men and women, is cut in various forms, and the general faſhion, particularly among the latter, is, to have it ſhort behind and long before. The men frequently have it cut on each ſide in ſuch a manner, that the remaining part ſomewhat reſembled the creſt of their caps or helmets. Both ſexes, however, ſeemed to be very careleſs about their hair, and had no combs, or any thing of the kind, to dreſs it. The men ſometimes twiſt it into a number of ſeparate parcels, like the tails of a wig, each about as thick as a finger; though moſt of theſe, which are ſo long as to reach far down the back, are artificially fixed upon the head, over their own hair.

The people of the Sandwich Iſles have not their ears perforated, nor do they wear any ornaments in them. Both men and women, however, adorn themſelves with necklaces compoſed of bunches of ſmall black cord, like our hat ſtring, often above an hundred-fold. They have alſo necklaces of many ſtrings of very ſmall ſhells, or of the dried flowers of the Indian mallow; and they ſometimes hang round their necks a ſmall human figure of bone, about the length of three inches. The women likewiſe wear bracelets of a ſingle ſhell, pieces of black wood, with bits of ivory interſperſed, and neatly poliſhed, faſtened together by a ſtring drawn cloſely through them; or others of hogs teeth placed parallel to each other, with the concave part outward, and the points cut off; ſome of which, formed only of large boar's tuſks, are very elegant.

The men ſometimes fix on their heads plumes of feathers of the tropic bird, or thoſe of cocks, faſtened round neat poliſhed ſticks two feet in length; and, for the ſame purpoſe, they ſew the ſkin of a white dog's tail over a ſtick, with its tuft at the end. They alſo frequently wear on the head a kind of ornament of the thickneſs of a finger or more, covered with yellow and red feathers, curiouſly varied, and tied behind; and, on that part of the arm which is above the elbow, a ſort of broad ſhell-work grounded upon net-work.

The men ſometimes puncture themſelves upon the hands or arms, but frequently no marks at all were ſeen; though a few individuals had more of this ſpecies of ornament than had been uſually noticed at other places, and curiouſly executed in a great variety of lines and figures, on the arms and fore-part of the body.

Their habitations are ſcattered about without the leaſt order; ſome are large and commodious, from 40 to 50 feet in length, and 20 or 30 in breadth; while others are the moſt contemptible hovels. Their figure reſembles that of hay ſtacks, or, perhaps, a better idea may be conceived of them, by ſuppoſing the roof of a barn placed on the ground in ſuch a manner as to form an high ſharp ridge with two low ſides. The gable at each end, correſponding to the ſides, makes theſe dwelling-places cloſe all round; and they are well covered with long graſs, which is laid on ſlender poles. The entrance is made either in the end or ſide, and is an oblong hole extremely low: it is often ſhut up by a board of planks faſtened together, which ſerves as a door; but, as it has no hinges, muſt be removed occaſionally. No light enters the houſe except by this opening; and though ſuch cloſe habitations may be comfortable places of retreat in bad weather, they ſeem but ill adapted to the warm climate of this country. They are kept remarkably clean, and the floors are

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ſtrewed with dried graſs, over which mats are ſpread to ſit and ſleep on. At one end ſtands a bench about three feet high, on which the domeſtic utenſils are placed. Theſe conſiſt of gourd ſhells, which the natives convert into veſſels that ſerve as bottles to hold water, and as baſkets to contain their food and other things; and alſo of a few wooden bowls and trenchers of various ſizes.

Sweet potatoes and plantains conſtitute the principal part of their vegetable diet; ſo that yams and bread-fruit are rather to be conſidered as rarities. Of animal food they ſeem to be in no want, as they have great numbers of hogs, which run without reſtraint about the houſes; and, if they eat dogs, which is not altogether improbable, their ſtock of theſe ſeemed very conſiderable. The quantities of fiſhing-hooks found among them indicated that they procure ſome ſupply of animal food from the ſea. They have a cuſtom of ſalting fiſh, and likewiſe pork, which they preſerve in gourd ſhells. The ſalt which they uſe for this purpoſe is of a reddiſh colour, but not very coarſe.

They bake their vegetable articles of food with heated ſtones; and from the great quantity which was ſeen dreſſed at one time, it was ſuppoſed that all the inhabitants of a village, or at leaſt a conſiderable number of people, joined in the uſe of a common oven.

They eat out of a ſort of wooden trenchers, and, as far as our people could judge from one inſtance, the women, if reſtrained from feeding at the ſame diſh, as is the cuſtom at Otaheite, are at leaſt allowed to eat at the ſame place near them.

The diverſions of theſe iſlands are various. Our people did not ſee the dances in which they uſe the feathered cloaks and caps; but, from the motions which they made with their hands, on other occaſions, when they ſung, they judged that they were ſomewhat ſimilar to thoſe they had met with at the ſouthern iſlands, tho' not ſo ſkilfully performed. They had not among them either flutes or reeds, and the only two muſical inſtruments ſeen were of a very rude kind. One of them does not produce a ſound ſuperior to that of a child's rattle. It conſiſts of what may be denominated a conic cap inverted, but very little hollowed at the baſe, made of a ſedge-like plant, the upper part of which, and likewiſe the edges, are embelliſhed with beautiful red feathers, and to the point, or lower part, is fixed a gourd ſhell. Into this they put ſomething to rattle, which is done by holding the inſtrument by the ſmall part, and ſhaking it briſkly before the face, at the ſame time ſtriking the breaſt with the other hand. The other inſtrument was a hollow veſſel of wood not unlike a platter, combined with the uſe of two ſticks, on which one of the natives was obſerved performing. He held one of the ſticks, about two feet in length, with one hand, in the ſame manner as the Europeans hold a violin, and ſtruck it with the other, which was ſmaller, and reſembled a drum-ſtick, in a quicker or ſlower meaſure; beating with his foot at the ſame time upon the hollow veſſel that lay upon the ground inverted, and thus producing a tune that was not diſagreeable. This muſic was accompanied by the vocal performance of ſome women, whoſe ſong had a pleaſing effect.

Theſe people diſplay a conſiderable deal of ingenuity in their different manufactures. Their cloth is made from the *morus papyrifera*, and, doubtleſs, in the ſame manner as at Tongataboo and Otaheite; for our people brought ſome of the grooved ſticks with which they beat it. Its texture, however, though thicker, is inferior to that of the cloth of either of the places juſt mentioned; but in colouring or ſtaining it, the inhabitants of Atooi diſplay a ſuperiority of taſte, by the infinite variety of figures which they execute. Their colours, indeed, are not very bright, except the red; but the regularity of the figures and ſtripes is amazing; for, as far as was known, they have nothing like ſtamps or prints, to make the impreſſions. Beſides the variegated ſorts, they have ſome pieces of plain white cloth, and others of a ſingle colour, particularly light blue, and dark brown. In general, the pieces brought for exchange, were about the breadth of two feet, and four or five yards in length, being the form and quantity made uſe of by them for their common dreſs, or *maro*; and even ſome of theſe were compoſed of pieces ſewed together.

They have alſo a particular ſort that is thin, and greatly reſembles oil-cloth; and which is either oiled or ſoaked in ſome kind of varniſh. They fabricate numbers of white mats, which are ſtrong, with many red ſtripes, quadrangular and other figures interwoven on one ſide. Theſe, in all probability, make a part of their dreſs; for when they offered them to ſale, they put them on their backs. They manufacture others of a coarſer ſort, plain and ſtrong, which they ſpread over their floors to ſleep upon.

They ſtain their gourd-ſhells neatly with undulated lines, triangles, and other figures of a black colour. They alſo ſeem to be acquainted with the art of varniſhing; for ſome of their ſtained gourd-ſhells are covered with a ſort of lacker; and, on other occaſions, they make uſe of a ſtrong ſize, or glutinous ſubſtance, to faſten things together. Their wooden diſhes and bowls, out of which they drink their *ava*, are of the *etooa* tree, or *cordia*, extremely neat, and well poliſhed. They likewiſe make ſmall ſquare fans of mat or wicker-work, with handles of the ſame, or of wood, tapering from them, which are curiouſly wrought with ſmall cords of hair, and cocoa-nut fibres, intermixed. Their fiſhing-hooks are ingeniouſly made; ſome of bone, many of pearl-ſhell, and others of wood, pointed with bone. The bones are for the moſt part ſmall, and conſiſt of two pieces; and the various ſorts have a barb, either on the inſide, or the outſide: but others have both, the exterior one being fartheſt from the point. Of the latter ſort, one was procured, nine inches in length, made of a ſingle piece of bone; the elegant form and poliſh of which could not be exceeded by any European artiſt. They poliſh their ſtones by conſtant friction, with pumice-ſtone in water; and ſuch of their tools as were ſeen reſembled thoſe of the ſouthern iſlanders. Their hatchets, or rather adzes, were exactly of the ſame pattern, and were either formed of a blackiſh ſtone, or of a clay-coloured one. They have alſo ſmall inſtruments, compoſed of ſingle ſhark's tooth, ſome of which are fixed to the fore part of the jaw-bone of a dog, and others to a thin wooden handle of a ſimilar ſhape; and at the other end there is a bit of ſtring faſtened through a little hole. They ſerve occaſionally as knives, and are probably uſed in carving.

The only iron tools ſeen among them, and which they poſſeſſed before the arrival of our ſhips, were a piece of iron hoop, about the length of two inches, fitted into a wooden handle; and another edge-tool, which was ſuppoſed to have been made of the point of a broad ſword. Their having the actual poſſeſſion of theſe, and their being well acquainted with the uſe of this metal, inclined ſome of our people to imagine, that they were not the firſt European viſitors of theſe iſlands. But the very great ſurpriſe which they teſtified on ſeeing our ſhips, and their perfect ignorance of the uſe of fire-arms, cannot be reconciled with ſuch an opinion.

Indeed, very ingenious obſervations and reflections have been made by men of ſpeculation, to ſhew that the natives of Atooi might have received this metal from intermediate iſlands, ſituated between them and the Ladrones, which the Spaniards have frequented almoſt ever ſince the period of Magellan's voyage in 1719.

Beſides their ſpears, formed of a fine browniſh wood, beautifully poliſhed, ſome of which are barbed at one end, and flattened to a point at the other, they have a kind of weapon which our people had never met with before; it ſomewhat reſembles a dagger, and is, in general, about eighteen inches in length, ſharpened at one or both ends, and ſecured to the hand by a ſtring. Its uſe is to ſtab in cloſe combat, and it ſeems well adapted for that purpoſe. Some of theſe may be denominated double daggers, having a handle in the middle, with which they are the better enabled to ſtrike different

ways,

ways. They have likewiſe bows and arrows; but, both from their ſlender conſtruction, and their apparent ſcarcity, it is probable that they never make uſe of them in battle. The knife or ſaw, with which they diſſect the dead bodies of their enemies, may alſo be ranked among their weapons, as they both ſtrike and cut with it when engaged in cloſe fight. It is a ſmall flat wooden inſtrument, about a foot in length, of an oblong ſhape, rounded at the corners: its edges are ſurrounded with ſhark's teeth, ſtrongly fixed to it, and pointing outwards; and it has generally a hole in the handle, thro' which paſſes a long ſtring, which they wrap ſeveral times round the wriſt.

The canoes of theſe people are commonly about four and twenty feet in length, and have the bottom, in general, formed of a ſingle piece of wood, hollowed out to the thickneſs of an inch, or more, and brought to a point at each end. The ſides are compoſed of three boards, each about an inch thick, neatly fitted, and laſhed at the bottom. The extremities, both at head and ſtern, are a little elevated, and both are made ſharp, ſomewhat reſembling a wedge, but they flatten more abruptly, ſo that the two ſide-boards join each other, ſide by ſide, for upwards of a foot. As they ſeldom exceed a foot and a half in breath, thoſe that go ſingle (for they ſometimes join them) have out-riggers, which are ſhaped and fitted with more judgement than any before ſeen. They are rowed by paddles, ſuch as had been generally obſerved at other iſlands: and ſome of them have a light triangular ſail, extended to a maſt or boom. The ropes which they uſe for their boats, and the ſmaller cords for their fiſhing-tackle, are ſtrong, and neatly made.

From appearances in general, the natives poſſeſs a knowledge of agriculture. The vale-ground is one continued plantation of *taro*, and ſome other articles, which have all the appearance of being carefully attended to. The potatoe-fields, and ſpots of ſugar-cane, or plantains, on the higher grounds, are planted with great regularity; but neither theſe, or the others, are encloſed with any fence, unleſs the ditches in the low grounds may be conſidered as ſuch: which, it is more probable, are deſigned to convey water to the *taro*. The great quantity and excellence of theſe articles may, perhaps, be as much owing to ſkilful culture, as natural fertility of ſoil, which ſeems better adapted to them, than to bread-fruit and cocoa-nut trees; the few of theſe latter which were ſeen, not being in a thriving ſtate. Notwithſtanding this ſkill in agriculture, the iſland, from its general appearance, ſeemed to be capable of more extenſive improvement, and of maintaining thrice as many inhabitants as are now upon it; for the greater part of it, that now lies waſte, was apparently as good a ſoil as thoſe parts that were cultivated. It muſt therefore be inferred, that theſe people do not encreaſe in that proportion, which would render it neceſſary for them to take advantage of the extent of their iſland, towards raiſing a greater quantity of its vegetable productions for their maintenance.

Our people had not an opportunity of forming an accurate judgement of the mode of government eſtabliſhed amongſt theſe people; but, from their general obſervation, it ſeemed reaſonable to imagine, that it is of the ſame nature with that which prevails in all the iſlands they had hitherto viſited; and, in all probability, their wars among themſelves are equally frequent. This indeed might be inferred from the number of weapons which were found in their poſſeſſion, and from the excellent order in which they kept them. But they had proofs of the fact from their own confeſſion; being informed, theſe wars are carried on between the different diſtricts of their own iſland, as well as between it and the inhabitants of the neighbouring iſlands. No other cauſe than this need be aſſigned, to account for the appearance before mentioned, or their population not being proportioned to the extent of their ground that is capable of cultivation.

As we do not deem it ſufficient to obſerve in general, that there is an affinity between the manners of theſe people, and the natives of the Friendly and Society Iſlands, we ſhall cite a few particulars, that will ſerve to place this in a ſtriking point of view.

With reſpect to religious inſtitutions, and the manner of diſpoſing of the dead, the inhabitants of Tongataboo bury the dead with great decency, and they alſo inter their human ſacrifices; but they do not offer any other animal, or even vegetable to their deities. The Otaheiteans do not inter their dead, but expoſe them to waſte by time and putrefaction, though they afterwards bury the bones; and this being the caſe, it it remarkable that they ſhould inter the entire bodies of their human ſacrifices. They alſo offer up to their gods other animals and vegetables; but are far from being attentive to the condition of the places where they celebrate thoſe ſolemn rites; moſt of their *morais* being in a ruinous ſtate, and ſhewing manifeſt tokens of neglect. The people of Atooi, again, bury both their common dead, and their human ſacrifices, as at Tongataboo; but they reſemble thoſe of Otaheite, in offering vegetables and animals to their gods, and in the neglected ſtate of their religious places.

As a farther inſtance to ſubſerve our purpoſe on the preſent occaſion, it may be obſerved, that the *taboo* alſo prevails in Atooi, in its full extent, and apparently with greater ſtrictneſs than even at Tongataboo. For the natives here always aſked with great eagerneſs, and with indications of a fear of offending, whether any particular thing which they deſired to ſee, or our people were willing to ſhew, was *taboo*, or (as they pronounced the word) *tafoo?* meaning, forbidden.

But in no inſtance does the reſemblance between the natives of Atooi, and thoſe of Otaheite, appear in ſo ſtriking a light, as in the ſimilarity of language. Indeed, the languages of both places may be ſaid to be almoſt entirely the ſame.

SECTION IV.

Two Iſlands diſcovered, called Mowee and Owhyee. Character of the Natives of the latter. Deſcription of Karakakooa Bay. Inſtances of the Deſpotiſm of the Chiefs. Singular Conſtruction and Ceremonies of the Morai. Divers Ceremonies, Forms, Cuſtoms, and Manners.

OUR late navigators were obliged to quit theſe iſlands before they had procured a neceſſary ſupply of refreſhments, by an unfortunate incident. The anchor of the Reſolution having ſtarted, ſhe drove off the bank a conſiderable way to the leeward of the ſhip's laſt ſtation; ſo that the commodore foreſeeing it would require more time to regain it than he choſe to employ, he made the ſignal for the Diſcovery to weigh anchor, and both ſhips directed their courſe to the northward, in proſecution of diſcoveries, which was in February 1778.

Captain Cook, after having explored the dreary regions of the north, for the courſe of ſeveral ſucceeding months, determined to reviſit the Sandwich Iſlands, in order to paſs a few of the winter months, provided he ſhould meet with the neceſſary refreſhments.

From a more extenſive view of the ſpot on the ſecond viſit, which was November 26, 1778, it appeared that the former diſcovery made by our navigators, of the group of the Sandwich Iſlands, had been very imperfect; thoſe which they had viſited in their progreſs northward, all lying to the leeward of their preſent ſtation.

An elevated hill appeared in the country, whoſe ſummit roſe above the clouds. The land, from this hill, fell in a gradual ſlope, terminating in a ſteep rocky coaſt; the ſea breaking againſt it in a moſt dreadful ſurf. Unable to weather the iſland, they bore up, and ranged to the weſtward. They now perceived people on many parts of the ſhore, and ſeveral houſes and plantations. The country appeared to be well ſupplied with wood

Engraved for BANKES's *New System of* GEOGRAPHY *Published by Royal Authority.*

A CANOE *of the* SANDWICH ISLANDS, *with the Rowers Masked.*

Page sculp.

An OFFERING *before* CAPTN COOK *in the* SANDWICH ISLANDS.

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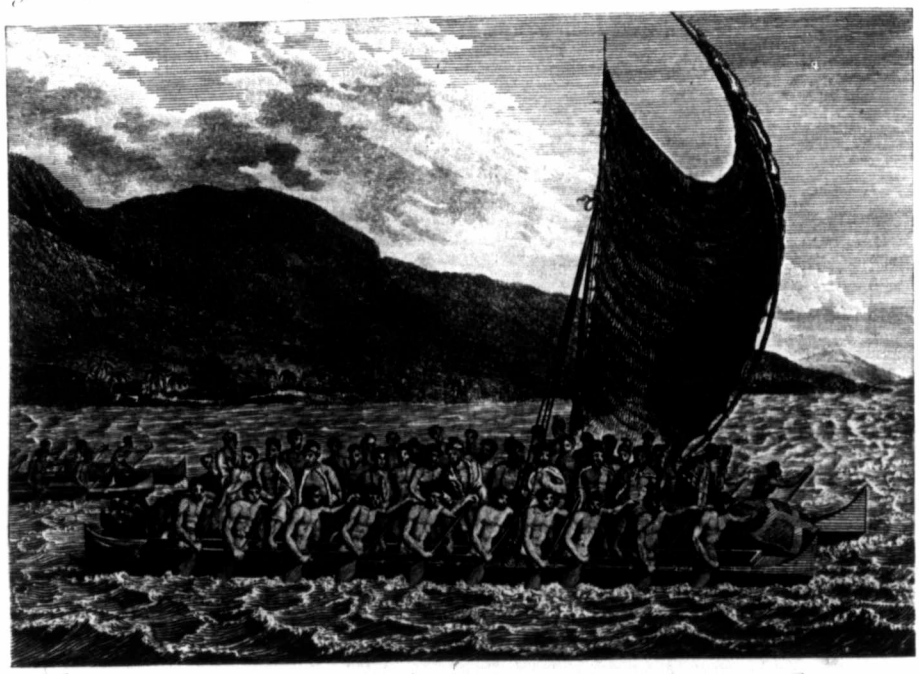
Engraved for BANKES's New System of GEOGRAPHY Published by Royal Authority.



Terreeoboo King of Whyhee, bringing Presents to Capt.n Cook.

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The Death of Captain Cook by the Natives of Whyhee.

Published as the Act directs by Jas Cooke, No 7 Paternoster Row, Oct.r 1.

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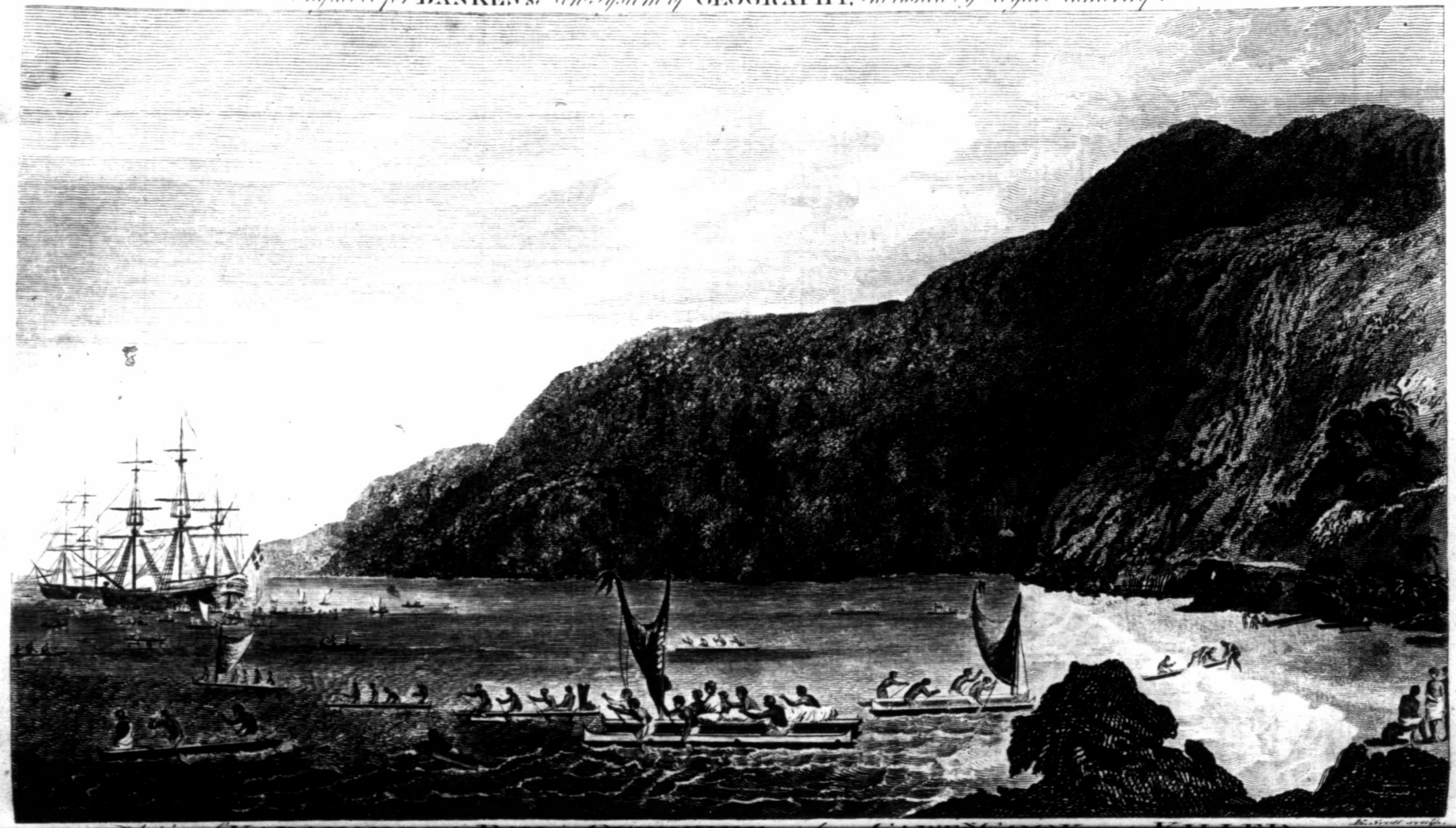

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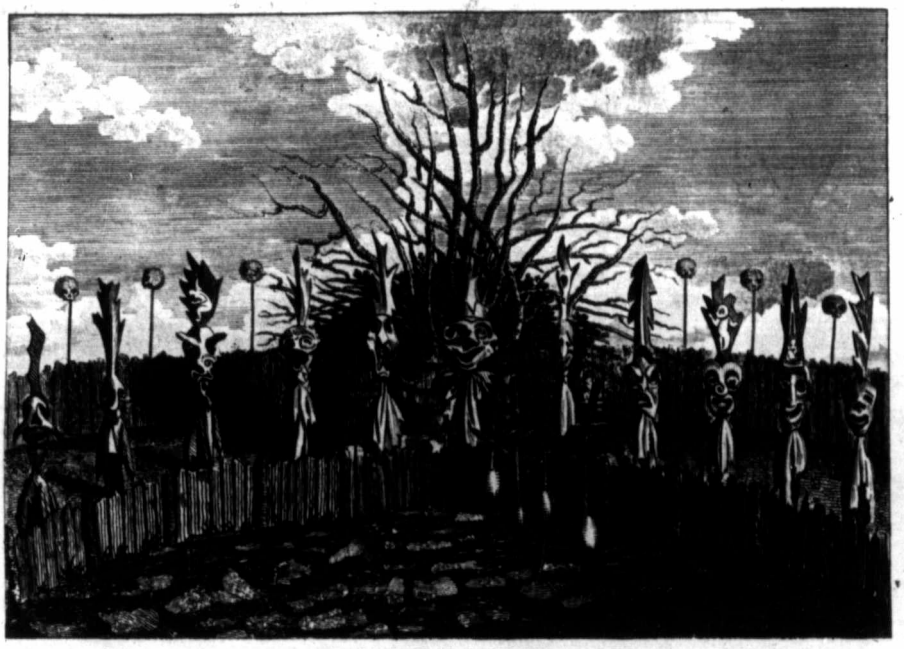

A Representation of a Morai, or Burial Place at Owhyhee.

A View in Owhyhee, with one of the Priests Houses.

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As the main deſign of reviſiting theſe iſlands, which was to procure a competent ſupply of proviſions, would be fruſtrated, if a free trade with the natives was permitted, Captain Cook publiſhed an order, prohibiting all perſons on board the ſhips from trading, except thoſe appointed by himſelf and Captain Clerke; and theſe were under limitations of trading only for proviſions and refreſhments. Injunctions were alſo laid againſt the admittance of women into the ſhips, but under certain reſtrictions. But the evil which was intended to have been prevented by this regulation had already got amongſt them.

As the ſhips were ranging along the coaſt, ſome canoes came off, and, when they got along ſide, many of the conductors of them came on board without heſitation. Our people perceived that they were of the ſame nation as thoſe iſlanders more to the leeward, which they had already viſited; and, as they underſtood, they were no ſtrangers to their having been there.

Theſe viſitors ſupplied them with a quantity of cuttle fiſh, in exchange for nails and iron. They brought but little fruit or roots, but ſaid they had plenty of them on their iſland, as well as hogs and fowls.

Many of them afterwards brought divers commodities, which were bartered for ſuch articles as our people had to diſpoſe of. This iſland was called by the natives *Mowee*. The chief, who is named Terreeboo, viſited the commodore on board, and made him a preſent in the uſual form.

Soon after another iſland was ſeen to the windward, called by the natives *Ohwyhee*. Standing on and off the iſland during the night, our people were greatly ſurpriſed in the morning, at ſeeing the ſummits of the mountains covered with ſnow. Though they were not of an extraordinary height, the ſnow, in ſome places, appeared to be of a conſiderable depth, and to have remained there ſome time. Drawing near the ſhore, the natives approached, and appeared a little ſhy at firſt; but ſome were prevailed on to come on board; and, at length, induced to return to the iſland, to bring a ſupply of what was wanted. Numbers followed, and brought a tolerable ſupply of pigs, fruit and roots.

The commodore having procured a great quantity of ſugar-cane, and, upon trial, diſcovering that a decoction of it made very palatable beer, he ordered ſome of it to be brewed for general uſe; but on broaching the caſks, not one of the crew would even taſte the liquor. Having no other motive in preparing this beverage, than that of preſerving the ſpirits for a colder climate, he neither exerted his authority, or had recourſe to perſuaſion, to induce them to drink it; well knowing, that ſo long as they could be plentifully ſupplied with vegetables, there was no danger of the ſcurvy. But, that he might not be diſappointed in his views, he ordered that no grog ſhould be ſerved in either of the ſhips. The officers continued to drink this ſugar-cane beer, whenever materials could be procured for brewing it. Some hops, which were on board, improved it much; and it was, doubtleſs, extremely wholeſome; though the inconſiderate crew thought it injurious to their health.

Our people met with leſs reſerve and ſuſpicion, in their intercourſe with the people of this iſland, than they had ever experienced among any tribe of ſavages. They frequently ſent up into the ſhip, the articles they meant to barter, and afterwards came in themſelves, to traffick on the quarter deck. The inhabitants of Otaheite, whom they had often viſited, had not that confidence in their integrity. Whence it may be inferred, that thoſe of Owhyhee are more faithful in their dealings with each other, than thoſe of Otaheite.

It is but juſtice to obſerve, that at firſt, they never attempted to over-reach in exchanges, or to commit a ſingle theft. They perfectly underſtood trading, and clearly comprehended the reaſon of the ſhips plying upon the coaſt. For though they brought off plenty of pigs, and other proviſion, they were particular in keeping up their price; and, rather than diſpoſe of them at an undervalue, would carry them aſhore again.

Canoes coming off from all quarters, there were at leaſt a thouſand about the two ſhips, crouded with people, and laden with hogs and other proviſions. Our people were perfectly convinced of their having no hoſtile intentions; not a ſingle perſon having a weapon with him of any ſort. Trade and curioſity were their only inducements to make the viſit. From the numbers frequently on board, it might be expected that ſome of them ſhould betray a thieviſh diſpoſition. One of them took a boat's rudder from the ſhip, and was not detected, till it was too late to recover it. Captain Cook imagined this to be a proper opportunity to ſhew theſe iſlanders the uſe of fire-arms. Two or three muſkets, and as many four pounders, were, by his orders, fired over the canoe, which went away with the rudder: but as the ſhot was not intended to take the effect, the ſurrounding multitude were only ſurpriſed and frightened.

When the ſhips anchored in the bay, called by the natives Karakahooa Bay, they continued much crouded with the natives, and ſurrounded by a vaſt multitude of canoes. In the courſe of their voyage, our people had no where ſeen ſuch vaſt numbers of people aſſembled at one place. Beſides thoſe who came in canoes, all the ſhore was covered with ſpectators: and hundreds were ſwimming about the ſhips, like ſhoals of fiſh. They were ſtruck with the ſingularity of this ſcene; and few on board lamented their having failed, in their late endeavours, to find a northern paſſage homeward the laſt ſummer; ſince to this diſappointment they were indebted for reviſiting the Sandwich Iſlands, and for enriching their voyage with a diſcovery, in many reſpects, the moſt important that has been made by Europeans in the Pacific Ocean.

Karakahooa Bay is ſituated in the diſtrict of Akona, on the weſt ſide of the Iſland of Owhyhee. It extends about a mile in depth, and is bounded by two points of land, bearing ſouth-eaſt and north-weſt from each other, at the diſtance of half a league. The north point is flat and barren, on which is ſituated the village of Kowrowa. A more conſiderable village, called Kakooa, ſtands in the bottom of the bay, near a grove of ſtately cocoa-trees. An high rocky cliff, inacceſſible from the ſea-ſhore, runs between them. Near the coaſt, on the ſouth-ſide, the land has a rugged appearance; beyond which the country gradually riſes, and abounds with cultivated incloſures, and groves of cocoa-trees. The habitations of the people are ſcattered about in great plenty. Round the bay the ſhore is covered with a black coral rock, except at Kakooa, where there is an excellent ſandy beach, with a *morai* at one extremity, and a ſpring of freſh water at the other.

The ſhips were no ſooner brought to anchor, than the natives came off in aſtoniſhing numbers, expreſſing their joy by ſinging, ſhouting, and the moſt extravagant geſtures. The decks, ſides, and rigging, of the ſhips, were covered with them. Women and boys, who were unable to procure canoes, came ſwimming round in great multitudes; ſome of whom, not finding room to get on board, amuſed themſelves the whole day by playing in the water.

Amongſt thoſe of the natives who came on board the Reſolution, was a chief named Pareea. Though a young man, he was ſoon diſcovered to be a perſon of great authority. He told Captain Cook that he was *Jakane* to the ſovereign of the iſland, who was then on a military expedition at Mowhee, from whence he was expected to return in a few days. Our people could not learn whether the word *Jakane* was a name of office, or expreſſive of affinity. Some preſents from the commodore attached him to their intereſts, and they found him exceeding uſeful. Before they had been long at anchor, the Diſcovery had ſo many people hanging on one ſide, that ſhe was obſerved to heel conſiderably; and our people found it impoſſible to prevent the crowds

from preſſing into her. Captain Cook, apprehenſive that ſhe might receive ſome injury, communicated his fears to Pareea, who inſtantly cleared the ſhip of its incumbrances, and diſperſed the canoes that ſurrounded her.

It appears evident, from this circumſtance, that the chiefs have a moſt deſpotic authority over the inferior people. An inſtance, ſimilar to this, happened on board the Reſolution, where the crowd ſo far impeded the ordinary buſineſs of the ſhip, that it was found neceſſary to apply to Kaneena, another chief, who had alſo attached himſelf particularly to Captain Cook. The inconvenience ſuffered was no ſooner mentioned, than he ordered the natives immediately to quit the veſſel, when, without a moment's heſitation, they all jumped overboard, except one perſon, who loitered behind, and, by his manner, expreſſed ſome degree of unwillingneſs to obey. Kaneena, obſerving this contempt of his authority, took hold of him immediately, and threw him into the ſea.

Theſe two chiefs were exceedingly well proportioned, and had countenances remarkably pleaſing. Kaneena was a fine figure. His height was about ſix feet; his features were regular and expreſſive, his deportment was eaſy, firm, and graceful; and he had dark lively eyes.

The two chiefs, Pareea and Kaneena, afterwards introduced a third on board, whoſe name was Koah. He was repreſented as a prieſt, and one who, in his early days, had diſtinguiſhed himſelf as a warrior. He was a little, old, emaciated figure, having ſore red eyes, and his body covered with a leprous ſcurf, occaſioned by the immoderate uſe of the *ava*. Being conducted to the cabin, he approached the commodore with the greateſt deference, threw a piece of red cloth over his ſhoulders, and retreating a few paces, made an offering of a ſmall pig, at the ſame time pronouncing a diſcourſe of a conſiderable length.

During their continuance at Owhyhee, this ceremony was repeated often, and, from a variety of circumſtances, appeared to be a kind of religious adoration. Red cloth is an article with which their idols are arrayed; and a pig is a common offering to the *Eatooas*. Their ſpeeches were delivered with a volubility that indicated them to be conformable to ſome ritual.

At the concluſion of this ceremony, Koah dined with the commodore, and eat plentifully of the viands before him; but, like moſt of the iſlanders in thoſe ſeas, he could hardly be induced to taſte wine or ſpirits a ſecond time. In the evening, the commodore went on ſhore. As ſoon as they landed on the beach, they were preceded by four men, bearing each a wand tipt with dog's hair, and pronouncing, with a loud voice, a ſhort ſentence, in which the word *Orono* was very diſtinguiſhable. The crowd which had aſſembled on the ſhore, retired at their approach; and not an individual was to be ſeen, except a few who had proſtrated themſelves on the ground near the habitations of the adjacent village.

Here it may be proper to obſerve, that *Orono* was Captain Cook's general appellation among the natives of Owhyhee. Sometimes it was applied by them to an inviſible being inhabiting heaven. It was alſo a title of great rank in the iſland.

Though we have already deſcribed ſeveral *morais* appertaining to different iſlands of the South Seas, that of Owhyhee is ſo ſingular in its conſtruction, and ſo peculiar in its ceremonies, that we preſume it cannot fail of being entertaining in the detail.

This *morai* conſiſted of a ſquare ſolid pile of ſtones, of the length of forty yards, the breadth of twenty, and the height of fourteen. The top of it was flat, and a wooden rail ſurrounded it, on which were diſplayed the ſkulls of thoſe natives, who had been ſacrificed on the deaths of their chiefs. A ruinous wooden building was ſituated in the center of the area, connected with the rail by a ſtone wall, dividing the whole ſpace into two parts. Five poles, of about twenty feet in height, ſupported an irregular kind of ſcaffold, on the ſide next the country; and, on the ſide towards the ſea, were two ſmall houſes, with a covered communication.

The commodore, accompanied by a party of gentlemen, was conducted to the ſummit of this pile by Koah, one of the chiefs beforementioned. They beheld, at their entrance, two large wooden images, with moſt diſtorted features, having a long piece of wood proceeding from the top of their heads, of a conical form inverted: the other parts were covered with red cloth. Here Captain Cook was received by a tall young man, having a long beard, who preſented him to the images, and chanted a kind of hymn, in which he was aſſiſted by Koah. The party were then led to that ſide of the *morai* where the poles were erected, at the foot of which twelve images were ranged in the form of a ſemicircle; the middle figure having a high table before it, on which was a putrid hog, and under it ſome cocoa-nuts, plantains, potatoes, bread-fruit, and pieces of ſugar-cane. The commodore was conducted under this ſtand by Koah, who, taking down the hog, held it towards him, when, having again addreſſed him in a long and vehement ſpeech, he ſuffered it to fall upon the ground, and aſcended the ſcaffolding with him, tho' at the peril of their falling.

Ten men now advanced in ſolemn proceſſion, and entered the top of the *morai*, bearing a live hog, and a piece of large red cloth of conſiderable dimenſions. Advancing a few paces, they ſtopped, and proſtrated themſelves; and a young man approaching them, received the cloth, and carried it to Koah, who wrapped it round the commodore, and made him an offering of the hog.

The ſituation of the commodore was truly whimſical. He was aloft, ſwathed in red cloth, and hardly able to keep his hold in the rotten ſcaffolding. He was entertained, however, with the chanting of Koah, and Kaireekeea, ſometimes in concert, and ſometimes alternately. After this office was performed, which was of conſiderable duration, Koah let the hog drop, and he and the commodore immediately deſcended. He then conducted him to the images, to each of which he expreſſed himſelf in a ſneering tone, ſnapping his fingers at them as he paſſed. He then preſented him to that in the center, which, from its being habited in red cloth, appeared to be in the higheſt eſtimation. He fell proſtrate before this figure, and kiſſed it, requeſting Captain Cook would do the ſame; which he readily ſubmitted to, being determined to follow Koah's directions throughout the whole of this ceremony.

The party were now conveyed into the other diviſion of the *morai*, where a ſpace, of about twelve feet ſquare, was ſunk three feet below the level of the area. They deſcended into this, and the commodore was immediately ſeated between two idols, one of his arms being ſupported by Koa, and an officer was requeſted to ſupport the other.

A ſecond proceſſion of natives at this time arrived with a baked hog, a pudding, ſome cocoa-nuts, bread-fruit, and other vegetables. As they drew near, Kaireekeea placed himſelf before them, and preſented the hog to the commodore, in the uſual manner, chanting as before, and his companions making regular reſponſes. Their ſpeeches and reſponſes grew gradually ſhorter and ſhorter; and, towards the concluſion, Kaireekeea's did not exceed three or four words, which was anſwered by the word *Orono*.

At the concluſion of this offering, the natives ſeated themſelves fronting our people, and began to cut up the baked hog, to break the cocoa-nuts, and to peel the vegetables. Others were employed in brewing the *ava*, by chewing it in the ſame manner as at the Friendly Iſlands. Kaireekeea then chewed part of the kernel of a cocoa-nut, and wrapped it in a piece of cloth, with which he rubbed the captain's head, face, hands, arms, and ſhoulders. The *ava* was afterwards handed round, and when they had all taſted it, Koah and Pereea pulled the fleſh of the hog in pieces, and proceeded to put ſome of it into the mouths of our people. An officer had

had no particular objection to being fed by Pareea, who was remarkably cleanly in his perſon; but Capt. Cook, to whom a piece was preſented by Koah, could not ſwallow a morſel, the putrid hog being ſtrong in his collection; and as the old man, from motives of civility, had chewed it for him, his reluctance was much increaſed.

When the ceremony was finiſhed, the party quitted the Morai, after diſtributing among the populace ſome pieces of iron, and other articles, with which they were much delighted. They were then conducted in proceſſion to the boats, the men attending with wands, and pronouncing ſentences as before. Moſt of the natives again retired, and the remaining few proſtrated themſelves as they paſſed along the ſhore.

Curioſity being excited by the regular attendance of the prieſts at the Morai, the party determined to viſit the habitations of a ſociety of them which they had lately diſcovered. Their huts were erected round a pond encloſed with a grove of cocoa trees, by which they were ſeparated from the beach and the village, and which gave the ſituation an air of religious retirement.

When the Commodore arrived at the beach, he was conducted to Harre-no-Orono, or the houſe of Orono. On his approaching this ſacred place, he was ſeated at the foot of a wooden idol, reſembling thoſe which he had ſeen at the Morai. Here an officer again ſupported one of his arms. He was then arrayed in red cloth, and Kaireekeea, aſſiſted by twelve prieſts, preſented a pig with the uſual ſolemnities. After this ceremony, the pig was ſtrangled, and thrown into the embers of a fire prepared for that purpoſe. When the hair was ſinged off, a ſecond offering was made, and the chanting repeated as before; after which the dead pig was held, for ſome time, under Captain Cook's noſe, and then laid, with a cocoa nut at his feet. This part of the ceremony being concluded, the performers ſat down, and the *ava* was brewed and handed about; a baked hog was brought in, and the party was fed as in the former ceremony.

Whenever the commodore went on ſhore, during the continuance of the ſhips in the bay, he was preceded by one of the prieſts, who proclaimed the landing of the Orono, and ordered the inhabitants to proſtrate themſelves. He was conſtantly attended by the ſame perſon on the water, where he was ſtationed in the bow of the boat, having a wand in his hand to give notice of his approach to the natives, who were in canoes; on which they inſtantly ceaſed paddling, and fell on their faces till he had paſſed.

Leſt the aſtronomical gentlemen ſhould be incommoded at the obſervatory on ſhore by the intruſion of the natives, the place was conſecrated by the prieſts, by placing their wands round the wall by which it was encloſed.

This interdiction the natives call *taboo*, a term frequently repeated by theſe iſlanders, and ſeemed to be of extenſive operation. No canoes attempted to land near the ſpot; the natives only ſat on the wall, not daring to come within the *tabooed* ſpace without obtaining permiſſion. The men, indeed, would bring proviſions into the field, but all endeavours were ineffectual to induce the women to approach. Preſents were tried, but without ſucceſs. Attempts were made to prevail on Pareea and Koah to bring them, but to no purpoſe: the Eatooa and Terreeoboo, they ſaid, would kill them if they did.

This circumſtance afforded great amuſement to the people on board, whither multitudes of people (particularly women) continually flocked; inſomuch that they were frequently obliged to clear the veſſel, in order to have room to perform their neceſſary duties. Two or three hundred women were ſometimes obliged to jump at once into the water, where they continued to ſwim and play till they could be re-admitted.

The civilities of theſe people were not confined to oſtentation; for the party on ſhore from the ſhips were daily ſupplied by them with hogs and vegetables ſufficient for ſubſiſtence, and to ſpare; and canoes, laden with proviſions, were as regularly ſent off to the ſhips. Nothing was demanded in return, nor was the moſt diſtant hint ever given that any compenſation was expected. Their manner of conferring favours appeared more like the diſcharge of a religious duty than the reſult of mere liberality. All this munificence was at the expence of Kaoo, the chief prieſt, and grandfather to Kaireekeea, who was then in the ſuit of the ſovereign of the iſland.

Soon after the ceremony of the reception of the Commodore at the habitations of the prieſts, the king in a large canoe, with ſome attendants in two others, was ſeen paddling from the village, in great ſtate, towards the ſhips. Their appearance was noble and magnificent. Terreeoboo and his chiefs were in the firſt canoe, arrayed in feathered cloaks and helmets, and armed with ſpears and daggers. In the ſecond came Kaoo, the chief prieſt, together with his brethren, having their idols diſplayed on red cloth. Theſe idols were figures of an enormous ſize, made of wicker work, and curiouſly ornamented with ſmall feathers of a variety of colours. Their eyes were large pearl oyſters, with a black nut placed in the centre; a double row of the fangs of dogs was fixed in each of their mouths, which, as well as the reſt of their features, appeared diſtorted. The third canoe was laden with hogs and vegetables. As they advanced, the prieſts, in the ſecond canoe, chanted their hymns with great ſolemnity. After paddling round the veſſels they did not come on board as was expected, but made immediately towards the ſhore at the beach, where our people were ſtationed.

On their approach the officers of the party ordered the guard to be drawn up in form to receive the king; and Captain Cook, ſeeing that he intended to go on ſhore, went thither alſo, and landed almoſt at the ſame inſtant. They were uſhered into the tent, and the king was hardly ſeated, when he roſe up, and gracefully threw over the Captain's ſhoulders the rich feathered cloak himſelf had wore, placed an helmet on his head, and preſented him with a curious fan. Five or ſix other cloaks, of great beauty and value, were ſpread at the Commodore's feet.

Four hogs were then brought forward by the king's attendants, together with bread-fruit, cocoa-nuts and ſugar canes. Then followed the ceremony of Terreeoboo's changing names with Captain Cook, the ſtrongeſt pledge of friendſhip among all the iſlanders of the Pacific Ocean. A ſolemn proceſſion now advanced, conſiſting of prieſts, preceded by a venerable perſonage, followed by a train of people leading large hogs; others being laden with potatoes, plantains, &c. It was eaſily perceived, by the countenance and geſtures of Kaireekeea, that the old man who headed the proceſſion was the chief prieſt, on whoſe bounty our people had ſo long ſubſiſted. He wrapped a piece of red cloth round the ſhoulders of Captain Cook, as a mark of peculiar reſpect.

The officers were not a little ſurpriſed to recognize, in the perſon of the king, an emaciated old man, who had come on board the Reſolution, from the north-eaſt ſide of the iſland of Mowee; and perceived that ſeveral of his attendants were the ſame perſons as before accompanied him.

After the uſual ceremonies of interview had paſſed, Captain Cook conducted Terreeoboo, and ſeveral of his chiefs, on board the Reſolution. They were received with every poſſible attention and reſpect; and the Commodore put a linen ſhirt upon the ſovereign, and girt his own hanger round him. Kaoo, and about half a dozen other ancient chiefs, remained on ſhore.

All this time not a canoe was permitted to appear in the bay, and thoſe natives who did not confine themſelves to their huts lay proſtrate on the ground. Before the king quitted the Reſolution, he granted leave for the natives to trade with the ſhips as uſual, except the women, who were prohibited from this privilege.

SECTION

SECTION V.

Social Diſpoſition of the Natives. Propenſity to Theft. A boxing Match. Attention of the Prieſts, and Ceremony of the Natives, at the Funeral of a Seaman. Opinion of the Natives concerning the Object of the Viſit from our People. Magnificent Preſents from Terreeoboo. Departure of the Ships. Cauſe of their return.

THE natives of this iſland ſeem to have exceeded all others in the South Seas, in the hoſpitable reception, and civil treatment, of their European viſitors, inſomuch, that all apprehenſions of danger were baniſhed from their minds. Such confidence was placed in them by our people, that the officers, &c. frequently made excurſions up the country, either ſingly, or in ſmall parties, and even ventured to continue out the whole night. Indeed, it would be endleſs to relate all the inſtances of generoſity they received upon theſe occaſions.

In all places the people flocked about them, anxious to afford every aſſiſtance in their power, and appeared highly gratified, if they condeſcended to accept of their ſervices. Variety of innocent arts were practiſed to attract their notice, or to delay their departure. The boys and girls ran through their villages before them, ſtopping at every opening, where there was a commodious place to form a group for dancing. They were at one time ſolicited to take a draught of the milk of cocoa-nuts, or except of ſuch other refreſhment as their huts afforded: at another they were encircled by a company of young women, who exerted their ſkill and agility in amuſing them with ſongs and dances.

The more agreeable the natives rendered themſelves to our people, by their inſtances of hoſpitality, the greater was their diſguſt and concern, at finding them prone to theft, the general vice of the iſlanders of theſe ſeas. This was a diſtreſſing circumſtance, and ſometimes obliged them to exerciſe ſeverity, which they would have been happy to have avoided, if it had not been eſſentially neceſſary. Some expert ſwimmers were one day detected under the ſhips, drawing out the nails from the ſheathing, which they ingeniouſly performed with a flint ſtone, faſtened to the end of a ſhort ſtick. This practice was ſo injurious to the veſſels, that our people fired ſmall ſhot at the offenders: but that they eaſily evaded, by diving to the bottoms of the ſhips. It therefore became highly neceſſary to make an example of one of them, by flogging him on board the ſhip.

An excurſion into the country, by a large party from both ſhips, afforded Kaoo a freſh opportunity of exerciſing his civility and generoſity. No ſooner was he informed of their departure, than he ſent after them a large quantity of proviſions, with orders, that every attention and aſſiſtance ſhould be granted them by the inhabitants of thoſe diſtricts through which they were to paſs. His conduct, on this occaſion, was ſo delicate and diſintereſted, that even the people he employed, were not permitted to accept of the ſmalleſt preſent. At the end of ſix days the party returned without having penetrated more than twenty miles into the iſland.

To add to the amuſement of their viſitors, the natives preſented them with the exhibition of a boxing-match. Though theſe games were inferior, in every reſpect, to thoſe they had ſeen exhibited at the Friendly Iſlands, yet, as they were ſomewhat different, a ſhort account of them may not be thought improper.

A vaſt concourſe of people aſſembled on an even ſpot of ground, not far diſtant from the tents. A long vacant ſpace was left in the center of them, at the upper end of which the judges preſided, under three ſtandards. Slips of cloth, of various colours, were pendant from theſe ſtandards; as were the ſkins of two wild geeſe, ſome ſmall birds, and a few bunches of feathers.

When the neceſſary preparations were made, the judges gave the ſignal, and two combatants appeared in view. They advanced ſlowly, drawing up their feet very high behind, and rubbing their hands upon the ſoles. As they came forward, they frequently ſurveyed each other from head to foot, with an air of contempt, looking archly at the ſpectators, diſtorting their features, and practiſing a variety of unnatural geſtures. When they were advanced within the reach of each other, they held both arms ſtraight out before their faces, at which part they always aimed their blows. They ſtruck with a full ſwing of the arm; did not attempt to parry, but endeavoured to elude their adverſary's attack, by ſtooping or retreating. The battle was expeditiouſly decided; for if either of them fell, whether by accident, or from a blow, he was deemed vanquiſhed; and the victor expreſſed his triumph by a variety of ſtrange geſtures, which uſually excited a loud laugh among the ſpectator, for which purpoſe it ſeemed to be calculated. The ſucceſsful combatant waited for a ſecond antagoniſt; and, if again victorious, for a third; and ſo on, till he was at laſt defeated.

A ſingular cuſtom prevails in theſe combats, which is, that when any two were preparing to attack each other, a third may advance, and make choice of either of them for his antagoniſt, when the other is under the neceſſity of withdrawing. If the combat proved long and tedious, or appeared unequal, a chief generally interfered, and concluded it by putting a ſtick between the combatants. As this exhibition was at the deſire of our people, it was expected that ſome of them would have engaged with the natives; but, though they received preſſing invitations to bear a part, they did not hearken to the challenges, not having forgot the blows they received at the Friendly Iſlands.

As death had hitherto been uncommon amongſt the crews of the ſhips, and it is laudable to preſerve the memory of a worthy character, though inferior in ſtation, the departure of William Whatman, a ſeamen, of the gunner's crew, is particularly mentioned. He was a man in years, and much reſpected for his attachment to Captain Cook. He had ſerved twenty-one years as a marine, and then entered as a ſeaman in 1772, on board the Reſolution, and ſerved with the commodore in his voyage towards the ſouth pole. On their return, he got admittance into Greenwich Hoſpital, through the intereſt of Captain Cook, at the ſame time with himſelf; and, anxious to follow the fortunes of his benefactor, he alſo quitted it with him, on his appointment to the command of the preſent expedition. He had been often ſubject to ſlight fevers in the courſe of the voyage, and was infirm when the ſhips arrived in the bay; where having been ſent a few days on ſhore, he thought himſelf perfectly reſtored, and requeſted to return on board. His requeſt was complied with; but the day following he had a ſtroke of the palſy, which, in two days afterwards, put a period to his life.

As an additional inſtance of the reſpect to his viſitors, Terreeoboo cauſed the remains of this honeſt ſeaman to be buried in the *morai*, with great ſolemnity. Kaoo and his brethren were preſent at the funeral, who behaved with great decorum, and paid due attention while the ſervice was performing. On our people beginning to fill up the grave, they approached it with great awe, and threw in a dead pig, together with ſome cocoa-nut and plantains. For three ſucceſſive nights they ſurrounded it, ſacrificing hogs, and reciting hymns and prayers till morning.

A poſt was erected at the head of the grave, and a piece of board nailed thereon, on which was inſcribed the name and age of the deceaſed, and the day of his departure from this life. Theſe the natives aſſured them they would not remove; and they will probably be permitted to remain, ſo long as ſuch frail materials can endure.

The ſhips being much in want of fuel, Capt. Cook deſired Lieutenant King to treat with the prieſts for the purchaſe of the rail on the *morai*. Mr. King had his doubts about the decency of this overture, and apprehended that the bare mention of it might be deemed impious:

pious; but in this he was exceedingly miſtaken. They expreſſed no kind of ſurpriſe at the application, and the wood was delivered without the leaſt ſtipulation.

Strange as it muſt appear to all who are tenacious of their religious rites, theſe people were ſo unaffected by the circumſtance, that they even aſſiſted in the removal. When the particulars were mentioned at Kaoo, he ſeemed exceeding indifferent about the matter, deſiring only the reſtoration of the center image, which being immediately complied with, it was conveyed to one of the prieſt's houſes.

As the chiefs of the iſland had frequently expreſſed an importunate deſire to know the preciſe time fixed for the departure of their viſitors, a curioſity was excited in the minds of the ſpeculative part of them, to learn the opinion entertained by the iſlanders, relative to them and the objects of their viſit. The only information that could be obtained was, that they ſuppoſed our people had left their native country on account of the ſcantineſs of proviſions, and had viſited them for the ſole purpoſe of filling their bellies. This concluſion was natural enough, conſidering the meagre appearance of ſome of the crew, the voracity with which they devoured their freſh proviſions, and their anxiety to purchaſe as much of it as poſſible. One circumſtance may be added to theſe, which puzzled them exceedingly, namely, that of our people having no women with them.

It was truly laughable to ſee the natives patting the bellies of the ſailors (who were much improved in ſleekneſs after their arrival at the bay) and telling them, in the beſt manner they could, that it was time for them to depart; but if they would return the next bread-fruit ſeaſon, they ſhould be better able to ſupply them.

The ſhips had now continued ſixteen days in the bay, during which time the conſumption of hogs and vegetables had been ſo enormous, that our people could not be ſurpriſed at their wiſhing to ſee them take their leave. It rather appeared that Terreeoboo had no other views in his enquiries, than a deſire of having ſufficient notice to prepare ſuitable preſents for them at their departure: for when he was informed of their intention to quit the iſland in two days, a kind of proclamation was immediately made, requiring the natives to bring in their hogs and vegetables, for the king to preſent to the *Orono*.

A droll genius among them, exhibited a variety of tricks for the entertainment of our people on ſhore. In his hand he held an inſtrument of muſic; bits of ſea-weed were faſtened round his neck; and, round each leg, ſome ſtrong netting; on which were fixed ſome rows of dogs teeth, hanging looſe. His dancing was accompanied with ſtrange grimaces, and unnatural diſtortions of his features, which, though ſometimes highly ridiculous, were, upon the whole without meaning or expreſſion. This diverſion was cloſed with wreſtling or boxing matches: and our people, in return, exhibited the few fire-works they had remaining. Nothing could more effectually excite the admiration of theſe iſlanders, or ſtrike them with more exalted ideas of the ſuperiority of their viſitors, than ſuch a repreſentation. Though this was, in every reſpect, much inferior to that at Hapaee, yet the aſtoniſhment of the people was equally great.

Previous to the departure of the ſhips from the iſland, the time of which was now fixed on. Terreeoboo invited the commodore, principal officers, &c. to attend him to Kaoo's reſidence. On their arrival there, they ſaw large quantities of cloth lie ſcattered on the ground; abundance of red and yellow feathers faſtened to the fibres of cocoa-nut huſks; and plenty of hatchets and iron ware, which had been received in barter. Not far from theſe was depoſited an immenſe quantity of various kinds of vegetables; and, at a little diſtance, a large herd of hogs. It was ſuppoſed, at firſt, that the whole was intended as a preſent for them, till they were informed by Kaireekeea, that it was a tribute to the king, from the inhabitants of that diſtrict. The gueſts were no ſooner ſeated, than the bundles were brought, and laid ſeverally at Terreeoboo's feet; and the cloth, feathers, and iron, were diſplayed before him.

The king expreſſed the higheſt degree of ſatisfaction at this mark of duty and affection from his ſubjects; and having cauſed about a third of the iron utenſils, and ſome pieces of cloth to be ſelected, ordered theſe to be ſet aſide by themſelves; and the remainder of the cloth, hogs, vegetables, &c. were afterwards preſented to Captain Cook. The value and magnitude of this preſent, far exceeded any thing they had met with. The whole was immediately conveyed on board. The large hogs were ſelected, in order to be ſalted for ſea ſtore; but the ſmaller pigs, and the vegetables, were divided between the crews.

Lieutenant King being the laſt on ſhore, and waiting for the return of the boat, the inhabitants crowded about him, and having prevailed on him to ſit down among them, expreſſed their regret at his ſeparation from them. It was even with difficulty that they would ſuffer him to depart. He was, indeed, highly eſteemed among them, as will appear from the following relation.

Having had, while the ſhips were in the bay, the command of the party on ſhore, he became more acquainted with the natives, and they with him, than thoſe who were required to be on board. He experienced great kindneſs and civility from the inhabitants in general, but the friendſhip ſhewn by the prieſts was conſtant and unbounded.

Being anxious to conciliate their eſteem, he ſo happily ſucceeded, that, when they were acquainted with the time of his departure, he was urged to remain behind, and received overtures of the moſt flattering kind. When he endeavoured to excuſe himſelf, by alledging, that Captain Cook would not permit it, they propoſed to conduct him to the mountains, and there conceal him till the departure of the ſhips. On further aſſurance that the captain would not ſail without him, the king and Kaoo repaired to Captain Cook (whom they ſuppoſed to be his father) formally requeſting that he might be ſuffered to remain behind. The commodore, unwilling to give a poſitive refuſal to a propoſal ſo generouſly intended, aſſured them, that he could not then part with him; but he ſhould return thither the next year, when he would endeavour to oblige them.

Orders were at length given for the ſhips to unmoor, which being done, they ſailed out of the bay, attended by a vaſt number of canoes. It was Captain Cook's intention to finiſh the ſurvey of Owhyhee, before he went to the other iſlands, hoping to meet with a road more ſheltered than Karakakooa Bay; and if he ſhould not ſucceed here, he meant to examine the ſouth-eaſt part of Mowee, where, he had been informed, there was a moſt excellent harbour.

The people on board, in their progreſs to the northward, obſerved two men in a canoe paddling towards them. They naturally conjectured that they had been driven off the ſhore by ſtreſs of weather, and ſtopped the ſhip's way in order to take them in. They were ſo exhauſted with fatigue, that had not one of the natives on board jumped into the canoe to their aſſiſtance, they would hardly have been able to fix it to the rope thrown out for that purpoſe. With difficulty, however, they were got up the ſhip's ſide, together with a child about four years of age, which had been laſhed under the thwarts of the canoe, with only its head above the water. They informed our people, that they had quitted the land the morning before, ſince which time they had not had food or water. Proviſion was given them with the uſual precautions, and the child entruſted to the care of one of the women on board; and the next morning they were all perfectly recovered.

The reſolution having received very eſſential damage in a gale of wind, inſomuch as totally to obſtruct her further progreſs, Captain Cook for ſome time heſitated whether he ſhould return to Karakakooa, or take the chance of finding a harbour in the iſlands to leeward. The bay was not ſo commodious, but that a better might probably be met with, either for repairing the

maſts, or procuring refreſhments; the latter of which, it was imagined, the neighbourhood of Karakakooa had lately been pretty well drained of. It was, on the other hand, conſidered as an imprudent ſtep, to leave a tolerable good harbour, which, once loſt, could not be regained, for the mere poſſibility of meeting with a better; eſpecially as the failure of ſuch a contingency, might have deprived them of any reſource.

Concluding, at length, upon a return, the ſhips ſtood in for the bay, and, upon arrival, came to anchor in their former ſtation.

SECTION VI.

Reverſe of Behaviour in the Natives, on the return of the Ships to Karakakooa Bay. Conſequences of a Theft on board the Diſcovery. An attack on our People by the Natives. Reflections of Captain Cook upon the occaſion. Incidents which cauſe animoſity. A Chief threatens Captain Cook, and is ſhot by him. General attack from the Natives. Death of Captain Cook. Sketch of his Character.

INEXPRESSIBLE was the aſtoniſhment of our people, at the very different reception they met with on coming to anchor in Karakakooa Bay a ſecond time, from that which they had experienced on their firſt arrival. No ſhouts, buſtle, or confuſion, but a ſolitary bay, with hardly a canoe ſtirring. The curioſity of the natives, indeed, might be ſuppoſed to be diminiſhed by this time; but the hoſpitable treatment our people had continually been favoured with, and the friendly footing on which they parted, induced them to expect that, on their return, they would have received them with the greateſt demonſtrations of joy.

The cauſe of this ſtrange appearance was explained by the return of a boat, which had been ſent on ſhore, bringing intelligence, that Terreeoboo was abſent, and that the bay was *tabooed*. This account appeared very ſatisfactory to many of our people; but others were of opinion, that there was, at this time, ſomething very dubious in the behaviour of the natives; and that the *taboo*, or interdiction, on pretence of Terreeoboo's abſence, was artfully contrived, to give him time to conſult his chiefs in what manner they ſhould be treated. They never could aſcertain whether theſe ſuſpicions were well founded, or whether the natives had given a true account.

A cauſe of ſuſpicion might alſo ariſe from the following circumſtance. A native having ſold a hog on board the Reſolution, and received the price agreed on, Pareea, who ſaw the tranſaction, adviſed the ſeller not to part with his hog, without an advanced price. For his interference in this buſineſs, he was harſhly ſpoken to, and puſhed away; and as the *taboo* was ſoon laid on the bay, it was at firſt ſuppoſed to be in conſequence of the affront offered to the chief. Theſe two cauſes conſidered, it is extremely difficult to draw any certain concluſions.

Circumſtances in proof of this ſuſpicion on the part of the iſlanders, ſoon began to encreaſe. Lieutenant King received information that ſeveral chiefs were aſſembled near the beach, and were driving away the natives, who aſſiſted the ſailors in rolling the caſks to the ſhore; and their behaviour ſeemed exceedingly ſuſpicious, and liable to raiſe farther diſturbance. The lieutenant ſent a marine with the officer who brought the intelligence, agreeable to his requeſt, but permitted him to take only his ſide-arms. The officer in a ſhort time returned, and informed Mr. King that the inhabitants had armed themſelves with ſtones, and were become tumultuous. He therefore went himſelf to the ſpot, attended by a marine with his muſket. At their approach the iſlanders threw away their ſtones; and on Mr. King's application to ſome of the chiefs, the mob was diſperſed. Every thing being now quiet, Mr. King went to meet Captain Cook, who was then coming on ſhore in the pinnace. He related to him what had recently happened; and received orders to fire a ball at the offenders, if they again behaved inſolently, and began to throw ſtones. In conſequence of theſe directions, Mr. King gave orders to the corporal, that the centinels pieces ſhould be loaded with ball, inſtead of ſhot.

A continued fire of muſkets being heard from the Diſcovery, and perceived to be directed at a canoe which was haſtening towards the ſhore, with one of the ſmall boats in purſuit of it, this firing, it was concluded, was in conſequence of a theft. Captain Cook, therefore, ordered Mr. King to follow him with a marine armed, and to endeavour to ſeize the people as they landed. They accordingly ran to the place where the canoe was expected to come aſhore, but did not arrive in time; the people having quitted it, and fled into the country before they came up.

Being wholly ignorant, at this time, that the goods had been already reſtored, and thinking it probable, from what they had obſerved, that they might be of importance, they did not chooſe to relinquiſh their endeavours to recover them; and having enquired of the natives what courſe the people had taken, they purſued them till it was almoſt dark, when they ſuppoſed themſelves to be about three miles from the tents; and thinking the iſlanders amuſed them with falſe information in their purſuit, gave up the ſearch, and returned.

An incident occurred during their abſence, that occaſioned a difference of a very ſerious nature. The officer who had been diſpatched in the ſmall boat after the thieves, and who was returning on board with the booty that had been reſtored, ſeeing Captain Cook and Mr. King engaged in the purſuit of the offenders, ſeized a canoe which was drawn up on the ſhore. This canoe unfortunately belonged to Pareea, who, at that inſtant arriving from on board the Diſcovery, claimed his property, and proteſted his innocence. The officer perſiſted in detaining it, in which he was encouraged by the crew of the pinnace, than waiting for Captain Cook; in conſequence of which a ſcuffle enſued, and Pareea was knocked down by a violent blow on the head with an oar. Several of the natives who had hitherto been peaceable ſpectators, began now to attack our people with a ſhower of ſtones, that they were forced to a precipitate retreat, and ſwam off to a rock at a conſiderable diſtance from the ſhore. The pinnace was plundered immediately by the natives, and would have been entirely demoliſhed, if Pareea had not interpoſed.

Captain Cook, on hearing theſe circumſtances, expreſſed the greateſt concern, and diſcovered ſome apprehenſions, that the iſlanders would oblige him to purſue violent meaſures; adding, they muſt not be permitted to ſuppoſe that they had gained an advantage. It was then, however, too late to take any ſteps that evening: he therefore only gave orders that every iſlander ſhould be immediately turned out of the ſhip. This order being executed, Lieutenant King returned on ſhore; and the events of the day having much abated former confidence in the natives, a double guard was poſted on the *morai*, with orders to let Mr. King know, if any men were ſeen lurking about the beach. At eleven o'clock, five of the natives were ſeen creeping round the bottom of the *morai*: they approached with great caution, and, at laſt, perceiving they were diſcovered, immediately retired out of ſight. About midnight one of them ventured himſelf near the obſervatory, when a centinel fired over him, on which they all fled; and there was no farther diſturbance during the remainder of the night.

Next morning Mr. King received information that the Diſcovery's cutter had, ſome time in the night, been ſtole from the buoy where it had been moored.

On going on board the Reſolution, he found the marines were arming themſelves, and Captain Cook buſied in loading his double-barrelled gun. Whilſt he was acquainting him with what had happened in the night at the *morai*, he eagerly interrupted him, informed

ed him that he had received intelligence of the loſs, and was making preparations to recover it.

It was his uſual practice, in all the iſlands of this ocean, when any thing of conſequence had been ſtolen from him, by ſome ſtratagem, to get the king, or ſome of the principal *Erees*, on board, where he detained them as hoſtages, till the property was reſtored. This method having hitherto proved ſucceſsful, he meant to adopt it on the preſent occaſion; and gave orders to ſtop every canoe that ſhould attempt to leave the bay; reſolving to ſeize and deſtroy them, if the cutter could not be recovered by peaceable means. Purſuant to this order, the boats of the ſhips, properly manned and armed, were ſtationed acroſs the bay; and, before Mr. King quitted the ſhip, ſome great guns were fired at two canoes, that were attempting to eſcape.

Captain Cook and Mr. King quitted the ſhip together: the former in the pinnace, with Mr. Phillips, lieutenant of marines, and nine privates; and the latter in the ſmall boat. The laſt orders Mr. King received from Captain Cook were, to quiet the minds of the natives on that ſide the bay where our people were ſtationed, by the ſtrongeſt aſſurances that they ſhould not be injured; to keep his people together, and to be continually on his guard. Captain Cook and Mr. King then ſeparated; the captain going towards Kowrowa, where Terreeoboo reſided; and Mr. King proceeded to the beach. His firſt buſineſs, when he arrived on ſhore, was to iſſue ſtrict orders to the marines to continue within the tent, to charge their muſkets with ball, and not, on any conſideration, to quit their arms. He then attended old Kaoo and the prieſts at their reſpective huts, and explained to them, as well as he was able, the reaſon of the hoſtile preparations which had ſo exceedingly alarmed them. He found they were no ſtrangers to the circumſtance of the cutter's being ſtolen, and aſſured them, that though the commodore was not only reſolved to recover it, but alſo to puniſh, in the moſt exemplary manner, the authors of the theft, yet that they, and all the inhabitants of the village, on that ſide, had not the leaſt occaſion to be alarmed, or to apprehend the leaſt danger. He importuned the prieſts to communicate this to the people, and intreat them not to entertain an idea of fear, but to continue peaceable and quiet. Kaoo interrogated Mr. King, with great emotion, if any harm was to happen to Terreeoboo? He aſſured him there was not; and both he and his brethren appeared much ſatisfied with this aſſurance.

In the mean time Captain Cook, having landed at Kowrowa, with the lieutenant and nine marines, he proceeded immediately into the village, where he was reſpectfully received; the people, as uſual, proſtrating themſelves before him, and making their accuſtomed offerings of ſmall hogs. Perceiving that his deſign was not ſuſpected, his next ſtep was to enquire for the king and the two boys, his ſons, who had been almoſt continually his gueſts on board the Reſolution. The boys preſently returned with the natives, who had been ſearching for them, and immediately conducted Capt. Cook to the habitation where Terreeoboo had ſlept. The old man had juſt awoke; and after ſome converſation reſpecting the loſs of the cutter, from which the commodore was convinced that he was not in any wiſe privy to it, he invited him to accompany him, and ſpend the day on board the Reſolution. The king accepted the invitation, and aroſe immediately to accompany him.

The two boys were already in the pinnace, and the reſt of the party approaching the water ſide, when a woman, named Kanee-karabeea, the mother of the boys, and one of Terreeoboo's favourite wives, followed him, beſeeching him, with tears and intreaties, not to go on board. Two chiefs, who came with her, took hold of him, and, inſiſting he ſhould proceed no farther, obliged him to ſit down. The iſlanders, now collecting in vaſt numbers along the ſhore, who had probably been alarmed by the diſcharging of the great guns, and the hoſtile appearances in the bay, gathered together round Captain Cook and Terreeoboo. Thus ſituated, the lieutenant of marines, perceiving that his men were huddled together in the crowd, and conſequently unable to uſe their arms, if there ſhould appear to be a neceſſity for it, propoſed to Captain Cook, to draw them up along the rocks, cloſe to the edge of the water. The populace making way for them to paſs, the lieutenant drew them up in a line, within about thirty yards of the place where Terreeoboo was ſitting.

The old king continued, all this time, on the ground, bearing the moſt viſible marks of terror and dejection in his countenance. Captain Cook, unwilling to abandon the object which occaſioned him to come on ſhore, urged him moſt earneſtly to proceed; whilſt, on the other hand, whenever the king expreſſed any inclination to follow him, the chiefs who ſurrounded him interpoſed: at firſt they had recourſe to prayers and entreaties, but afterwards to force and violence, and even inſiſted on his remaining on ſhore. Captain Cook, at length, perceiving the alarm had ſpread too generally, and that there was not a probability of getting him off without bloodſhed, gave up the point, obſerving, that to compel him to go on board would probably occaſion the loſs of many of the lives of the inhabitants.

Though this enterpriſe had now failed, and was abandoned by Captain Cook, yet it did not appear that his perſon was in the leaſt degree of danger, till an accident happened, which occaſioned a fatal turn to the affair. The boats, ſtationed acroſs the bay, having fired at ſome canoes for attempting to get out, unfortunately had killed one of their principal chiefs. Intelligence of his death arrived at the village where Captain Cook then was, juſt as he had parted from the king, and was proceeding with great deliberation towards the ſhore. The ferment it immediately occaſioned was but too conſpicuous; the women and children were inſtantly ſent away, and the men were ſoon clad in their war-mats, and armed with ſpears and ſtones.

One of the natives having provided himſelf with a ſtone, and a long iron ſpike (called by the natives, a *pahooa*) advanced towards the Captain, flouriſhing his weapon in defiance, and threatening to throw the ſtone. The Captain requeſted him to deſiſt; but the iſlander repeating his menaces, he was highly provoked, and fired a load of ſmall ſhot at him. The man was defended in his war-mat, which the ſhot could not penetrate; his firing, therefore, ſerved only to irritate and encourage them. Vollies of ſtones were thrown at the marines; and one of the natives attempted the life of one of our people with his *pahooa*, but not ſucceeding in the attempt, he received from him a blow with the butt end of his piece. Captain Cook immediately diſcharged his ſecond barrel loaded with ball, and killed one of the aſſailants. A general attack with ſtones ſucceeded, which was followed on the part of our people by a diſcharge of muſquetry, not only from the marines, but thoſe in the boats. The natives received the fire with great firmneſs; and without giving time for the marines to charge again, they ruſhed in upon them with dreadful ſhouts and yells. What followed was a ſcene of horror and confuſion, which can more eaſily be conceived than properly related.

Four of the marines retreated among the rocks, and fell a ſacrifice to the fury of the enemy; three others were dangerouſly wounded; and the lieutenant ſtabbed between the ſhoulders, but having reſerved his fire, ſhot the man from whom he had received the wound at the inſtant he was preparing to repeat the blow. The laſt time the unfortunate commodore was diſtinctly ſeen, he was ſtanding at the water's edge, ordering the boats to ceaſe firing and pull in.

Thoſe who were preſent ſuppoſed that the marines, and thoſe who were in the boats, fired without Captain Cook's orders, and that he was anxious to prevent the farther effuſion of blood: it is therefore probable, that on this occaſion his humanity proved fatal to him; for it was obſerved, that while he faced the natives no violence had been offered him; but when he turned

about

about to give directions to the boats, he was ſtabbed in the back, and fell with his face into the water. A general ſhout was ſet up by the iſlanders on ſeeing him fall, and his body was dragged inhumanly on ſhore, where he was ſurrounded by the enemy, who, ſnatching the dagger from each others hands, diſplayed a ſavage eagerneſs to join in his deſtruction.

Thus ended the life of the greateſt navigator that this or any other nation ever could boaſt, after having ſucceſsfully led his crews of gallant Britiſh ſeamen thrice round the world; reduced to a certainty the non-exiſtence of a Southern Continent, concerning which the learned of all nations were in doubt; ſettled the boundaries of the earth and ſea, and ſhewn the impracticability of a north-weſt paſſage from the Atlantic to the Great Southern Ocean, for which our ableſt navigators had contended, and in purſuit of which vaſt ſums had been expended in vain, and many valuable mariners had unfortunately periſhed.

How ſincerely his loſs was lamented by thoſe who owed their ſecurity to his ſkill and conduct, and every conſolation to his tenderneſs and humanity can be better conceived than deſcribed, as can alſo the horror, dejection and diſmay which followed ſo dreadful and unexpected a cataſtrophe. We ſhall, therefore, turn from ſo calamitous a ſcene, and endeavour to pay a juſt tribute to his memory in a ſhort ſketch of his character.

Captain James Cook raiſed himſelf ſolely by his merit from a very obſcure birth to the rank of Poſt Captain in the Royal Navy. He poſſeſſed, in an eminent degree, all the qualifications requiſite for his profeſſion and great undertaking. Deliberate in judging; ſagacious in determining; active in executing; unſubdued by labour, difficulties and diſappointments; fertile in expedients, never wanting preſence of mind, but ever poſſeſſing the full uſe of a ſound underſtanding. In diſcipline, though mild and juſt, he was exact: he was a father to his people, who were attached to him from affection, and obedient from confidence. By his benevolent and unabated attention to the welfare of his ſhip's company, he diſcovered and introduced a ſyſtem for the preſervation of the healths of ſeamen, which has proved wonderfully efficacious. With a company of 118 perſons he performed his ſecond voyage, and but one of theſe died of a diſeaſe. That ſpirit of humanity and juſtice with which he treated the ſavages wherever he found them, when oppoſed to the ferocious and inhuman conduct of the firſt conquerors in the New World, does honour to his age and country, and will hand him down with reverence to poſterity. Nor was his humanity leſs conſpicuous in his endeavours to civilize the natives of thoſe remote regions, and to introduce into the moſt dreary wilds ſome of our moſt uſeful animals, vegetables and grain.

Upon a general review of the character of this our worthy countryman, we may juſtly conclude, that if ancient Rome decreed the higheſt honours to him who ſaved the life of a ſingle citizen, what wreaths are due to that man, who, having himſelf ſaved many, perpetuates the means by which Britain may now, on the moſt diſtant voyages, ſave numbers of her intrepid ſons, her mariners, who, braving every danger, have ſo liberally contributed to the fame, to the opulence, and to the maritime empire of their country.

SECTION VII.

Expeditions at Owhyhee after the death of Captain Cook. Departure of the ſhips from Karakakooa.

IT has been already related, that four of the marines were killed on the ſpot. The reſt, with the lieutenant, threw themſelves into the water, and made their eſcape under covert of a ſmart fire from the boats.

On this occaſion a ſtriking inſtance of gallant behaviour, and of affection for his men, was diſplayed by the lieutenant; for he had ſcarcely got into the boat, when, ſeeing one of the marines, who was a bad ſwimmer, ſtruggling in the water, and in danger of being taken by the iſlanders, he inſtantly leaped into the ſea to his aſſiſtance, though conſiderably wounded himſelf; and after receiving a blow on his head from a ſtone, which had almoſt ſent him to the bottom, he caught the man by the hair, and brought him off in ſafety.

Our people, for ſome time, kept up a conſtant fire from the boats, (which, during the whole tranſaction, were at no greater diſtance from the land than twenty yards) in order to afford their unfortunate companions, if any of them ſhould ſtill remain alive, an opportunity of effecting their eſcape. Theſe continued efforts, ſeconded by a few guns, that were at the ſame time fired from the Reſolution, having at length compelled the enemy to retire, a ſmall boat, manned by five midſhipmen, pulled towards the ſhore, where they perceived the bodies lying on the ground without any ſigns of life. However, they judged it dangerous to attempt to bring them off with ſo inconſiderable a force, and therefore returned to the ſhips, leaving the bodies in poſſeſſion of the natives, together with ten ſtands of arms.

When the general conſternation conſequent on the news of the late melancholy event had, in ſome degree, ſubſided, the grand object of attention was the party of our people at the Morai, whoſe ſituation was highly critical and important. Not only the lives of the men, but the iſſue of the expedition, and the return of at leaſt one of the ſhips, were involved in the ſame common danger. For the maſt of the Reſolution, and the principal part of the ſails, were on ſhore guarded by only ſix marines.

The firſt ſtep taken by Lieutenant King was to ſtation the whole body of marines on top of the Morai, which formed a ſtrong and advantageous poſt; and having entruſted it to the command of an officer, he went on board the Diſcovery, in order to confer with Captain Clerke on the critical ſituation of affairs.

The natives at firſt attacked our people with ſtones from behind the walls of their incloſures, and meeting with no reſiſtance, they ſoon became more daring. A few courageous fellows, having crept along the beach, under cover of the rocks, ſuddenly preſented themſelves at the foot of the Morai, with an intention of ſtorming it on the ſide next the ſea, which was its only acceſſible part; and they were not diſlodged before they had ſtood a conſiderable quantity of ſhot, and had ſeen one of their number fall.

The courage of one of theſe aſſailants deſerves to be recorded. Having returned with a view of carrying off his companion, amidſt the fire of our whole party, he received a wound, which obliged him to quit the body, and retire; but a few minutes after he again made his appearance, and receiving another wound was under the neceſſity of retreating a ſecond time. At that moment Mr. King arrived at the Morai, and ſaw this man return a third time, faint from the loſs of blood and fatigue. Being informed of what had happened, he forbade the ſoldiers to fire, and the iſlander was ſuffered to carry off his friend, which he was juſt able to accompliſh, and then fell down himſelf, and died by his ſide.

A ſtrong reinforcement having landed from both ſhips, the natives retreated behind the wall, which afforded Lieutenant King an opportunity of obtaining a truce, and thereby bringing off with his party the very eſſential articles that were left on ſhore.

A conſultation having been held on board reſpecting future meaſures, the recovery of Captain Cook's body, and the reſtitution of the boat, were objects univerſally inſiſted on, but different opinions were given as to the mode of effecting the ſame, ſome being for rigorous and others for lenient meaſures; the latter, however, were at length agreed upon to be adopted.

The chief command of the expedition having devolved on Captain Clerke, he went on board the Reſolution, and Mr. Gore took the command of the Diſcovery.

Purſuant

Purſuant to meaſures agreed upon at the late conſultation, Lieutenant King proceeded towards the ſhore, with the boats of both ſhips, well manned and armed, with a view of bringing the iſlanders to a parley, and of obtaining, if poſſible, a conference with ſome of the *Erees*. If he ſhould ſucceed in this attempt, he was to demand the dead bodies, and particularly that of Capt. Cook; to threaten them in caſe of a refuſal with reſentment; but by no means to fire, unleſs attacked, and not to go on ſhore on any account whatever.

Mr. King and his detachment left the ſhips about four o'clock in the afternoon; and, as they approached the ſhore, they perceived every indication of a hoſtile reception. The natives were all in motion; the women and children retiring, the men arming themſelves with long ſpears and daggers, and putting on their war-mats. It alſo appeared, that ſince the morning they had thrown up breaſt-works of ſtone along the beach, where Capt. Cook had landed, in expectation, perhaps, of an attack at that place.

As ſoon as our party were within reach, the iſlanders began to throw ſtones at them with ſlings, but without doing any miſchief. Mr. King concluded, from theſe appearances, that all attempts to bring them to a parley would be ineffectual, unleſs he gave them ſome ground for mutual confidence. He therefore ordered the armed boats to ſtop, and advanced alone in the ſmall boat, holding in his hand a white flag; the meaning of which, from an univerſal ſhout of joy from the natives, he had the ſatisfaction to find was immediately underſtood. The women inſtantly returned from the ſide of the hill, whither they had retired; the men threw off their mats, and all ſeated themſelves together by the ſea-ſide, extending their arms, and inviting Mr. King to land.

Though ſuch behaviour ſeemed expreſſive of a friendly diſpoſition, he could not avoid entertaining ſuſpicions of its ſincerity. But when he ſaw Koah, with extraordinary boldneſs and aſſurance, ſwimming off towards the boat, with a white flag in his hand, he thought proper to return this mark of confidence, and accordingly received him into the boat, though he was armed; a circumſtance which did not contribute to leſſen Mr. King's ſuſpicions. He had, indeed, long harboured an unfavourable opinion of Koah; and therefore without ceremony, informed him that he had come to demand the body of Captain Cook, and to declare war againſt the natives, unleſs it was reſtored without delay. Koah aſſured him that this ſhould be done as ſoon as poſſible and that he would go himſelf for that purpoſe; and after requeſting a piece of iron of Mr. King, with marks of great aſſurance, he leaped into the water, and ſwam aſhore, calling out to his countrymen, that all were friends again.

Our people waited with great anxiety near an hour for his return. During this interval, the other boats had approached ſo near the ſhore, that the men who were in them entered into a converſation with a party of the iſlanders, at a little diſtance, by whom they were informed, that the captain's body had been cut to pieces, and carried up the country.

There appeared, for ſome time after, a degree of ambiguity in the conduct of the natives, which raiſed doubts in the minds of our people, as to the event of their preſent operations; till at length one night, it being exceedingly dark, a canoe was heard paddling towards the ſhip, and it was no ſooner perceived, than both the centinels on deck fired into it. There were two of the natives in this canoe, who immediately roared out "*Tinnee*," (which was their method of pronouncing Mr. King's name,) ſaid they were friends, and had ſomething with them which belonged to Capt. Cook. When they came on board, they threw themſelves at the feet of the officers, and ſeemed to be extremely terrified. It fortunately happened, that neither of them was hurt, notwithſtanding the balls of both pieces had gone through the canoe.

One of them was the perſon who conſtantly attended Captain Cook, with the particular ceremonies before deſcribed. After bewailing, with many tears, the loſs of the *Orono*, as he called him, he informed the officers, that he had brought a part of his body. He then produced a ſmall bundle, which he brought under his arm; and it is impoſſible to deſcribe the horror with which our people were ſeized, upon finding in it a piece of human fleſh, of the weight of about nine or ten pounds. This, he ſaid, was all that now remained of the body; that the reſt had been cut in pieces, and burnt; but that the head, and all the bones, except thoſe which belonged to the trunk, were in the poſſeſſion of Terreeoboo, and the other chiefs; that what they had brought had been allotted to Kaoo, the chief of the prieſts, for the purpoſe of being uſed in ſome religious ceremony; and that he had ſent it as a teſtimony of his innocence, and of his attachment to them.

Though theſe two friendly viſitants were preſſed by the officers to continue on board till the next morning, they could not be prevailed upon; declaring that if this tranſaction ſhould come to the knowledge of the king, or any of the *Erees*, it might be attended with the moſt fatal conſequences to their whole ſociety; to prevent which, they had been under the neceſſity of coming in the dark; and the ſame precaution, they ſaid, would be requiſite in returning on ſhore. They added, that the chiefs were eager to take revenge for the death of their countrymen; and particularly cautioned our people againſt truſting Koah, who, he aſſured them, was the implacable enemy of our people, and ardently longed for an opportunity of fighting. The two natives then took their leave, it being about eleven o'clock at night.

The ſituation of our people was now extremely awkward and unpromiſing; none of the purpoſes for which this pacific plan of proceeding had been adopted, having hitherto been, in any reſpect, promoted by it. No ſatisfactory anſwer had been given to their demands. They did not ſeem to have made any progreſs towards a reconciliation with the natives, who ſtill remained on the ſhore in hoſtile poſtures, as if determined to oppoſe any endeavours that might be made to land; and yet it was become abſolutely neceſſary to attempt landing, as the completing the ſtock of water could not admit of any longer delay.

The iſlanders behaved in a manner the moſt daring and preſumptuous. One of them had the inſolence to come within muſket-ſhot ahead of the Reſolution, and, after throwing ſeveral ſtones, waved over his head the hat which had belonged to Captain Cook, while his countrymen on ſhore were exulting and encouraging his audacity.

Our people were highly enraged at this inſult, and coming in a body on the quarter-deck, begged they might no longer be obliged to put up with ſuch reiterated provocations, and requeſted Mr. King to endeavour to obtain permiſſion for them, from Captain Clerke, to take advantage of the firſt fair occaſion of avenging the death of their much-lamented commander. On Mr. King's acquainting the captain with what was paſſing, he ordered ſome great guns to be fired at the iſlanders on ſhore; and promiſed the crew, that, if they ſhould be moleſted at the watering place, the next day, they ſhould then be permitted to chaſtiſe them.

Before our people could bring the guns to bear, the natives had ſuſpected their intentions, from the buſtle and agitation they obſerved in the ſhip, and had retired behind their houſes and walls. They were conſequently obliged to fire, in ſome degree, at random; notwithſtanding which the ſhot produced all the effects that could be deſired. For, in a ſhort time afterwards, they perceived Koah paddling towards them with the greateſt haſte; and when he arrived, they learned, that ſome people had loſt their lives, and, among the reſt, Maiha-Maiha, a principal *Eree*, nearly related to Terreeoboo.

Soon after Koah's arrival, two boys ſwam off from the *morai* towards the veſſel, each armed with a long ſpear; and after they had approached pretty near, they began, in a very ſolemn manner, to chant a ſong; the ſubject of which, from their frequently mentioning the

word *Orono*, and pointing to the village where Captain Cook had been ſlain, was concluded to be the late calamitous occurrence. Having ſung for near a quarter of an hour in a plaintive ſtrain, during all which time they continued in the water, they repaired on board the Diſcovery, and delivered up their ſpears; and, after remaining there a ſhort time, returned on ſhore. Our people could never learn who ſent them, or what was the object of this ceremony.

The two natives who had viſited them before, came off again in the night, and aſſured them, that, though the effects of the great guns had greatly alarmed the chiefs, they had by no means relinquiſhed their hoſtile intentions, and adviſed them to be on their guard.

When the boats of both ſhips were diſpatched aſhore to procure water, the Diſcovery was warped cloſe to the beach, in order to protect the perſons employed in that ſervice. Our people ſoon found that the intelligence ſent by the prieſts, was not deſtitute of foundation, and that the iſlanders were determined to neglect no opportunity of annoying them, when it could be done without much hazard.

Matters were now come to ſuch a paſs, that it was deemed abſolutely neceſſary to burn down ſome ſtraggling huts, near the wall behind which they had ſheltered themſelves. In executing the orders that were given for that purpoſe, our people were hurried into acts of unneceſſary deva ſtation and cruelty.

In eſcaping from the flames, ſeveral of the inhabitants were ſhot; and our people cut off the heads of two of them, and brought them on board. The fate of one unhappy native was much lamented by them all. As he was repairing to the well for water, he was ſhot at by one of the marines. The ball happened to ſtrike his calabaſh, which he inſtantly threw from him, and ran off. He was purſued into one of the caves, and no lion could have defended his den with greater bravery and fierceneſs; till at length, after he had found means to keep two of our people at bay for a conſiderable time, he expired, covered with wounds. This accident firſt brought our people acquainted with the uſe to which theſe caverns were applied.

A man, much advanced in years, was taken priſoner, bound, and conveyed on board the Reſolution, in the ſame boat with the heads of his two countrymen. Horror could not be more ſtrongly pourtrayed than in the face of this perſon; nor ſo violent a tranſition to immoderate joy, as when he was untied, and given to underſtand, that he might depart in ſafety. He ſhewed that he was not deficient in gratitude, as he returned afterwards with preſents of proviſions.

It was remarked as rather extraordinary, that, amidſt all theſe diſturbances, the female natives who were on board, did not offer to depart, or diſcover any apprehenſions, either for themſelves or their friends on ſhore. They appeared, indeed, ſo perfectly unconcerned, that ſome of them who were on deck when the village was in flames, ſeemed to admire the ſpectacle, and frequently exclaimed, that it was *maitai*, or very fine.

At length a chief named Eappo, a man of the firſt diſtinction, came with preſents from Terreeoboo, to ſue for peace. Theſe preſents were accepted; and the chief was diſmiſſed with the following anſwer: That no peace would be granted, till the remains of Capt. Cook ſhould be reſtored.

Information was received from the Eappo, that the fleſh of all the bones of our people who had been ſlain, as well as the bones of the trunks, had been burnt; that the limb-bones of the marines had been diſtributed among the inferior chiefs; and that the remains of Capt. Cook had been diſpoſed of as follows: the head to a great *Eree*, called Kahoopeou; the hair to Maiha-maiha; and the arms, legs, and thighs, to Terreeoboo. Eappo was very urgent that one of our officers ſhould go on ſhore, and offered to remain on board, in the mean time, as an hoſtage. This requeſt, however, was not complied with; and he departed with a promiſe of bringing the bones the following day.

Accordingly in the morning was ſeen a numerous body of the natives deſcending the hill, which is over the beach, in a ſort of proceſſion, each man carrying on his ſhoulders two or three ſugar-canes, and ſome bread-fruit, plantains, and taro in his hand. They were preceded by two drummers, who, when they reached the water-ſide, ſeated themſelves by a white flag, and began beating their drums, while thoſe who had followed them advanced, one by one, and depoſited the preſents they had brought with them; after which they retired in the ſame order. Soon afterwards Eappo appeared in his long feathered cloak, bearing ſomething with great ſolemnity in his hands; and having ſtationed himſelf on a rock, he made ſigns that a boat ſhould be ſent him.

Captain Clerke, ſuppoſing that the chief had brought the bones of Captain Cook (which, indeed, proved to be the caſe) went himſelf in the pinnace to receive them, and ordered Mr. King to attend him in the cutter. When they arrived at the beach, Eappo, entering the pinnace, delivered the bones to Captain Clerke, wrapped up in a great quantity of fine new cloth, and covered with a ſpotted cloak of black and white feathers.

In this bundle were found both the hands of Captain Cook entire, which were well known from a ſcar on one of them, that divided the fore-finger from the thumb, the whole length of the metacarpal bone; the ſkull, but with the ſcalp ſeparated from it, and the bones of the face wanting; the ſcalp, with the ears adhering to it, and the hair upon it cut ſhort: the bones of both the arms, with the ſkin of the fore-arms hanging to them; the bones of the thighs and legs joined together, but without the feet. The ligaments of the joints were obſerved to be entire: and the whole ſhewed ſufficient marks of having been in the fire, except the hands, which had the fleſh remaining upon them, and were cut in ſeveral places, and crammed with ſalt, moſt probably with a view of preſerving them. The ſkull was free from any fracture, but the ſcalp had a cut in the back part of it. The lower jaw and feet, which were wanting, had been ſeized, as Eappo ſaid, by different *Erees*, and he added, that Terreeoboo was uſing every means to recover them.

Eappo, and the king's ſon, came afterwards on board, and brought with them not only the remaining bones of Capt. Cook, but likewiſe the barrels of his gun, his ſhoes, and ſome other trifles which had belonged to him. Eappo declared that Terreeoboo, Maiha-maiha, and himſelf were extremely deſirous of peace; that they had given the moſt convincing proofs of it; and that they had been prevented from giving it ſooner by the other chiefs, many of whom were ſtill diſaffected. He lamented, with the moſt lively ſorrow, the deaths of ſix chiefs, who had been killed by our people, ſome of whom, he ſaid, were among their beſt friends. He ſaid that the cutter had been taken away by Pareea's people, probably in revenge for the blow that he had received, and that it had been broken up the following day. The arms of the marines, which had alſo been demanded, had been carried off by the populace, and were irrecoverable.

Nothing now remained on the part of our people, but to perform the laſt ſolemn offices to their excellent commander. Eappo was diſmiſſed with orders to *taboo* all the bay; and in the afternoon, the bones having been depoſited in a coffin, the funeral ſervice was read over them, and they were committed to the deep with the uſual military honours.

Things being now amicably ſettled, Captain Clerke gave orders for the ſhips to unmoor, and for all the natives to be diſmiſſed. The chiefs took a friendly leave of their viſitors; and the anchor being weighed, they ſtood out of Karakakooa Bay; but not without many ſighs from the crews, at leaving the remains of their unfortunate commander behind them.

SECTION

SECTION VIII.

Occurrences to the departure from the Sandwich Iſlands. General Account of their Situation, Natural Hiſtory, Cuſtoms, Manners, Religion, &c. of the Natives, as a Supplement to the former Deſcription.

THE ſhips, on leaving Karakakooa Bay, in the Iſland of Owhyhee, paſſed Tahoora, and touched at Woahoo; and, in conſequence of diſappointment in attempting to water, proceeded to Atooi, and came to anchor in their former ſtation. Our people immediately obſerved on the natives coming on board, that there was not that complacency in their countenances, or cordiality in their manner, as when they firſt viſited them. Indeed, they gave evident tokens of a diſpoſition totally reverſe from that which they had diſcovered before, and ſeemed much inclined to hoſtility. The main deſign, in touching at this iſland, was to procure water, in which the people were much annoyed, and obſtructed by the natives. At length, however, after great difficulty, and ſome encounters, it was completed.

When the officers, whoſe preſence was required on ſhore, returned to the ſhips, they were informed that ſeveral chiefs had been on board, and apologized for the conduct of their countrymen. Preſents were afterwards exchanged between Captain Clerke and Toneonco, who held the ſupreme power, and apparent amity ſubſiſted till the ſhips left the iſland, and proceeded to Oneeheow, from which they ſailed, in proſecution of their voyage to the northward, in March, 1779.

The group of iſlands called by the general appellation of the Sandwich Iſlands, were found, at length, to be eleven in number; and as our navigators could never learn that the natives had knowledge of any other iſlands, it is moſt probable that there are no others in their vicinity. Of theſe we have mentioned ſix, viz. Woahoo, Atooi, Oneeheow, Oreehoua, Tahoora, and Owhyhee, the grand and principal ſcene of action. The others are called Morotoi, Morotinnee, Ranai, Kahowrowhee, and Moodoo-papapa. Theſe agree, in general, with the deſcription given of the former: and Morotinnee, as well as Mahoora, is uninhabited.

There are two mountains in the Iſland of Owhyhee deſerving of notice. The firſt, called Mouna Kaah (or the mountain Kaah) riſes in three peaks, continually covered with ſnow, and may be diſcerned at the diſtance of forty leagues. The coaſt to the northward of this mountain, is compoſed of high and abrupt cliffs, from which fall many beautiful caſcades of water. The mountain is very ſteep, and its lower part abounds with wood.

When the ſhips doubled the eaſt part of the iſland, they had ſight of another ſnowy mountain, called by the natives Mouna Roa (or the extenſive mountain) which, during the whole time they were ſailing along the ſouth-eaſtern ſide, continued to be a very conſpicuous object. It was flat at the ſummit, which was perpetually involved in ſnow; and they once obſerved its ſides alſo ſlightly covered with it for a conſiderable way down. This mountain is ſuppoſed to be at leaſt 16,020 feet: and therefore exceeds the height of the Peak of Teneriffe, by 3680 feet. The peaks of Mouna Kaah, ſeemed to be the height of about half a mile; and, as they are wholly covered with ſnow, the altitude of their ſummits muſt at leaſt be 18,400 feet.

There are alſo ſome particulars worthy of notice, reſpecting the interior parts of the iſland of Owhyhee, obtained from the information of a party of our people, who ſet out on an expedition up the country, principally with an intention of reaching the ſnowy mountains, under the guidance of two natives.

They ſtopped, for the night, at a hut they obſerved among the plantations, where they ſuppoſed themſelves to be ſix or ſeven miles diſtant from the ſhips. The proſpect from this ſpot was very delightful: they had a view of the veſſels in the bay before them. To the left they ſaw a continued range of villages interſperſed with groves of cocoa-nut trees, ſpreading along the ſhore; a thick wood extending itſelf behind them: and to the right, a very conſiderable extent of ground, laid out with great regularity in well-cultivated plantations, diſplayed itſelf to the view. Near this ſpot the natives pointed out to them, at a diſtance from every other dwelling, the reſidence of a hermit, who, they ſaid, had, in the former part of his life, been a great chief and warrior, but had long ago retired from the ſea-coaſt of the iſland, and now never quitted the environs of his cottage. As they approached him, they proſtrated themſelves, and afterwards preſented him with ſome proviſions. His behaviour was eaſy, frank, and cheerful. He teſtified little aſtoniſhment at the ſight of our people; and though preſſed to accept ſome European curioſities, he thought proper to decline the offer, and ſoon withdrew to his cottage. Our party repreſented him as by far the moſt aged perſon they had ever ſeen, judging him to be, at a moderate computation, upwards of an hundred years of age.

As the party had ſuppoſed that the mountain was not more than ten or a dozen miles diſtant from the bay, and conſequently expected to reach it with eaſe early the following morning, they were now greatly ſurpriſed to find the diſtance ſcarce perceivably diminiſhed. This circumſtance, with the uninhabited ſtate of the country, which they were on the point of entering, rendering it neceſſary to provide a ſupply of proviſions, they diſpatched one of their conductors back to the village for that purpoſe. Whilſt they waited his return, they were joined by ſeveral of Kaoo's ſervants, whom that generous old man had ſent after them, loaded with refreſhments, and fully authoriſed, as their route lay thro' his grounds, to demand, and take away with them, whatever they might want.

Great was the ſurpriſe of the travellers, on finding the cold here ſo intenſe. But as they had no thermometer with them, they could only form their judgment of it from their feelings, which, from the warm atmoſphere they had quitted, muſt have been a very fallacious method of judging. They found it, however, ſo cold, that they could ſcarce get any ſleep; and the iſlanders could not ſleep at all; both parties being diſturbed, during the whole night, by continual coughing. As they, at this time, could not be at any very great height, their diſtance from the ſea being no more than ſix or ſeven miles, and part of the road on a very moderate aſcent, this uncommon degree of cold muſt be attributed to the eaſterly wind blowing freſh over the ſnowy mountains.

They proceeded on their journey early the next morning, and filled their calibaſhes at a well of excellent water, ſituate about half a mile from their hut. After they had paſſed the plantations, they arrived at a thick wood, which they entered by a path that had been made for the convenience of the iſlanders, who frequently repair thither for the purpoſe of catching birds, as well as procuring the wild or horſe-plantain. Their progreſs now became extremely ſlow, and was attended with great labour; for the ground was either ſwampy, or covered with large ſtones; the path narrow, and often interrupted by trees lying acroſs it, which they were obliged to climb over, as the thickneſs of the underwood on each ſide, rendered it impracticable to paſs round them. They ſaw, in theſe woods, pieces of white cloth fixed on poles, at ſmall diſtances, which they imagined were land-marks for the diviſion of property, as they only obſerved them where the wild plantains grew. The trees were of the ſame kind with the ſpice-tree of New-Holland; they were ſtraight and lofty, and their circumference was, on an average one with another, from two to four feet.

Beſides the intenſeneſs of the cold, many other diſagreeable circumſtances, and particularly the averſion their conductors diſcovered to going on, induced the party to come to a determination of returning to the ſhips,

ſhips, after taking a ſurvey of the country from the higheſt trees they could find.

They were ſurpriſed at ſeeing ſeveral fields of hay; and upon their enquiry to what particular uſe it was applied, were informed that it was intended to cover the grounds where the young *taro* grew, in order to preſerve them from being ſcorched by the rays of the ſun. They obſerved among the plantations a few huts ſcattered about which afforded occaſional ſhelter to the labourers; but they did not ſee any village at a greater diſtance from the ſea than four or five miles. Near one of them, which was ſituated about four miles from the bay, they diſcovered a cave, forty fathoms long, three broad, and of the ſame height. It was open at each end; its ſides were fluted, as if wrought with a chiſſel; and the ſurface was glazed over, perhaps by the action of fire.

The birds of theſe iſlands are numerous, though the variety is not great. Some of them may vie with thoſe of any country in point of beauty. Their vegetable productions are not very different from thoſe of the other iſlands in the Pacific Ocean. The coaſts abound with variety of fiſh.

The natives of the Sandwich Iſlands are, doubtleſs, of the ſame extraction with the inhabitants of the Society and Friendly Iſlands. This fact, extraordinary as it is, is not only evinced by the general reſemblance of their perſons, and the great ſimilarity of their manners and cuſtoms, but ſeems to be eſtabliſhed, beyond all controverſy, by the identity of their language. It may not, perhaps, be very difficult to conjecture, from what continent they originally emigrated, and by what ſteps they have diffuſed themſelves over ſo immenſe a ſpace. They bear ſtrong marks of affinity to ſome of the Indian tribes, who inhabit the Ladrones and Caroline iſles; and the ſame affinity and reſemblance may alſo be traced among the Malays and the Battas. At what particular time theſe migrations happened is leſs eaſy to aſcertain; the period, in all probability, was not very late; as they are very populous, and have no tradition reſpecting their own origin, but what is wholly fabulous; though, on the other hand, the ſimplicity which is ſtill prevalent in their manners and habits of life, and the unadulterated ſtate of their general language, ſeem to demonſtrate, that it could not have been at a very remote period.

The ſame ſuperiority generally obſerved at other iſlands in the perſons of the Erees, is likewiſe found here. Thoſe that were ſeen were perfectly well formed; whereas the lower claſs of people, beſides their general inferiority, are ſubject to all the variety of figure and make that is met with in the populace of other parts of the world.

There were more frequent inſtances of deformity obſerved here than in any of the other iſlands viſited. While the ſhips were cruiſing off Owhyhee, two dwarfs came on board, one of whom was an old man of the height of four feet two inches, but very well proportioned, and the other was a woman nearly of the ſame ſtature. Our people afterwards ſaw among the natives three who were hump-backed, and a young man who had been deſtitute of hands and feet, from the very moment of his birth. Squinting is alſo common among them, and a man who had been born blind was brought on board for the purpoſe of being cured. Beſides theſe particular defects, they are, in general, exceeding ſubject to boils and ulcers, which was aſcribed to the great quantity of ſalt they uſually eat with their fiſh and fleſh. Though the Erees are free from thoſe complaints, many of them experience ſtill more dreadful effects from the two frequent uſe of the *ava*. Thoſe who were the moſt affected by it had their eyes red and inflamed, their limbs emaciated, their bodies covered with a whitiſh ſcurf, and their whole frame trembling and paralytic, attended with a diſability of raiſing their heads.

We have already taken notice of the great kindneſs and hoſpitality with which theſe iſlanders treated our people. Whenever they went on ſhore, there was a continual ſtruggle who ſhould be moſt forward in offering little preſents for their acceptance, bringing proviſions and refreſhments, or teſtifying ſome other mark of reſpect. The aged perſons conſtantly received them with tears of joy, appeared to be highly gratified with being permitted to touch them, and were frequently drawing compariſons with marks of extreme humility. The young women likewiſe were exceeding kind and engaging.

Theſe people, in point of natural capacity, are by no means beyond the common ſtandard of the human race. The excellence of their manufactures, and their improvements in agriculture, are doubtleſs adequate to their ſituation and natural advantages. The eagerneſs of curioſity with which they uſed to attend to the armourer's forge, and the various expedients which they had invented, even before our departure from theſe iſlands, for working the iron obtained from us into ſuch forms as were beſt calculated for their purpoſes, were ſtrong indications of docility and ingenuity.

The practice of *tabooing*, or puncturing the body, prevails among theſe people; and of all the iſlands in this ocean, it is only at New Zealand, and the Sandwich Iſles, that the face is *tatooed*. There is this difference between theſe two nations, that the New Zealanders perform this operation in elegant ſpiral volutes, and the Sandwich Iſlanders in ſtraight lines, that interſect each other at right angles.

Some of the natives have half their body, from head to foot, *tatooed*, which give them a moſt ſtriking appearance. It is generally done with great neatneſs and regularity. Several of them have only an arm thus marked; others a leg: ſome, again, *tatoo* both an arm and a leg; and others only the hand. The hands and arms of the women are punctured in a very neat manner: and they have a remarkable cuſtom of *tatooing* the tip of the tongues of ſome of the females. Our people had ſome reaſon to imagine, that the practice of puncturing was often intended as a ſign of mourning, on the deceaſe of a chief, or any other calamitous occurrence: for they were frequently informed that ſuch a mark was in memory of ſuch a chief; and ſo of the others. The people of the loweſt order are *tatooed* with a particular mark, which diſtinguiſhes them as the property of the chiefs to whom they are reſpectively ſubject.

The natives of theſe iſlands dwell together in ſmall towns or villages, which contain from about one hundred to two hundred houſes, built pretty cloſe to each other, without order or regularity, and have a winding path that leads through them. They are frequently flanked, towards the ſea-ſide, with looſe detached walls, which are, in all probability, intended for ſhelter and defence. They are of various dimenſions, from forty-five feet by twenty-four, to eighteen by twelve. Some are of a larger ſize, being fifty feet in length, and thirty in breadth, and entirely open at one end.

They are very cleanly at their meals: and their method of dreſſing both their vegetable and animal food, was univerſally acknowledged to be ſuperior to ours. The *Eree* conſtantly begin their meals with a doſe of the extract of pepper-root, or *ava*, prepared in the uſual mode. The women eat apart from the other ſex, and are prohibited from feeding on pork, turtle, and ſome particular ſpecies of plantains.

They generally riſe with the ſun; and, after having enjoyed the cool of the evening, retire to their repoſe a few hours after ſun-ſet. The *Erees* are occupied in making canoes and mats: the *Towtows* are chiefly employed in the plantations, and alſo in fiſhing; and the women are engaged in the manufactory of cloth. They amuſe themſelves at their leiſure hours with various diverſions. Their young perſons, of both ſexes, are fond of dancing; and, on more ſolemn occaſions, they entertain themſelves with wreſtling, and boxing matches, performed after the ſame manner of the natives of the Friendly Iſlands; to whom, however, they are greatly inferior in all theſe reſpects.

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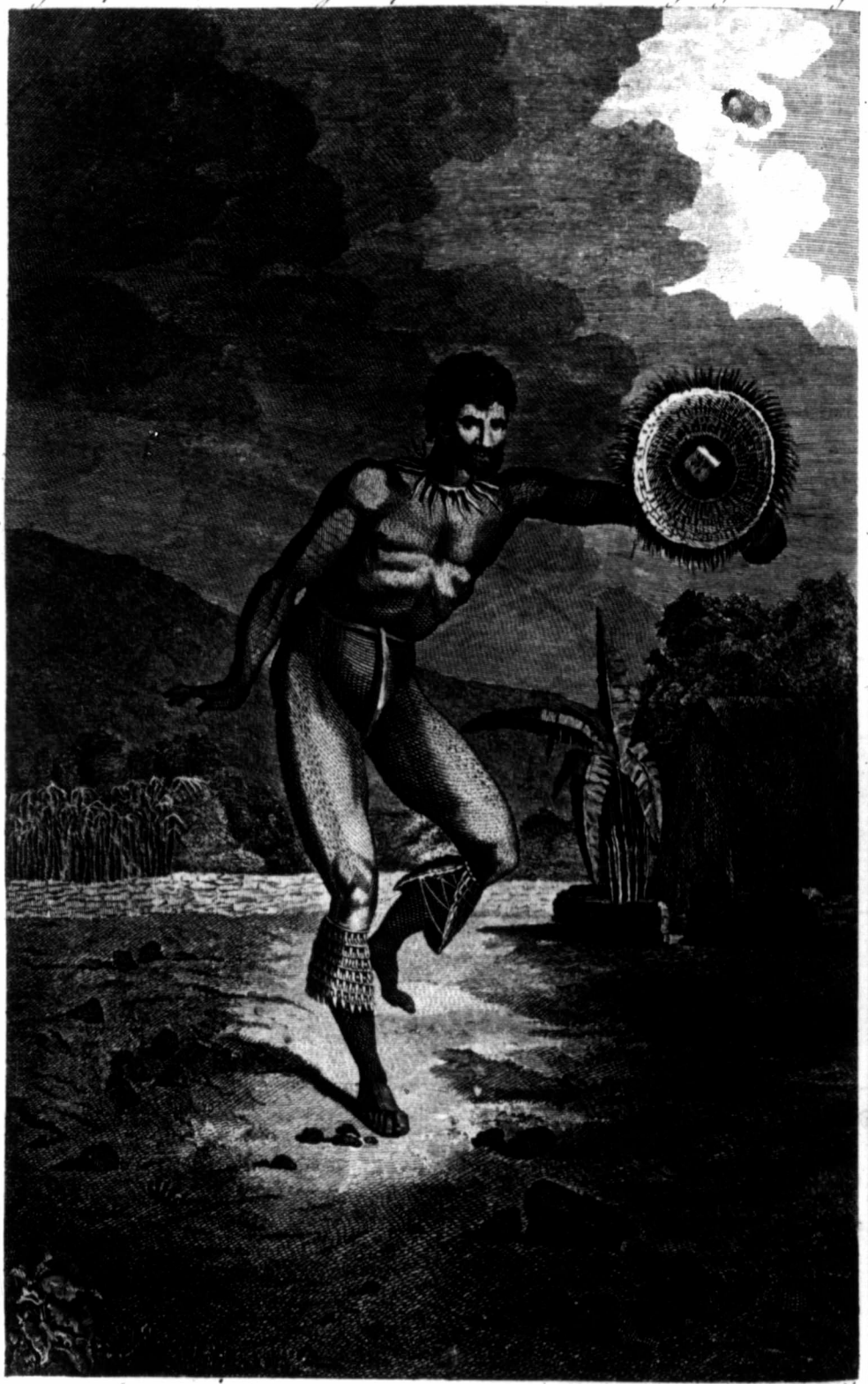
Engraved for BANKES's *New System of* GEOGRAPHY *Published by Royal Authority.*



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Their dances which bear a greater reſemblance to thoſe of the New Zealanders, than that of the Friendly or Society Iſlanders, are introduced with a ſolemn kind of ſong, in which the whole number join, at the ſame time ſlowly moving their legs, and gently ſtriking their breaſts; their attitudes and manner being very eaſy and graceful. So far they reſemble the dances of the Society Iſles. After this has continued for the ſpace of about ten minutes, they gradually quicken both the tune and the motions, and do not deſiſt till they are oppreſſed with fatigue. This part of the performance is the counter-part of that of the inhabitants of New Zealand; and, as among thoſe people, the perſon whoſe action is the moſt violent, and who continues this exerciſe the longeſt, is applauded by the ſpectators as the beſt dancer. But our people ſaw ſome boxing exhibitions, of the ſame kind with thoſe they had ſeen at the Friendly Iſles.

The muſic of theſe people is of a rude kind; for the only muſical inſtruments that was obſerved among them, were drums of various ſizes. Their ſongs, however, which they are ſaid to ſing in parts, and which they accompany with a gentle motion of their arms, like the inhabitants of the Friendly Iſlands, have a very pleaſing effect.

They are generally addicted to gambling. One of their games reſembles our game at draſts; but, from the number of ſquares, it ſeems to be much more intricate. The board is of the length of about two feet, and is divided into two hundred and thirty eight ſquares, fourteen in a row. In this game they uſe black and white pebbles, which they move from one ſquare to another.

Another of their games conſiſts in concealing a ſtone under ſome cloth, which is ſpread out by one of the parties, and rumpled in ſuch a manner, that it is difficult to diſtinguiſh where the ſtone lies. The antagoniſt then ſtrikes with a ſtick, that part of the cloth where he ſuppoſes the ſtone to be; and the chances being, upon the whole, againſt his hitting it, odds of all degrees are laid, varying with the opinion of the dexterity of the antagoniſt.

They often entertain themſelves with races between boys and girls, on which occaſions they lay wagers with great ſpirit. Our people ſaw a man beating his breaſt, and tearing his hair, in the violence of rage, for having loſt three hatchets at one of theſe races, which he had purchaſed from them with near half his property a very little time before.

Among the various diverſions of the children, was one frequently played at, and which ſhewed a conſiderable ſhare of dexterity. They take a ſhort ſtick, thro' one extremity of which runs a peg ſharpened at both ends, extending about an inch on each ſide; then throwing up a ball formed of green leaves moulded together, and faſtened with twine, they catch it on one of the points of the peg; immediately after which, they throw it up again from the peg, then turn the ſtick round, and catch the ball on the other point of the peg. Thus, for ſome time, they continue catching it on each point of the peg alternately, without miſſing it. They are equally expert at another diverſion of a ſimilar nature, throwing up in the air, and catching, in their turns, many of theſe balls: and our people have often ſeen little children thus keep five balls in motion at once.

Concerning their method of agriculture, it may ſuffice to obſerve, that it reſembles that of the other iſlands of the Pacific Ocean.

The inhabitants of the Sandwich Iſlands are divided into three claſſes. The *Erees*, or chiefs of each diſtrict, are the firſt; and one of theſe is ſuperior to the reſt, who was called, at Owhyhee, *Eree-taboo*, and *Eree Moee*; the firſt name expreſſing his authority, and the latter ſignifying that, in his preſence, all muſt proſtrate themſelves. Thoſe of the ſecond claſs appear to enjoy a right of property, but have no authority. Thoſe who compoſe the third claſs, are called *towtows* or ſervants, and have neither rank or property.

The *Erees* appear to have unlimited power over the inferior claſſes of people; many inſtances of which occurred daily, whilſt our people continued among them. On the other hand, the people are implicitly obedient. It is remarkable, however, that the chiefs were never ſeen to exerciſe any acts of cruelty, injuſtice, or inſolence towards them; though they put in practice their power over each other, in a moſt tyrannical degree, as appears from the following inſtances. One of the lower order of the chiefs having ſhewn great civility to the maſter of the ſhip, on his examination of Karakakooa Bay, Mr. King, ſome time afterwards, took him on board the Reſolution, and introduced him to Capt. Cook, who engaged him to dine. While the company remained at table, Pareea entered, whoſe countenance manifeſted the higheſt indignation at ſeeing their gueſt ſo honourably entertained. He ſeized him by the hair of the head, and would have dragged him out of the cabin, if the captain had not interfered. After much altercation, no other indulgence could be obtained (without quarelling with Pareea) than that the gueſt ſhould be permitted to remain in the cabin, on condition that he ſeated himſelf on the floor, while Pareea occupied his place at the table. An inſtance, ſomewhat ſimilar, happened when Terreeoboo came firſt on board the Reſolution, when Maiha-maiha, who attended him, ſeeing Pareea upon deck, turned him moſt ignominiouſly out of the ſhip; even though the officers knew Pareea to be a man of the firſt conſequence.

Very little information could be obtained reſpecting their adminiſtering of juſtice. If a quarrel aroſe among the lower claſs of people, the matter was referred to the deciſion of ſome chief. If an inferior chief had offended one of ſuperior rank, his puniſhment was dictated by the feelings of the ſuperior at that moment. If he ſhould fortunately eſcape the firſt tranſports of his rage, he perhaps found means, through the mediation of others, to compound for his offence, by all, or part of his effects.

The religion of theſe people reſembles that of the Society and Friendly iſles. In common with each other, they have all their *morais*, their *whattas*, their ſacred ſongs, and their ſacrifices. The ceremonies here, are, indeed, longer, and more numerous than in the iſlands above mentioned.

It has been remarked by voyagers, that the Society and Friendly iſlanders pay adoration to particular birds; and it ſeems to be a cuſtom that is prevalent in theſe iſlands. Ravens are, perhaps, the object of it here; for Mr. King ſaw two of theſe birds perfectly tame, at the village of Kakooa, and was told they were *Eatooas*. He offered ſeveral articles for them, which were all refuſed; and he was particularly cautioned not to hurt or offend them.

The prayers and offerings made by the prieſts before their meals, may be claſſed among their religious ceremonies.

It has been already obſerved, that human ſacrifices are common here. They have one moſt extraordinary religious cuſtom, which is that of knocking out their fore teeth. Moſt of the common people, and many of the chiefs, had loſt one or more of them; and this, our people underſtood, was conſidered as a propitiatory ſacrifice to the *Eatooa*, to avert his anger; and not like the cutting off a part of the finger at the Friendly Iſlands, to expreſs the violence of their grief at the deceaſe of a friend.

Our voyagers could derive but very imperfect information of their opinions reſpecting a future ſtate. On enquiring of them whither the dead were gone, they were told that the breath, which they ſeemed to conſider as the immortal part, was fled to *Eatooa*. They ſeemed alſo to give a deſcription of ſome place, which they ſuppoſe to be the abode of the dead; but they could not learn that they had any idea of rewards or puniſhments.

Of their marriages it can only be ſaid, that ſuch a compact ſeems to exiſt among them. Whether polyga-

my is allowed, or whether it is mixed with concubinage, could not be aſcertained.

It appears, from the following inſtance, that among married women of rank, not only fidelity, but even a degree of reſerve is required.

At one of their boxing matches, Omeah, a chief of the higheſt dignity, roſe two or three times from his place, and approached his wife with ſtrong marks of diſpleaſure, commanding her, as was ſuppoſed, to withdraw. Whether he thought her beauty engaged too much of the attention of his viſitors, or whatever might be his motives, there certainly exiſted no real cauſe of jealouſy. She, however, continued in her place, and, at the concluſion of the entertainment, joined the party of officers, and even ſolicited ſome trifling preſents. She was informed that they had not any about them; but that if ſhe would accompany them to the tent, ſhe ſhould be welcome to make choice of what ſhe liked. She accordingly proceeded with them, which being obſerved by Omeah, he followed in a great rage, ſeized her by the hair, and, with his fiſts, began to inflict ſevere corporal puniſhment. Having been the innocent cauſe of this extraordinary treatment, the officers were exceedingly concerned at it; though they underſtood it would be highly improper for them to interfere between huſband and wife of ſuch ſuperior rank. The natives, however, at length interpoſed; and the next day they had the ſatisfaction of meeting them together, perfectly ſatisfied with each other: and, what was extremely ſingular, the wife would not permit them to rally the huſband on his behaviour, which they had an inclination to do; plainly telling them, that he had acted very properly.

Our people had twice an opportunity, while the ſhips lay at Karakakooa Bay, of ſeeing a part of their funeral rites. Hearing of the death of an old chief, not far from the obſervatories, ſome of them repaired to the place, where they beheld a number of people aſſembled. They were ſeated round an area, fronting the houſe where the deceaſed lay; and a man, having on a red feathered cap, came to the door, conſtantly putting out his head, and making a moſt lamentable howl, accompanied with horrid grimaces, and violent diſtortions of the face. A large mat was afterwards ſpread upon the area, and thirteen women and two men, who came out of the houſe, ſat down upon it in three equal rows; three of the women, and the two men, being in front. The women had feathered ruffs on their necks and hands; and their ſhoulders were decorated with broad green leaves, curiouſly ſcolloped. Near a ſmall hut, at one corner of this area, half a dozen boys were placed, waving ſmall white banners, and *taboo* ſticks, who would not ſuffer our people to approach them. Hence they imagined that the dead body was depoſited in the hut; but were afterwards informed, that it remained in the houſe where the tricks were playing at the door by the man in the red cap. The company, ſeated on the mat, ſung a melancholy tune, accompanied with a gentle motion of the arms and body. This having continued ſome time, they put themſelves in a poſture between kneeling and ſitting, and their arms and bodies into a moſt rapid motion, keeping pace, at the ſame time, with the muſic. Theſe laſt exertions being too violent to continue, at intervals they had ſlower motions. An hour having paſſed in theſe ceremonies, more mats were ſpread upon the area, when the dead's chief widow, and three or four other elderly women, came out of the houſe with ſlow and ſolemn pace, and ſeating themſelves before the company, began to wail moſt bitterly, in which they were joined by the three rows of women behind them: the two men appearing melancholy and penſive. They continued thus, with little variation, till late in the evening, when our people left them; and, at day-light in the morning, the people diſperſed, and every thing was quiet. Our people were given to underſtand, that the body was removed, but could not learn how it was diſpoſed of. As they were making enquiry of ſome of the natives, they were approached by three women of rank, who ſignified to them, that their preſence interrupted the performance of ſome neceſſary rites. Soon after they had left them, they heard their cries and lamentations; and when they met them a few hours after, the lower parts of their faces were painted perfectly black.

They had likewiſe an opportunity of obſerving the ceremonies at the funeral of one of the ordinary claſs. Hearing ſome mournful cries iſſuing from a miſerable hut, they entered it, and diſcovered two women, which they ſuppoſed to be the mother and daughter, weeping over the body of a man, who had that moment expired. They firſt covered the body with a cloth, then lying down by it, they ſpread the cloth over themſelves, beginning a melancholy kind of ſong, often repeating *Awèh me doaah! Awèh tanee!!* "Oh, my father! "Oh, my huſband!" In one corner a younger daughter lay proſtrate on the ground, having ſome black cloth ſpread over her, and repeating the ſame expreſſions.

On enquiry afterwards, how the body had been diſpoſed of, they pointed towards the ſea, perhaps indicating thereby, that it had been depoſited in the deep; or that it had been conveyed to ſome place of burial beyond the bay.

From a review of regions firſt explored, in the vaſt Pacific Ocean, by the lateſt, moſt ingenious, and enterprizing Navigators, which have preſented to the mind a diſplay of human nature in its rude and uncultivated ſtate, and pictured ſcenes tending to excite equal horror and amazement, we paſs to Aſia, *that quarter of the globe allowed, by Geographers in general, to claim pre-eminence, from the ſerenity of its air, the fertility of its ſoil, and the richneſs of its mines. Here* new *proſpects open to the view, and here much more important as well as entertaining Diſcoveries, both on the coaſts, as alſo in the diſtant iſlands, have been recently made by our late Navigators, all of which will be deſcribed in their proper places. We ſhall here ſurvey Empires extenſive and opulent in the extreme, trace the progreſs of Arts and Sciences, perceive the effects of different diſpoſitions and a different rate of men, and enter upon a detail of the cuſtoms, manners and ceremonies of people totally oppoſite to thoſe already deſcribed. This muſt tend to expand the ideas of the Reader, who will not repent of having devoted ſome part of his time to the contemplation of ſubjects ſo happily adapted to blend inſtruction with entertainment.*

In our deſcription of this Quarter of the Globe, we ſhall have various opportunities of furniſhing the Reader with that information and entertainment that could never before be obtained, as different parts have been explored by our modern navigators, which could not be penetrated by their predeceſſors, and which we ſhall minutely and accurately deſcribe in their proper places; ſo that a continued Novelty will attend our Purſuit through the Whole of our laborious Undertaking.

It may be proper to obſerve to our Readers, that, after having amply deſcribed all the New Diſcovered Iſlands of importance in the Great Pacific Ocean, *ſuch ſmall ones as were only ſeen, or ſlightly viſited by our late Navigators, and conſequently of leſs importance, ſhall be all deſcribed in their proper order, and claſſed under one general Head, with our deſcription at large of the Aſiatic Iſlands.*

A NEW & ACCURATE MAP of ASIA,

Drawn from the most approved Modern MAPS & CHARTS.

BY

Thos. Bowen.

FROZEN SEA

Arctic Circle

Meridian of London

EUROPEAN PART OF RUSSIAN EMPIRE

TSHUKTSKI

KORIAKS

KAMTSCHATKA

KURILI ISLES

EASTERN TARTARY

WESTERN TARTARY

ALMUKS

CHINA

TIBET

PERSIA

MOGOLS EMPIRE

ARABIAN SEA

BAY OF BENGAL

Lacks Dives

Maldives

CEYLON I.

Nicobar Islands

PHILIPPINES

BORNEO

SUNDA ISLES OR

NEW GUINEA

NEW HOLLAND

New South Wales

New Ireland

New Britain

New Hebrides

New Caledonia

New Zeeland

Norfolk I.

Q. Charlott's I.

LADRONE ISLES

CAROLINES

Equinoctial Line

Tropic of Capricorn

Tropic of Cancer

AFRICA

EASTERN OCEAN

INDIAN OCEAN

PACIFIC OCEAN

Longitude East from London

A NEW, ROYAL, AND AUTHENTIC

SYSTEM of UNIVERSAL GEOGRAPHY.

BOOK II.

A S I A

Including the New Diſcoveries on the Continent and Iſlands off the Coaſt.

INTRODUCTION.

THE origin of the common name of Aſia is, at beſt, but founded upon conjecture, and there are great variety of opinions among the learned concerning it. After a minute examination of the ſeveral particulars, we may venture to offer, as moſt probable, the judgment of Bochart, who ſuppoſes it to have taken its name from the Phœnician word *Aſi*, ſignifying the *middle*, becauſe Aſia Minor, which communicated its appellation to Aſia the Greater, is ſituated in the middle between Europe and Africa.

Aſia is bounded on the W. by the Black and Mediterranean Seas; on the S. and E. by the Arabic, Perſian, Indian and Chineſe Oceans; and on the N. by the Frozen; ſo that it is, on every ſide, ſurrounded by the Sea, only it muſt be obſerved, that its limits northward were not diſcovered till the reign of the Czar Peter the Great, from whoſe ſurvey a map was afterwards printed at Amſterdam. Its form is conical: in point of extent it is larger than Europe and Africa together, and broader than America, though not ſo long, being, according to the moſt received computation, about 4740 miles from E. to W. and 4380 from N. to S.

In Aſia the grand work of Creation was firſt made manifeſt. Here flouriſhed the terreſtrial Paradiſe, or Garden of Eden, inhabited by our firſt parents in a ſtate of innocence, till expelled for their diſobedience of the Divine command. In Aſia appeared the Great Redeemer of Mankind, to avert the fatal conſequences, and, by his precepts, example and ſufferings, lay the foundation of their future happineſs. Here that once favoured people the Jews were enlightened by prophetic revelations: here Chriſtianity firſt dawned, and from hence was diffuſed throughout the diſtant nations of the earth.

Aſia claims the firſt planting of cities, inſtitution of laws and government, civilization of manners, origin of arts and ſciences, and cultivation of human literature in general. To theſe diſtinguiſhed bleſſings of a ſpiritual or mental kind, may be added the bounties of Providence, which are here diſpenſed in vaſt variety as well as ſuper-abundance. In fine, if we advert to the ſerenity of its air, the fertility of its ſoil, the deliciouſneſs of its fruits, the ſalubrity of its drugs, the fragrance and balſamic qualities of its plants, gums and ſpices; the quantity, beauty and value of its gems, the fineneſs of its ſilks and cottons, and many other natural endowments, we cannot but admit of its decided ſuperiority, nor can we wonder at its antient ſplendor, power and opulence.

A GENERAL TABLE OF THE CONTINENT OF ASIA.

Aſia is conſidered under Six Grand Diviſions, viz.	Nations.	Length.	Breadth.	Principal Cities.	Diſtance and Bearings from London.	
	China	1440	1260	Pekin	4320	S. E.
	Mogul Empire	2042	1400	Dehli	3720	S. E.
	India	2000	1000	Siam	5040	S. E.
	Perſia	1300	1100	Iſpahan	2460	S. E.
Turkey in Aſia.	Arabia	1300	1200	Mecca	2640	S. E.
	Syria	400	200	Aleppo	1860	S. E.
	Holy Land	200	180	Jeruſalem	1920	S. E.
	Natolia	600	320	Smyrna	1440	S. E.
	Meſopotamia	600	300	Bagdat	2160	S. E.
	Turcomania	300	200	Erzerum	1860	S. E.
	Georgia	210	140	Teflis	1920	E.
Tartary.	Ruſſian	Limits impoſſible to aſcertain, as they are frequently changing, by continual appeals to the ſword.		Tobolſki	2160	N. E.
	Chineſe			Chynian	4480	N. E.
	Mogulean			Tibet	3780	E.
	Independent			Samarcand	2800	E.

CHAP. I.

SIBERIA.

SECTION I.

Diſcovery, Extent, Situation, Climate, Rivers, &c.

SIBERIA was diſcovered by a Muſcovite named Anica, who, obſerving conſiderable companies, different from the Ruſſians, come annually from it with furs, &c. reſolved to inform himſelf of the particulars concerning it, and engroſs the trade, eſpecially as theſe people failed into Muſcovy by the river Whitſogda, near which he reſided, to Ozeil and Uſtenga, ſituated on the Dwina, into which it falls. Anica found means to introduce ſome of his children and domeſtics into their company on their return, and thereby eſtabliſh a correſpondence with them, which tended ſo effectually to their advantage, that in time they grew ſo opulent as to become famed by the name of Anicans,

The part to which they traded was to the north of Siberia, or rather the ſouthern part of Samoiedia. To prevent the effects of diſcovery, they timely ſecured by preſent, the protection of prince Boris Gordenoff, brother-in-law and afterwards ſucceſſor to the then Czar Feodor Iwanowitz, who procured them a patent from the Czar, entailing all their lands and poſſeſſions on their poſterity for ever free from tribute. Boris ſent the Anicans an ambaſſador, with a great retinue, an eſcort of troops, and abundance of trinkets and other ornaments. They went through great part of Samoiedia as far as the Oby, diſplaying their magnificence, and diſtributing their preſents with ſuch liberality that the inhabitants were captivated, and conſidered it as a happineſs to live under ſo ſplendid a monarch. Several Ruſſians were then left to learn their language, and ſeveral natives chearfully entered into the ſervice of the Czar, and coming to Moſcow carried back to their countrymen ſo tranſporting an account of the grand ſpectacles therein exhibited, as induced them readily to ſubmit to the Ruſſian empire, and ſubject themſelves to pay an annual tribute, and about the year 1595, they became wholly the vaſſals of Ruſſia.

According, however, to Mr. Iſbrand Ides, Siberia was diſcovered and conquered before that time (i. e. in 1563) in the reign of Iwanowitz; whereas Samoiedia ſubmitted not till that of his ſon Feodor. As we would by no means omit any article that may conduce to the information of our readers, we ſhall preſent them with an extract from the author before-mentioned, relative to the diſcovery and ſubjection of Siberia.

He relates, "that after the diſcovery of Siberia by Anica in 1563, one Termack Timoſciwitz, at the head of a numerous gang of Coſſacks, ravaged all the country about the rivers Occa and Volga; that the Czar, therefore, ſent a conſiderable force againſt him, and obliged him to retire to the mountains, which divide Ruſſia from Siberia. That he croſſed theſe mountains, and got into the territories of M. Strogonoff, whoſe friendſhip he found the means of obtaining, and by whoſe aſſiſtance he embarked with his banditti on the Togil, and ſailed down that river to the place where it diſcharges itſelf into the Tura: that purſuing his courſe on this river, he ſeized upon the city of Tumen, ſurpriſed Toboliſki, made priſoner the ſon of the Chan Zaudian, a youth about twelve years of age, and ſent him to Moſcow with the offer of annexing Siberia to the Ruſſian crown, by which he obtained a pardon, and finally, that he was ſoon after drowned, and the Czar ſending a number of troops into Siberia, the whole country ſubmitted to his arms."

Siberia is a country of vaſt extent, reaching from 50 to 83 deg. north latitude, and comprehending the moſt northern part of the Ruſſian empire even in Aſia. It is bounded on the W. by Ruſſia, (ſeparated by the ridge of mountains reaching from Mount Caucaſus to the Northern Ocean) on the N. by the Frozen Sea, on the Eaſt by the Japaneſe Ocean and part of Great Tartary, and on the S. by the ſame. So that it may be computed upwards of 3000 miles in length, and about 760 in breadth.

The northern parts of it are ſcarcely habitable thro' exceſſive cold. They exhibit nothing but a dreary view of impenetrable woods, ſnow-topt mountains, fens, lakes and marſhes, and are ſo expoſed to bleak winds, that the bare idea of them muſt thrill the mind with horror. Not a feathered meſſenger appears as the harbinger of any change of ſeaſon. The natives are obliged to make paſſages through heaps of ſnow, and nine months in the year partly ſhut up in their cottages. Nature, indeed, exhibits one melancholy ſcene, and nought is heard but the cries of ſome ſhuddering travellers in ſledges.

To theſe regions of horror and dullneſs the monarchs of Ruſſia conſign as exiles thoſe grandees who incur their diſpleaſure; ſome for a time preſcribed, others for life. Some have a ſcanty pittance allowed them, others none at all; ſo that from a ſtate of opulence and grandeur, they become at once the moſt deſtitute and abject of mortals. They live by the hunt, and are not only compelled to ſend an annual tribute of furrs to the Czars, but puniſhed with relentleſs cruelty by their taſk-maſters who ſuperintend them.

The ſouthern are the only parts of Siberia fit for human beings to inhabit, where the climate is ſomewhat mild, and the ſoil appears capable of cultivation; tho', for want of inhabitants, very little of any kind of grain is produced.

The principal rivers of this country, are the Jeniſea, the Oby, and the Lena. They contain, in great quantities, all the ſpecies of fiſh that are found in Europe, and many others unknown.

On the banks of ſome of the rivers, they dig out of the ground a ſurpriſing kind of bone reſembling ivory, which ſome infer muſt have lain there ever ſince the flood. This bone, ſplit or ſawed, exhibits a variety of figures, ſuch as birds, flowers, &c. and the longer it hath lain on the ground, the greater is the diverſity. Several trinkets are made of this bone; and various opinions are entertained of ſo rare a curioſity. But theſe we omit as merely conjectural, and paſs to obſerve, that in Siberia are gold, ſilver, copper, &c. mines; alſo the lapis lazuli, jaſper, and load-ſtones. The iron ores are excellent; the brown is of a very fine grain; and the load-ſtone acts upon it only after it has been calcined. From the general account of Siberia, we now proceed to particulars, beginning with the moſt northern part, and proceeding in regular gradation to Kamtſchatka, little explored by former, but particularly deſcribed by our modern navigators.

SECTION II.

SAMOIEDIA, or SAMOIEDA.

THIS is the moſt northern province of the Ruſſian empire, extending to the Frozen Sea, which bounds it on the north. It is divided into Obdora, on the weſt, and Manamo and Loppo, eaſt of the river Oby. The Riphæan mountains, that ſurround the river Petzora, bound it on the weſt.

The Samoides, or Samoiedians, (ſignifying, in the Ruſſian language, *man-eaters*) are low in ſtature, broad ſhouldered, broad faced, flat noſed, with lips pendant, hideous aſpects, and ſwarthy complexions.

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From the laſt particular, naturaliſts have obſerved, that climates, either hot or cold in the extreme, have the ſame effect on the ſkin. The hair of both ſexes hangs at its full length; and that of the women, which is plaited, is adorned with red ſlips of cloth, and braſs trinkets fixed to it. The men have ſcarce any beards.

The dreſs of the people conſiſts, in general, of deer ſkins, with a fur cap. The mens fur breeches and ſtockings are all of one piece; and the womens fur petticoats deſcend down the legs, which are covered with a kind of half boots. The dreſs of the latter is of different colours, ſits cloſe to the body from neck to knee, and is decorated with ſlips of red, yellow, and blue cloth, woollen liſt, or ribbon. On their feet they generally wear long ſkaits, with which they glide over ſnow and ice with wonderful facility.

They live nine months in the year in caves, and make ſubterraneous paſſages for the purpoſe of viſiting each other. Their light they derive from lamps fed by fœtid fiſh oil.

Dreary as the regions muſt appear to the natives of happier climes, the Samoiedians paſs their time in them jovially, feaſting upon carrion, garbage, &c. which they moſt reliſh when moſt tainted. The tents in which they live the three ſummer months in form reſemble a bee-hive, and are covered with the ſkins of the game they kill, which ſtinks abominably at a conſiderable diſtance. They are excellent archers, being trained up from their infancy to the uſe of the bow.

They are, in general, ſtrong, active, healthy, and hardy, and, in ſome works, toil till they ſweat, in this cold country. While the weather permits, they wander in queſt of the beſt game for themſelves, and paſture for the rein-deer, their only beaſt of ſervice. They travel in ſledges drawn by theſe animals. The ſledges meaſure about eight feet in length, and about four in breadth, and turn up before in the manner of a ſkait. The rein-deers have a pleaſing appearance in harneſs, holding their heads ſo high, that their horns almoſt touch their backs.

Theſe people are very dextrous at catching what is called the ſea-dog. It is done by crawling upon the ice after the animal, with a large hook and line, and throwing the hook to a convenient diſtance, when the animal, in endeavouring to avoid the ſnare laid for it, generally fixes himſelf in it. The creature, however, though thus hooked, jumps ſometimes into the ſea with ſuch force and violence, as to drag the man into the ſea after him. From the ſea-dog is extracted an oil, and the fleſh is eaten by the natives.

The Samoides believe that there is a Supreme Being, and they call him *Hey-ha*. From him they think every human bleſſing is derived; that he is our all-merciful and common parent, and will reward thoſe with an happy ſtate hereafter, who live as they ought in this world. They, however, worſhip the ſun, moon, and ſtars; and alſo reverence images, birds, and beaſts. They have their prieſts, who pretend to be adepts in the magic art; wherefore they conſult theſe upon various occaſions, who ſeverally deliver their oracular determinations.

SECTION III.

Of the Jakuti. The Bratſki. The Kamſki. The Brabinſki. A Mahometan Nation on the River Irtiſch. The Oſtiocs and the Tunguſi. With the Manners and Cuſtoms of theſe ſeveral Nations.

THE cold in the province of Jakuti, or Jakutzk, which is ſituated to the north, as well as in other northern parts of Siberia, is ſometimes ſo intenſe, as to ſtrike with death, in a few hours, both men and beaſts, who happen to be remote from any place of ſhelter. It ordinarily happens in the uſual weather, that ſome parts of the body only are affected with the froſt, in which caſe rubbing them with ſnow immediately reſtores the circulation. When, in ſevere weather, the face is ſo frozen as to loſe all ſenſation, the perſon ſo affected muſt be told of it, as without ſuch friendly office mutually rendered, fatal conſequences would enſue. Such is the tranſition from cold to heat, that the inhabitants in the ſummer go almoſt naked. Though the earth produces neither corn or fruit, beyond the 60th degree of latitude, the inhabitants of thoſe parts are amply ſupplied from the ſouth: nor do they pine under any dearth of fiſh, animal food, or fuel, having a ſufficiency of theſe neceſſary articles. The Jakuti pay very little attention to the cultivation of grain, as their chief employ is the hunting animals.

The capital of the province is Jakutzk, ſituate on the river Lena, about four hundred miles from the Frozen Ocean.

This nation, one of the moſt conſiderable of all the pagan in the vaſt country of Siberia, compriſing, in ten tribes, thirty or forty thouſand perſons, is wholly ſubject and tributary to Ruſſia. They have an idea of a Supreme Being, but the image they form of him is of hideous aſpect: it has a big head, and large eyes of coral. They place it in a tree, and cover it with furs. Once a year they aſſemble together, and ſacrifice horſes, &c. to this image, ſticking up the hórſes heads all round the tree. Then ſitting down in a circle, they drink of liquor which they call *cumiſes*, and get intoxicated with it. They alſo throw ſome of the liquor into the air, and into a fire which they light on the occaſion. This ceremony is performed in the ſpring, and is their new-year's offering.

Their food is horſe-fleſh, which they devour with equal guſt, whether freſh or putrid. They are particularly fond of the uſe of tobacco, which they procure from the Ruſſians.

Their habitations reſemble thoſe of the Samoiedians, excepting that their ſummer huts are in form like a ſugar-loaf, covered with the bark of trees, and curiouſly wrought with horſe-hair. The dead are generally left on the ſpot where they expire, and the ſurvivors ſeek a new habitation.

Near the lake Baikal are ſituated the Bratſki Tartars, many of whom attain to a conſiderable knowledge in mechanics and agriculture. Veniſon and horſe-fleſh conſtitute the chief part of their food, but the latter, in general, has the preference. They breed great numbers of horſes, as well as other cattle, inſomuch, that, by thoſe means, many of them poſſeſs conſiderable property.

The Kamſki, who reſemble, in cuſtoms and manners, the Bratſki, inhabit a part ſituated more to the weſtward.

The vaſt deſart of Barbi, from whence the inhabitants are called Brabinſki, lies ſtill farther to the weſtward. In the ſummer they remove to the banks of rivers. Their winter habitations, like thoſe in general of theſe northern climes, are low in the earth; and the roofs, which are raiſed about two or three feet, are covered with ruſhes, or the ſkins of animals.

As the dreary deſart of Barba is void of fountain, or river, the common drink of the inhabitants, from indiſpenſable neceſſity, is melted ſnow. They alſo drink mares milk, in common with the Tartars in general.

The Mahometan nation along the river Irtiſch, poſſeſs numerous herds and flocks. They are tributary to Ruſſia, though under governors of their own country. Their dreſs is after the mode of the ancient Ruſſians; and the women have rings pendant from their noſes.

The Oſtiocs are ſituated farther to the weſt, their country extending not only along the rivers Oby and Jeniſea, but others which diſcharge themſelves into thoſe laſt mentioned. Theſe people have no rice, but ſubſiſt on fiſh, wild fowl, roots, &c. Their habitations reſemble the above deſcribed. They likewiſe, in ſummer, repair to the banks of the rivers, and employ themſelves in fiſhing.

The ſledges of the Oſtiocs are drawn by dogs, four of which will draw a ſledge, with 300lb. weight upon it, fifteen leagues in a day. What is remarkable, they

have poſts in this country for ſledges, as regular as the poſts of Europe, with relays of dogs, for travellers to change on their journey, at ſet diſtances, the greater hurry a paſſenger is in, the more dogs they employ.

As to the religion of theſe people, they have ſmall brazen idols, placed in groves, or on the tops of houſes. When they make offerings, they preſent an animal to the idol, and one of them puts up the petitions of thoſe who brought the ſacrifice: he then pierces the beaſt with an arrow, and they all join in killing him. Then the animal is drawn round the idol, and ſome of them ſprinkle the blood upon it. They then dreſs the fleſh and eat it, ſhouting and rejoicing.

The Tunguſi conſiſt of various tribes, ſpread thro' different parts of Siberia, and are of the old Scythian race. They are divided into three claſſes, viz. the Konni Tunguſi, or thoſe who uſe horſes; the Oleni Tunguſi, or thoſe who uſe rein-deir; and the Sabatſchi Tunguſi, or thoſe who make uſe of dogs.

Both ſexes of the Sabatſchi Tunguſi, who take up their reſidence between the Lena and the Penſchinſka Ocean, go naked in ſummer time, except juſt having a ſmall piece of ſkin round their waiſts. In winter they are cloathed with deer ſkins. They believe in a ſuperintending Providence, but reverence idols of their own conſtruction. They hang their dead upon the branches of trees, and burn the bones as ſoon as the fleſh rots off, or is devoured by animals.

SECTION IV.

THE COUNTRY OF THE TSCHUTSKI.

Their Weapons, Diſpoſition, Perſons, Dreſs, Winter and Summer Habitations, Cuſtoms, Canoes, &c.

WHEN Captain Cook firſt made this land, in Auguſt 1778, it was ſuppoſed by ſome, on board the Reſolution, to be a part of the Iſland of Alaſchka, laid down in Mr. Stæhlin's map; but, from the appearance of the coaſt, and other circumſtances, it was ſoon conjectured to be rather the country of the Tſchutſki, or the eaſtern extremity of Aſia, explored by Beering in 1728. In admitting this, however, without farther examination, we muſt have pronounced Mr. Stæhlin's map, and his account of the New Northern Archipelago, to be either remarkably erroneous, even in latitude, or elſe to be a mere fiction; a judgement which we would not preſume to paſs upon a publication ſo reſpectably vouched, without producing the moſt deciſive proofs.

This country, lying on the eaſtern coaſt of Aſia, is bounded, on the ſouth, by the river Anadir, and extends along the ſhore, to the north and north-eaſt, to 74 deg. of latitude.

Upon Captain Cook's landing, with a party of our people, at this place, thirty or forty men, each of whom was armed with a ſpontoon, a bow, and arrows, ſtood drawn up on an eminence near the houſes. Three of them came down towards the ſhore, on the approach of our people, and were ſo polite as to pull off their caps, and make them low bows. Though the civility was returned, it did not inſpire them with ſufficient confidence to wait for their landing; for, the inſtant the boats put aſhore, the natives retired. Captain Cook followed them alone, without and thing in his hand, and, by ſigns and geſtures, prevailed on them to ſtop, and accept ſome trifling preſents. In return for theſe, they gave him two fox-ſkins, and a couple of ſea-horſe teeth. The captain was of opinion, that they had brought theſe articles down with them, for the purpoſe of preſenting them to him, and that they would have given them him, even if they had expected no return.

They diſcovered manifeſt tokens of apprehenſion and fear, intimating their deſire, by ſigns, that no more of our people ſhould be ſuffered to come up. On the captain's laying his hand on the ſhoulder of one of them, he ſtarted back ſeveral paces. In proportion as he advanced, they retreated, always in the attitude of being ready to make uſe of their ſpears; while thoſe on the eminence were ready to ſupport them with their arrows. Inſenſibly, however, the captain, and two or three of his companions, introduced themſelves among them. The diſtribution of a few beads among ſome of them ſoon created a degree of confidence; ſo that they were not alarmed, when the party was joined by a few more; and, in a ſhort time, a kind of traffic was entered into. In exchange for tobacco, knives, beads, and other articles, they gave a few arrows, and ſome of their cloathing: but nothing that our people had to offer, could induce them to part with a ſpear or a bow. Theſe they held in continual readineſs, never quitting them, except at one time, when four or five perſons laid theirs down, while they favoured our people with a ſong and a dance, and even then, they placed them in ſuch a manner, that they could lay hold of them in a moment.

Their arrows were pointed either with ſtone or bone, but very few of them had barbs; and ſome of them had a round blunt point. What uſe theſe are applied to could not be determined, unleſs it be to kill ſmall animals without damaging the ſkin.

Their ſpontoons, or ſpears, were of iron or ſteel, and of European or Aſiatic workmanſhip; and conſiderable pains had been taken to embelliſh them with carving, and inlayings of braſs, and of a white metal. Thoſe who ſtood with bows and arrows in their hands, had the ſpear ſlung by a leathern ſtrap over their right ſhoulder. A leathern quiver, ſlung over their left ſhoulder, ſerved to contain arrows; and ſome of theſe quivers were exceedingly beautiful, being made of red leather, on which were very neat embroidery, and other ornaments. In this, and ſome inſtances of their cloathing, they gave proofs of a degree of ingenuity, not to be expected among the inhabitants of ſo northern a region. The natives were robuſt and well proportioned. No women or children, of either ſex, were obſerved, nor any aged perſons, except one man, whoſe head was bald, and he was the only one who bore no arms; the others ſeemed to be ſelect men, and rather under than above the middle age. The elderly man had a black mark across his face, which was not perceived in any others. All of them had their ears perforated, and ſome had glaſs beads hanging to them. Theſe were the only fixed ornaments ſeen about them, for they wore none to their lips.

The dreſs of theſe people conſiſted of a frock, a pair of breeches, a pair of boots, and a pair of gloves, all made of the ſkins of deer, dogs, ſeals, and other animals, extremely well dreſſed, ſome with the hair or fur on, and others without it. Their hair was apparently black; but their heads were either ſhaved, or their hair cut cloſe off; and none of them wore beards.

They have their winter and ſummer habitations: the former are like a vault, the floor of which is ſunk below the ſurface of the earth. One of them, examined by Captain Cook's people, was of an oval figure, about twenty feet in length, and twelve or more in height: the framing conſiſting of wood, and the ribs of whales, judiciouſly diſpoſed, and bound together with ſmaller materials of the ſame kind. Over this framing, a covering of ſtrong coarſe graſs was laid, and that again was covered with earth; ſo that on the outſide the houſe it had the appearance of a little hillock, ſupported by a wall of ſtone, of the height of three or four feet, which was built round the two ſides, and one end. At the other end of the habitation the earth was raiſed ſloping, to walk up to the entrance, which was by a hole in the top of the roof, over that end. The floor was boarded, and under it was a ſort of cellar, in which was ſeen nothing but water. At the end of each houſe was a vaulted room, which was ſuppoſed to be a ſtore-room.

Their ſummer huts were of a tolerable ſize, and brought to a kind of point at the top. Slight poles and bones, covered with the ſkins of ſea-animals, compoſed the framing. The inſide of one being examined, there was a fire-place juſt within the door, where a few wooden

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HABITATIONS *and* PEOPLE *of* TSCHUKTSCHI *on the Coast of Asia.*

Capt.n Cook's Men SHOOTING SEA HORSES *on the Ice for fresh Provision.*

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wooden veſſels were depoſited, all very dirty. Their bed-places were cloſe to the ſide, and occupied about one half of the circuit: ſome degree of privacy ſeemed to be obſerved; for there were ſeveral partitions made with ſkins. The bed and bedding conſiſted of deer ſkins, and moſt of them were clean and dry.

When a viſitor comes to ſee them, he is always preſented with the maſter of the hut's wife or daughter, who hands to him a baſon of her own urine, with which the viſitor (if among their own people) waſhes his mouth; and this he is obliged to do, or become not looked upon as a friend.

About the houſes were erected ſeveral ſtages ten or twelve feet in height. They were compoſed entirely of bones, and were apparently intended for drying their fiſh and ſkins, which were thus placed out of the reach of their dogs, of which they had great numbers. Theſe dogs are of the fox kind, rather large, and of different colours, with long ſoft hair reſembling wool. They are, in all probability, uſed for the purpoſe of drawing their ſledges in winter; for it appears that they have ſledges, as many of them were ſeen laid up in one of their winter huts. It is likewiſe not improbable, that dogs conſtitute a part of their food, for ſeveral lay dead, which had been recently killed.

The canoes of theſe people reſemble thoſe of theſe northern parts, the form being ſimple, but calculated for every uſeful purpoſe.

From the large bones of fiſh, and other ſea animals, it appeared, that the ſea furniſhed them with the greater part of their ſubſiſtence. The country ſeemed exceeding barren, as our people ſaw not a tree or ſhrub. At ſome diſtance towards the weſt they obſerved a ridge of mountains covered with ſnow, that had fallen not long before.

Such of theſe people as live to the northward of the Anadir not being under the dominion of the Ruſſians, are inimical to thoſe who are. The Ruſſians, indeed, have made many ſtrenuous but unſucceſsful efforts to bring them under a general ſubjection.

Our people, on leaving this country, ſteered to the eaſtward, in order to make a nearer approach to the American coaſt; and arriving in their paſſage at the latitude of 70 deg. 6 min. north, ſaw an amazing number of ſea horſes on the ice, and as they were in want of freſh proviſions, the boats were diſpatched from each ſhip to procure ſome. Nine of theſe animals were brought on board the Reſolution, which, till this time, were ſuppoſed to have been ſea cows, nor would the difference have been known, had not two or three men on board, who had been in Greenland, declared what animals theſe were, and that no perſon ever eat of them. Notwithſtanding this, they ſerved for proviſions, and there were few of our people who did not prefer them to ſalt meat.

The fat of theſe animals, at firſt, is as ſweet as marrow; but, in a few days, it becames rancid, unleſs it is ſalted, in which ſtate it will keep much longer. The lean fleſh is coarſe and blackiſh, and has a ſtrong taſte; and the heart is almoſt as well taſted as that of a bullock. The fat, when melted, affords a great quantity of oil, which burns very well in lamps; and their hides, which are of great thickneſs, were very uſeful about the rigging. The teeth, or tuſks, of moſt of them were, at this time, of a very ſmall ſize; even ſome of the largeſt and oldeſt of theſe animals had them not exceeding ſix inches in length. Hence it was concluded that they had lately ſhed their old teeth.

They lie upon the ice in herds of many hundreds, huddling, like ſwine, one over the other; and they roar very loud; ſo that in the night, or when the weather was very foggy, they gave our people notice of the vicinity of the ice, before they could diſcern it. It was never found that the whole herd were aſleep at the ſame time, ſome of them being conſtantly on the watch. Theſe, on the approach of the boat, would awake thoſe that were next to them; and the alarm being thus gradually communicated, the whole herd would preſently be awake. However, they were ſeldom in a hurry to get away, before they had been once fired at. Then they would fall into the ſea, one over the other in the utmoſt confuſion, and, if our people did not happen, at the firſt diſcharge, to kill thoſe they fired at, they generally loſt them, though mortally wounded.

They did not appear to be ſo dangerous as ſome authors have repreſented them, not even when they were attacked. They are, indeed, more ſo in appearance, than in reality. Vaſt multitudes of them would follow, and come cloſe up to the boats; but the flaſh of a muſket in the pan, or even the mere pointing one at them, would ſend them down in a moment. The female will defend her young ones to the very laſt, and at the expence of her own life, whether upon the ice or in the water.

There appeared ſome ſtriking inſtances of parental affection in theſe animals. All of them, on the approach of the boats towards the ice, took their young ones under their fins, and attempted to eſcape with them into the ſea. Some, whoſe cubs were killed or wounded, and left floating upon the ſurface of the water, roſe again, and carried them down, ſometimes juſt as our men were on the point of taking them into the boat; and could be traced bearing them to a conſiderable diſtance through the water, which was ſtained with their blood. They were afterwards obſerved bringing them, at intervals, above the ſurface, as if for air, and again plunging under it, with a horrid bellowing. The female, in particular, whoſe young one had been killed, and taken into the boat, became ſo furious, that ſhe even ſtruck her two tuſks through the bottom of the cutter.

Nor will the young one quit the dam though ſhe has been killed; ſo that if you deſtroy one you are ſure of the other. The dam, when in the water, holds her young one between her fore fins.

Why this animal ſhould be called a ſea-horſe is difficult to determine, unleſs the word is a corruption of the Ruſſian name *Morſe*; for they do not in the leaſt reſemble a horſe. It is, doubtleſs, the ſame animal that is found in the Gulph of St. Lawrence, and there called a ſea-cow. It is certainly more like a cow than a horſe; but this reſemblance conſiſts in nothing but the ſnout. In ſhort, it is an animal not unlike a ſeal, but incomparably larger. The length of one of them, which was none of the largeſt, was nine feet four inches from the ſnout to the tail; the circumference of its body at the ſhoulder was ſeven feet ten inches; its circumference near the hinder fins was five feet ſix inches, and the weight of the carcaſe, without the head, ſkin, or entrails, was eight hundred and fifty-four pounds. The head weighed forty-one pounds and an half, and the ſkin two hundred and five pounds.

Captain Cook's people, in a ſhort time began to reliſh theſe animals, ſo that the whole ſtock they had procured was ſoon expended.

SECTION V.

Deſcription of Toboiſki, Neiwanſkoi, Tomſkoy, and other Places in the Country of Siberia.

THE capital of this country is Toboliki. It is ſituated in 58 deg. north latitude, and 67 deg. eaſt longitude. It contains about 15,000 inhabitants, the greateſt part of which are Ruſſians, or ſuch as are naturalized. Among the latter are ſeveral Mahometan Tartars, who moſtly live without the city, to avoid interruption in performing the ceremonies of their religion. Theſe carry on a conſiderable trade up the river Irtiſch, and convey merchandize acroſs Great Tartary quite to China. The city is well fortified, and maintains a ſtrong garriſon, under the command of the waywode, or governor of the province, whoſe prerogative extends almoſt throughout Siberia. There is a court of equity eſtabliſhed for the regulation of both civil

civil and military concerns. There is a convent and ſeveral churches, as well as an edifice for the reſidence of the Muſcovite metropolitan, whoſe dioceſe extends over the greateſt part of the province. It is, however, to be obſerved, that to prevent the governor from perverting his power, there is a protector, who ranks next to him, but yet is ſo far independant of him, that no point of equity can be finally decided without his acquieſcence. Moſt part of the officers, both in the civil and military departments of government, are ſent hither from the cities of Moſcow and Peterſburg.

The city of Tobolſki, at the diſtance of about an Engliſh mile, preſents an agreeable view, from the radiance of a number of ſmall ſteeples covered with braſs; but on a nearer approach the ſcene vaniſhes; and the only buildings worthy of the leaſt notice are, the palaces of the governor and archbiſhop, the town-hall, and a kind of citadel.

Neiwanſkoi, in the province of Tobolſki, is worthy of mention, as having a fort; producing valuable braſs and copper utenſils, and conſiderable iron works in its vicinity.

There is alſo, in the province above mentioned, a city called Catherineburg, ſituated on the river Iſet, and well defended. Here is a church, a ſtone building for public offices, an arſenal, an exchange, and a cuſtom-houſe. The director of the Siberian mines takes up his reſidence here, as the central ſpot; and the ſuburbs are chiefly inhabited by people who toil in the mines, or are tranſported hither on criminal conviction. Proviſions, in general, are plentiful and cheap.

In the ſame province, on the river Tura, to the ſouthward, is a place called Tiumen, where there is a ſtone fort; and without it are five hundred houſes, ſix churches, and a convent. One part of the ſuburbs of Tiumen contain about two hundred and fifty houſes, three ſtone churches, and a monaſtery. The others are inhabited by the Mahometan Tartars and Bacharians, as well as Ruſſians, who have a church, as have the former a moſque.

Tomſkoy, the capital of a province of that name, is a ſtrong frontier place, ſituated on the river Tora, and containing about two thouſand houſes. In the higheſt part of it ſtands the caſtle, built of wood, with fourteen pieces of cannon. There are alſo in it a cathedral, a court of equity, an arſenal, four churches, a monaſtery, and a nunnery. Proviſions abound here, and a conſiderable trade is carried on by the inhabitants.

Narim, the capital alſo of a province of the ſame name, has a ſtrong fortreſs, garriſoned by the coſſacks, and is ſituated on the river Oby.

Polhem, a town ſituated on a river flowing into the Tobol, is pretty well inhabited, and defended by a fortreſs.

The capital of the province of Jeniſei is Jeneiſeiſk, a city of conſiderable trade, containing three churches, a monaſtery, a nunnery, an exchange, and about ſeven or eight hundred houſes.

Irkutſk, the capital of a province of the ſame name, and a biſhop's ſee, is ſituated near the river Angara, and defended by a fortreſs. It contains about two thouſand good houſes, ſurrounded by palliſadoes, and four churches, two built with ſtone, and two with wood.

Before we cloſe this part of the account, we ſhall juſt hint, that there are ſeveral ſmall villages upon the banks of the river Oby, ſo ſituated as to afford moſt pleaſing proſpects, as well as agreeable ſubjects for landſcapes. From among the reſt we ſhall ſelect Shorſkrrſkoi, Pagoſt, and Trojeſki, and preſent perſpective views of them in the courſe of our plates.

SECTION VI.

Of the Ruſſian Inhabitants of Siberia, their Genius, Manners, Cuſtoms, &c.

IF it be admitted as a maxim, according to the opinion of ſome philoſophers, that the differences obvious in various countries, with reſpect to genius, manners, and cuſtoms, ariſe from education, and the different conſtitutions of governments, we may eaſily account for thoſe of the people we are about to deſcribe, and impute them, with the utmoſt propriety, to the mode of government under which they live. The Ruſſians, throughout every province and part, whether in Europe or Aſia, have an evident ſimilarity of genius, manners, and cuſtoms, agreeable to the argument uſed upon this occaſion.

Theſe people, as the conſtitution tends to oppreſs, and keep them under ſlavery and miſery, ſeem addicted to many vices. From the extreme rigour of their climate, they are ſhut up in hovels the greateſt part of the year; and, through the prevalence of ſloth and idleneſs, live in a manner filthy beyond conception. The ſtench and inconvenience of thoſe hovels muſt be greatly augmented by their being compelled, through the inclemency of the weather, to exclude the freſh air; notwithſtanding which diſadvantage, the natives, in general, are robuſt, muſcular, and live to a great age. Mortality, indeed, prevails among the children, particularly thoſe of the common people, of whoſe families ſcarcely one third part is ever preſerved. This is imputed to the deſtructive effects of the ſmall-pox, ſcurvy, and other diſeaſes, inſomuch, that it is the concurring opinion of travellers, that unleſs ſome meaſure is adopted to ſtop their progreſs, the human ſpecies in this part of the world will be ſoon be nearly extinct.

The features of the women in general in this country are not diſagreeable, though painting is practiſed by all ranks and ages. The women of Tobolſki are repreſented as excelling both in features and complexion; as captivating in their look, and attractive in their mode of dreſs, having eyes black and languiſhing, and adopting a mode of head-dreſs both graceful and ornamental. They obſerve a diſtinction in point of age; the elder women following the Ruſſian faſhion, and the younger wearing a Ruſſian robe in the manner of the Polanders.

Their hair hangs down from each ſide, or behind; their caps are ſtrait, adorned with fringes made of ſtuffs, the produce of the place, and curiouſly interwoven.

Their principal houſhold furniture conſiſts in their beds, of which perſons of rank in Tobolſki have ſeldom more than two, one for the huſband and wife, the other for the children, the reſt of the family ſleeping promiſcuouſly upon benches or mats.

That ſpecies of refined love which ſeems to diſtinguiſh the natives of our clime is here neither known or felt, as the ſavage breaſt cannot be ſuſceptible of it. The women are patient under the correction of their lordly huſbands; and ſuch is the prevalence of cuſtom over the manners of theſe people, that they are repreſented as courting the hand of chaſtiſement, as a token and indication of affection. No wonder, then, that the ſofter ſex are treated like ſlaves, and aſſigned the moſt menial and ſervile offices, where every delicate ſentiment is baniſhed, and the diſpoſition of the native is as rugged as the climate.

Notwithſtanding the rough behaviour of the men in general towards their wives, they treat their daughters with great indulgence. Though they think the attention of married women ſhould be wholly engroſſed by their huſbands, they admit of the propriety of allowing a licence to girls, in order to afford them an opportunity of becoming wives; and the young females ſeldom neglect to avail themſelves of the indulgence.

Among the liberties allowed the young women of this country, is that of dancing. Both ſexes are very expert in theſe exerciſes, and frequently exceed the bounds of decency and moderation both in expreſſions and geſtures. They have alſo other modes of amuſement, as ſwinging upon planks balanced acroſs beams, and putting themſelves into mimic and groteſque poſtures, many tending to laſcivious purpoſes, and evincing a total diſſoluteneſs of manners.

In a country where the inhabitants are contracted in their ideas, enſlaved in mind and perſon, and debarred

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the freedom of word and action, which conſtitutes the glory and happineſs of a Briton, the pleaſures of ſociety and friendſhip can be little known. In Siberia, therefore, the contrary principles of reſervedneſs moſtly prevail; the mind is rendered as callous as the body; ſo that neither the one or the other can be duly impreſſed by principles of humanity, the grand baſis of ſocial enjoyment.

Tho' the inhabitants in general of Siberia profeſs the religion of the Greek church, and are bigotted in the extreme to its rites and ceremonies, they are addicted to various ſpecies of vice and immorality. Not only a general ignorance prevails among the clergy, but a propenſity to libertiniſm and inebriation. But as there are no rules without exception, and a whole body ſhould by no means incur cenſure or odium from a diſagreeable repreſentation of a party, we are bound, in juſtice and candour, to obſerve, that there are among them men of literary abilities, and irreproachable characters. The depravity and ignorance of the ſacerdotal order of this people may ariſe from their want of education, as the higher rank here never enter into the prieſthood, ſo that there is no immediate ſtate in the body of eccleſiaſtics; it being compoſed of the common people, or the ſons of the clergy, who are too frequently the moſt diſſolute.

Having given this conciſe deſcription of the genius, manners, and cuſtoms, of the inhabitants of the dreary clime of Siberia, we ſhall cloſe a ſcene that cannot but thrill the ſoul with horror, and excite in the breaſts of all whoſe lot is caſt upon a ſpot fertile, free, and ſocial, the warmeſt emotions of gratitude to the grand diſpoſer of all things, and will, we truſt, inſpire ſuch ſentiments and influence to ſuch practices, as the knowledge of men and things, the grand aim of all literary purſuits, naturally tends to promote.

CHAP. II.

KAMSCHATKA.

SECTION I.

General Account, Geographical Deſcription, Rivers, Soil, and Climate.

THE peninſula called Kamſchatka is bounded, on the eaſt, by that part of the ocean which ſeparates it from America; on the weſt, by the ſea of Okotſk; on the north, by the country of the Koriacks; and on the ſouth, by the Northern Pacific Ocean. It is divided into two parts by a chain of hills ſtretching from north to ſouth, and from which many rivers derive their ſource, and diſcharge themſelves into the Pacific Ocean, and the ſea of Okotſk. Its latitude is from 52 deg. to 65 deg. north; and its longitude 156 deg. 45 min. eaſt; that is from its ſouthern extremity, which is Cape Lopatka, ſo denominated from a word ſignifying the blade-bone of a man, to which it is thought by ſome to bear a reſemblance. According to the late diſcoveries, the form and ſhape of this peninſula is like that of a ſhoe, widening from the toe towards the middle, and narrowing towards the heel, an iſthmus, lying between the gulph of Olutorſk and the gulph of Penſhink, connecting it with the continent. Its greateſt breadth, extending from the river Tigil to that of Kamſchatka, is computed at 236 miles, from whence it contracts by degrees towards each extremity.

It has many rivers, but the principal are the Awatſka, the Kamſchatka, and Bolchoireka. The firſt derives its ſource from the mountains ſituated between the Bolchoireka and a leſs conſiderable river called the Biſtraia, and maintaining a courſe of one hundred miles, from north-weſt to ſouth-eaſt, falls into the bay of Awatſka. The river Kamſchatka, after winding about three hundred miles from ſouth to north, veers about to the eaſtward, and in that courſe empties itſelf into the ocean. The Bolchoireka, or Great River, ſo called from *bolcheia*, ſignifying great, and *reka*, a river, diſcharges itſelf into the ſea of Okotſk, and is navigable for the Ruſſian galliots, for the ſpace of upwards of five leagues. The lakes in this country are extenſive and numerous.

With reſpect to the ſoil, climate, natives, manners, cuſtoms, &c. of this part of the globe, the moſt accurate and ample account is evidently compriſed in that part of the journal of the voyage to the Pacific Ocean, which, on the demiſe of the ingenious but unfortunate Captain Cook, was written by Captain King. This, therefore, as moſt minute and circumſtantial, as well as of more latent date than any extant, and conſequently more conducive to the information and entertainment of our readers, will be our main directory in the courſe of the preſent deſcription.

Captain King obſerves, that, from the firſt view of the vegetable productions of this northern clime, he was induced to pronounce it barren in the extreme; as, after ſeveral reſearches, upon divers occaſions, he could not deſcry the ſmalleſt track that exhibited the verdure of what, in England, is called a good green turf, or ſeemed capable of cultivation, for the purpoſe either of grain or paſturage. The whole vegetable proſpect ſeemed confined to ſtunted trees; and the whole country itſelf to reſemble Newfoundland, more than any other hitherto obſerved.

After this melancholy view, the gloom was diſperſed on ſeeing, at a place called Paratounca, ſeveral ſtacks of ſweet and fine looking hay. Information was received from a Ruſſian officer, that many parts of the peninſula, particularly the banks of the river Kamſchatka, were ſo fertile as to produce graſs of conſiderable growth, which they cut twice in the courſe of the ſummer; and moreover, that the hay was of a nutritive quality, and particularly adapted to paſturage. This information, indeed, was confirmed by the ſize and fatneſs of ſeveral heads of cattle that were ſent for the ſupply of the Britiſh mariners; and it was particularly noticed, that the firſt ſupply arrived at the cloſe of the winter, and therefore that the ground being then not freed from the ſnow, the hay had been the only food of the cattle for the ſeven preceding months.

Agreeable to this deſcription, *Kraſchenicoff*, a Ruſſian traveller, affirms, that there is no part of the country ſo fertile, as that which borders on the river Kamſchatka, inferring, from experiments made in the cultivation of divers ſpecies of grain in that neighbourhood, its ſuperiority in point of ſoil and climate, to the northern and ſouthern parts, ſince it yielded a very extraordinary increaſe. The fertility of this particular ſpot has been attributed to its ſituation, being in the wideſt part of the peninſula, and of courſe more remote from the ſea.

Our Britiſh navigators explored this country the beginning of May 1779, when a deep ſnow covered the whole face of it, and rendered abortive every attempt of the men to cut wood, for the moſt neceſſary purpoſes of firing and food. On the 12th the thaw began to advance greatly, and facilitate their efforts. The ſnow was then melted from ſome places on the ſides of the hills, and, by the beginning of June, the low lands were in general freed from it. Towards the middle of Auguſt, vegetation here ſeemed to be in the higheſt

perfection; during the remainder of which month, and throughout September, the weather was mild, though changeable. But October no ſooner came in, than the new fallen ſnow overſpread the hills, as an omen of the return of that inclement ſeaſon peculiar to the clime.

Spring cannot be admitted into the account of its ſeaſons; nor can ſummer be ſaid to contain a ſpace longer than from the middle of June to the middle of September; while autumn is confined to October alone; and ſtern winter engroſſes the whole from that period to the middle of June.

So rigorous is this climate, and ſo intenſe the cold, that our ſhips were frequently cloſed in with ſolid maſſes of ice, to which they could perceive no limits from the maſt-head.

The principal town of Kamſchatka is Bolcheretſk, the reſidence of the Ruſſian Governor. It is ſituated in a low ſwampy plain, exceeding to the ſea of Okotſk. It lies north of the river Bolcheireka, and in a peninſula, which has been ſeparated from the continent by a large canal.

SECTION III.

Natural Hiſtory. Volcanos. Hot Springs. Productions, Vegetable, Animal, Mineral, &c.

IN Kamſchatka there are many volcanos, but only three deſerving of notice. The firſt is that of Awatika, to the northward of the bay of that name. It is a ridge of hills, the baſe of which extends to the bay. The middle is of an amphitheatrical form, the ſummits are ſpiral, and cannot be viewed without amazement and horror. They always emit ſmoke, but ſeldom fire. In the ſummer of the year 1737 was a terrible eruption of this volcano, which, for one day, emitted ſmoke, and cinders weighing near two pounds. It was followed by a tremendous earthquake in the enſuing October, which, in a very ſhort ſpace of time, was attended with the moſt alarming and deſtructive effects to the inhabitants.

The ſecond volcano iſſues from mountains ſituated between the river of Kamſchatka and that of Toboiſki. That from the ſummit of which the eruption proceeds is lofty, and terminates in ſpiral rocks. Nothing happened remarkable concerning this volcano, till the year 1739, when it iſſued a torrent of flames, that deſtroyed all the neighbouring country. The Ruſſian traveller Kratſchennicoff, relates, that the eruption was preceded by a rumbling noiſe in the woodlands, which he thought threatened a dreadful ſtorm, till three diſtinct ſhocks, at intervals of about a minute each, convinced him of the real cauſe, as well as obſtructed the proſecution of a journey he had undertaken.

The third volcano iſſues from the top of the higheſt mountain in the peninſula of Kamſchatka. It emits continually a combuſtible ſmoke, and ſometimes large cinders. The moſt remarkable eruption began September the 24th, 1732, and continued a week, which, with an earthquake that followed it, produced ſuch violent and dreadful effects, as are ſtill remembered with horror by ſome of the inhabitants.

There are many hot ſprings in this country, but one of them is very remarkable. It is ſituated at a ſmall diſtance from a village called Natcheelin. There ariſes a ſteam from it, as from a boiling cauldron; and our people, on approaching it, perceived a ſtrong ſulphurous effluvia. A baſon, of about three feet in diameter, is formed by the main ſpring; beſides which, there are ſeveral ſprings, of equal heat, in the adjacent ground; by which means the whole ſpot, conſiſting of about an acre, was ſo very hot, that it was impoſſible to remain two minutes in the ſame place.

Our people were informed by the natives, that great cures had been effected by this bath, in rheumatiſms, ſcorbutic ulcers, ſwelled and contracted joints, and many other diſorders. Where theſe ſprings flow, the ground is on a gentle aſcent, having a green hill of a moderate ſize behind it. Some plants ſeemed to thrive here with great luxuriance, amongſt which was the wild garlick.

There is a mountain ſituated near a river, called Patudja, from the ſummit of which falls a cataract of boiling water with a tremendous noiſe. Thence proceeding for a conſiderable ſpace, it bubbles up the height of a foot, till it is diſcharged into ſeveral lakes, upon which are many iſlands. This mountain produces ſtones of colours beautifully variegated, which, though the mere effect of the operation of the different powers of heat, humidity, and friction, are held in high eſtimation by the natives.

In this peninſula is choice of timber, adapted to various purpoſes; ſhrubs of divers kinds, and ſeveral excellent plants of medicinal qualities. Of the chief of theſe we ſhall treat diſtinctly, according to the tenor of the directory we hold in view.

The trees, of which the nature, qualities, and uſe, are particularly mentioned, are the birch and the alder. The bark of the laſt is uſed for ſtaining leather. Of the birch, which, according to the account of our lateſt circumnavigators, was the moſt common that came under their notice, they obſerved three kinds. Two of them are fit for timber, and vary only in the texture and colour of the bark. The third is low in ſtature. The natives convert this tree to a diverſity of purpoſes. They drink, without mixture, the liquor which it yields, on tapping, in great abundance: and our countrymen, upon trial, found it pleaſant and refreſhing, but rather purgative. Veſſels, appropriated to domeſtic uſes in general, are made of the bark; and of the wood are formed their ſledges and canoes.

Various are the ſhrubs of this country, and as various their productions. There are the juniper, the mountain-aſh, the wild roſe-tree, the raſberry buſh, together with a variety of other buſhes, bearing blue-berries of two kinds, oval and round, partridge-berries, cran-berries, crow-berries, and black-berries, which the natives pluck at proper ſeaſons, and preſerve by boiling them into a conſiſtence, but without ſugar. Theſe berries form a conſiderable part of their winter ſtore, and afford a ſauce to their dried and ſalt fiſh. They are powerful correctives of this ſaline food, ſalutary in many other reſpects, and afford a deteſtation for their common drink.

Wild celery, angelica, chervil, garlick, onions, with other wholeſome productions of the vegetable kind, were likewiſe diſcovered upon this ſpot; and ſcattered here and there good turnips and turnip-radiſhes. Tho' this appeared the utmoſt extent of what may be called the garden culture, it is thence reaſonable to infer, that many common and uſeful articles, ſuch as carrots, parſnips, beet, and the like, as well as potatoes, might be raiſed on the ſame ſoil, and in the ſame degree of perfection.

As the above account, of vegetable productions is confined to the particular ſpots that fell within the notice of the navigators under immediate conſideration, it is proper to obſerve, that the cultivation of gardens is more generally and aſſiduouſly attended to in the neighbourhood of the river Kamſchatka, the moſt fertile part of the country, (as before obſerved,) and evidently with very conſiderable advantage. But we paſs on to the deſcription of two plants, which, from their ſingular utility, muſt not be unnoticed. Of theſe the fruit is called by the natives *ſarana*. The flow, which is about the ſize of that of the tulip, and riſes about the height of five inches, is of a purple colour towards the bottom, and green higher up. There ſprouts from it two tiers of leaves, of an oval ſhape; the lower conſiſting of three leaves, the uppermoſt of four, in the form of a croſs. A ſingle flower, of a dark red colour, like that of the narciſſus, only much ſmaller, grows from the top of the ſtalk. The root is bulbous, and reſembles, in form, that of garlick, being much of the ſame ſize, but more round, and having likewiſe four or five cloves hanging together.

together. The plant ſprings up without culture, and is found in vaſt plenty. It is the province of the women to gather the roots in the beginning of Auguſt, dry them in the ſun, and preſerve them for the winter's proviſion. The harveſt ſometimes proving ſcanty ſuggeſted a remark on the ſingular bounty of Providence towards theſe people, as it was obſervable, that thoſe ſeaſons in which they failed of a complete ſupply of *ſarana*, were ever moſt favourable for fiſhing; and, on the contrary, that a deficiency in the latter inſtance, was always compenſated by a redundance in the former. The *ſarana* is uſed in cookery, and various ways: being baked and powdered, it is a good ſubſtitute for meal of every kind. It is very nutritive, has an agreeable flavour, and does not pall the appetite. This uſeful plant grows alſo at Onalaſhka, and makes an eſſential part of the diet of the natives, as it does of thoſe of Kamſchatka.

The other plant which merits particular attention is called the *ſweet-graſs*. It fell under the obſervation of our navigators in the month of May, being then about the height of a foot and a half, covered with a white down, reſembling the hoar-froſt, and eaſily ſtaken off. The taſte is very ſweet, though warm and pungent. The ſtalk is hollow, and conſiſts of four joints, from each of which ſpring large leaves. It is ſix feet high when in a ſtate of maturity.

The natives formerly uſed this plant chiefly in cookery; but ſince the country became ſubject to the Ruſſians, it has been converted to the purpoſe of diſtillation. Having been collected and duly prepared by the women, the ſpirit is extracted from it by the following proceſs. They firſt ſteep bundles of it in hot water, then ferment it in a veſſel, by means of the berries of the *gimoloſt*, or of the *golubitſa*, being careful to cloſe up the porous parts of the veſſel, and keep it in a warm place during the time of fermentation, which is generally attended with a conſiderable noiſe, and agitation of the veſſel which contains it. Having drawn off the firſt liquor, they pour on more hot, and proceed to a ſecond fermentation in the ſame manner. This done, both herbs and liquor are put into a copper ſtill, and the ſpirit is extracted by the uſual mode of diſtillation. The liquor thus produced is as ſtrong as any of our ſpirits, and called by the natives *rake*.

Notwithſtanding, from what has been obſerved, it may be preſumed, that the cultivation of this peninſula might be ſo improved, as to conduce more eſſentially to the benefit of the inhabitants than in its preſent ſtate, it muſt be acknowledged, that its opulence conſiſts in the animals it produces, and that no labour is ſo beneficial to them, as that of their furrieries; ſo that we proceed to the deſcription of the animals that reſpectively furniſh the ſame.

The country abounds with foxes, which are of different colours, and the moſt general objects of purſuit. Their fur is ſuperior in quality to thoſe in any other part of Siberia or all America. The dark-chefnut and blue-breaſted foxes are in general ſo crafty as to elude the artifices of the hunters, their ſagacity exceeding that of the other ſpecies. Bows and arrows were uſed in the chace by the Kamſchadales, before the Ruſſians viſited their country; but ſince they introduced fire-arms, almoſt every individual is furniſhed with a rifle-barrel gun, which, though they are by no means expert markſmen, are found much ſuperior to the former weapons of the chace.

The grand ſource of wealth of this peninſula may be ſaid to be derived from the *zibiline*, or ſable. Thoſe found near the rivers Tigil and Ouka are deemed the beſt. They are ſold at a high price, and exceed thoſe of any other part of the globe. The fleſh is eſteemed very delicate food by the natives. In hunting for theſe animals is uſed a rifle-barrel gun, to ſhoot them on the trees; a net to ſurround the hollow trees in which they take refuge; and a number of bricks put heated into the cavities to ſmoak them out.

According to the account of our lateſt navigators, the *ſhouta*, or ermine, is not much valued, and neglected by the hunters becauſe the fur is deemed but ordinary. The fur of the *gulo*, or glutton, is here held in the higheſt eſtimation, and conſidered by the natives as the principal ornament of their attire.

There are black and white bears; the firſt are very common. It is obſerved by travellers, that thoſe animals never attack a man, unleſs they find him aſleep, when they tear the ſcalp off the back part of his head, and ſometimes deſtroy him. Their ſkins are converted to divers purpoſes of dreſs and furniture, and their fleſh conſidered as a delicious repaſt.

Two white bears appearing in the water, ſome of our people immediately purſued them in the jolly boat, and were ſo fortunate as to kill them both. The larger one, which was in all probability the dam of the younger, being ſhot, the other would not leave it, though it might have eſcaped with eaſe on the ice, while the men were re-loading their muſkets; but continued ſwimming about till, after having been ſeveral times fired upon, it was ſhot dead. The length of the larger one, from the ſnout to the end of the tail, was ſeven feet two inches; its circumference, near the fore legs, was four feet ten inches; the height of the ſhoulders was four feet three inches; and the breadth of the fore-paw was ten inches. The weight of its four quarters was four hundred and thirty-ſix pounds. The four quarters of the ſmalleſt weighed two hundred and fifty-ſix pounds.

Theſe animals furniſhed ſome good meals of freſh meat. Their fleſh, indeed, had a ſtrong fiſhy taſte, but was infinitely ſuperior to that of the ſea-horſe; which, however, our people were perſuaded, with no great difficulty, to prefer to their ſalted proviſions.

In the foreſts are wolves, as well as lynxes, boars, elks, and a kind of ſtag reſembling the fallow-deer. There is alſo the rein-deer, both wild and tame, in ſeveral parts of the peninſula; and it has been deemed matter of wonder, that the inhabitants have never, after the example of their neighbours to the north and eaſtward, availed themſelves of theſe animals for the convenience of carriage. The only ſpecious cauſe that can be aſſigned is, that their dogs are of great utility in drawing their ſledges over the ſnow; nor do they ſcarcely ever looſe their way in the moſt ſevere and gloomy ſeaſon. Towards the end of May they are releaſed from their labour, and left to provide for themſelves during the ſummer; and what appears extraordinary, as ſoon as the ſnow begins to fall, they return to their reſpective owners. Their winter food conſiſts entirely of the head, entrails, and back-bones of ſalmon, which are reſerved and dried for the purpoſe. They are remarkable for being of extraordinary ſize and ſtrength.

The earleſs marmot, or mountain rat, is a beautiful creature, much ſmaller than a ſquirrel, and, like that animal, feeds upon roots and berries, ſitting upon its hind legs whilſt it eats, and holding the food to its mouth with the paw. Like the plumage of ſome birds, when it is viewed in different lights, it appears to be of various colours.

The laſt animal we ſhall mention is the *argali*, or wild mountain-ſheep, with which, though ſuppoſed unknown in Europe (except in Corſica and Sardinia) this country abounds. In ſkin it reſembles the deer; but in gait and general appearance the goat. The horns are remarkable, being not only twiſted, but weighing, when at full growth, from twenty-five to thirty pounds, which, in running, the animal reſts upon its back. They are converted to divers neceſſary uſes, and particularly ſpoons, cups, and platters. Their fleſh affords very agreeable and nouriſhing food.

Kamſchatka abounds with birds of various kinds, as eagles, hawks, pelicans, ſwans, geeſe, wildgeons, ducks, cuckows, magpies, ſnipes, partridges, &c. There is alſo a great variety of ſea-fowl on the coaſt and bays of this country: as, the ſea-eagle, and a kind of wild duck of beautiful plumage; it has a moſt ſingular cry, ſo expreſſive and melodious, that a muſical traveller took a ſcale from it, adapted to the word *a-an-gatche*, a name given by the natives to expreſs its cry.

According

According to the Ruſſian voyagers a great variety of amphibious animals are found on this coaſt. There is the ſea-cow, of prodigious length, and immenſe bulk, with a ſkin almoſt impenetrable. The fleſh, when young, is agreeable to the palate. This animal is caught by an iron hook ſtruck into it by ſome men in a ſmall veſſel, after which it is drawn gradually to the land by a rope held by people on ſhore, while thoſe in the veſſel tear the creature with inſtruments in ſeveral parts of the body till it expires. There are alſo ſea-horſes and ſea-cats. Of the latter the male and female differs ſo much in form and diſpoſition, that they might be taken for different animals. The male is of hideous aſpect, and ferocious in the extreme; the female, mild, inoffenſive and timid.

The Bay of Awatſka abounds with ſeals, which are taken by various artifices. They are ſaid to purſue the fiſh which are their prey into freſh water, and to be found in moſt lakes near the ſea.

Sea otters are ſaid to have abounded formerly in this peninſula; but ſince the Ruſſians have opened a trade for their ſkins to China, where they fetch a very high price, by thoſe means the country is almoſt clear of them.

The grand article of life in this peninſula is fiſh, with which it is ſupplied in ſo abundant a degree as to merit the appellation of the "ſtaff of life." They derive, indeed, very ſalutary effects from divers wholeſome roots and berries, that act as correctives to thoſe putreſcant qualities with which their dried fiſh muſt be neceſſarily attended. Here are whales from ſeven to fifteen fathom long, which are converted to a variety of uſes. The ſkin anſwers the ſame purpoſes as leather does in England, being appropriated to making ſhoes, ſtraps, thongs, and other neceſſary articles. They eat the fleſh and preſerve the fat for culinary uſes, and the ſupply of their lamps. In ſhort, the whiſkers, bones, entrails, nerves, veins, and other parts, have their particular uſes, as proofs of the bounty of Providence diſplayed in every quarter of the globe.

They have vaſt quantities of excellent flat fiſh of divers kinds, as alſo trout and herrings. The latter, about the cloſe of May, ſwarm upon the coaſt, but do not remain long. The cod ſeaſon comes in with the month of June, and that fiſh ſerves for a winter ſtore. But the chief dependance of the natives of Kamſchatka is the ſalmon fiſhery. Of this delicate fiſh naturaliſts inform us, there are all the different ſpecies to be found on the coaſt. They are in great variety with reſpect to ſize and colour, and each diſtinct ſpecies is confined to the ſame river in which they were bred. The Kamſchadales, hold the ſalmon in a degree of veneration, and we are informed by our voyagers, that when they preſented them with one of the firſt caught in the ſeaſon, they were given to underſtand, it was the greateſt compliment they could poſſibly pay them. The ſtore ſalmon is moſtly dried, but rarely ſalted. It is eaten either whole or reduced to powder, and in each ſtate is agreeable to the palate. The head, entrails, bones, &c. are reſerved for the winter proviſion for dogs, which, in that inclement ſeaſon, draw their ſledges. It is to be obſerved, that ſhoals of fiſh harbour in the different rivers of Kamſchatka during this ſeaſon, which, when the ice begins to break, attempt to get to ſea. But the natives watch the opportunity, and take great numbers in nets prepared for the purpoſe; ſome they dry and reſerve for food, and from others they extract oil, which they appropriate to divers neceſſary purpoſes.

With reſpect to inſects, there are clouds of locuſts, gnats, and dragon flies. The latter greatly annoy the inhabitants.

In many parts of this peninſula mines of iron and copper have been diſcovered. The iron ore has been found to be compact, of a yellow hue tinged with red, and in ſome parts black metalic particles have been obſerved more compact than the reſt of the ore. The ore, in its crude ſtate, could not be attracted by the load ſtone, but became ſo, in a ſmall degree when calcined. The copper mines are, in moſt reſpects, like ſome of thoſe on the Raphæan mountains, the ore being of a beautiful colour, and capable of being poliſhed.

SECTION IV.

Of the natives; their origin, diſcovery, numbers and preſent ſtate. Ruſſian commerce.

THE people now inhabiting Kamſchatka may be conſidered as forming three diſtinct nations. The native, or Kamſchadales, who dwell in the ſouthern part of the peninſula: the Koreki, who inhabit the northern part; and the Kuriles, who occupy the iſlands extending ſouthward of Japan.

An ingenious traveller, ſome time reſident in this country, after much inveſtigation, affirms, that the true Kamſchadales have, for many ages, peopled this peninſula, and that they derived their origin from the Mungalians.

The firſt diſcovery of Kamſchatka is attributed to Feodot Alexeieff, a Ruſſian merchant, who, in company with ſeven other veſſels, ſailed nearly round the peninſula of the Tſchutſki about the year 1648. It is ſaid, that loſing ſight of the reſt in a ſtorm, he was driven by ſtreſs of weather upon the coaſt of Kamſchatka, where he wintered, and that the enſuing ſummer he ſailed about the promontory of Lopatka into the ſea of Okotſk, and entered the mouth of the Tigil, but that he and his companions were cut off in attempting to paſs from thence by land to the Anadirſk. As theſe diſcoverers, however, did not ſurvive the attempt, and could not poſſibly make any report of their tranſactions, Volodimir Atlaſſoff, a Coſſack, ſtands for the firſt acknowledged diſcoverer of this peninſula.

Being ſent from the fort of Jakutſk in the year 1697, as commiſſary from the Ruſſians, for the purpoſe of exploring and ſubjecting theſe remote countries, he penetrated, in the year 1699, into the heart of the peninſula, gained the Tigil, and having exacted a tribute of furs, croſſed from thence to the river Kamſchatka, on which he built a town called Verchenei, where he left a garriſon of ſixteen Coſſacks, and returned to the fort of Jakutſk in 1700, with an immenſe tribute of the choiceſt furs.

At length Atlaſſoff fell into diſgrace, was ſeized on at Jakutſk, and thrown into priſon, in conſequence of a remonſtrance to the Ruſſian court from the proprietors of a bark laden with Chineſe merchandiſe, which he had met with on the river Tunguſki, and pillaged.

During his confinement ſeveral commiſſaries were ſent into Kamſchatka with various ſucceſs, till at length, in 1706, he was reinſtated in his command, and being ſent upon a ſecond expedition to Kamſchatka, perverted the power veſted in him, and by acts of complicated cruelty and injuſtice not only excited the averſion of the people to their governors in general, but cauſed his own Coſſacks to mutiny, and inſiſt on the appointment of another commander. The Coſſacks having gained their point in the degradation of their countryman, not only ſeized upon his effects, but proceeded to a general plunder, laid aſide all reſtraint, and baffled all the efforts of ſucceeding commanders to reduce them to military diſcipline. Three of theſe were aſſaſſinated, and the Coſſacks ſpurning the Ruſſian government, plundered and maſſacred the natives at pleaſure, ſo that the country from that period, exhibited one ſcene of bloodſhed, and revolts, between parties eſpouſing different intereſts, till the grand revolt of the Kamſchadales in the year 1731.

Notwithſtanding the ſuppreſſion of the rebellion tended greatly to depopulate the country, according to information received by our lateſt voyagers, it became, in proceſs of time, more populous than ever, till, in the year 1767, the ſmall-pox raged with all the violence of a plague, and threatened an almoſt total extirpation. Our voyagers were eye-witneſſes to its deva[illegible]tation, in

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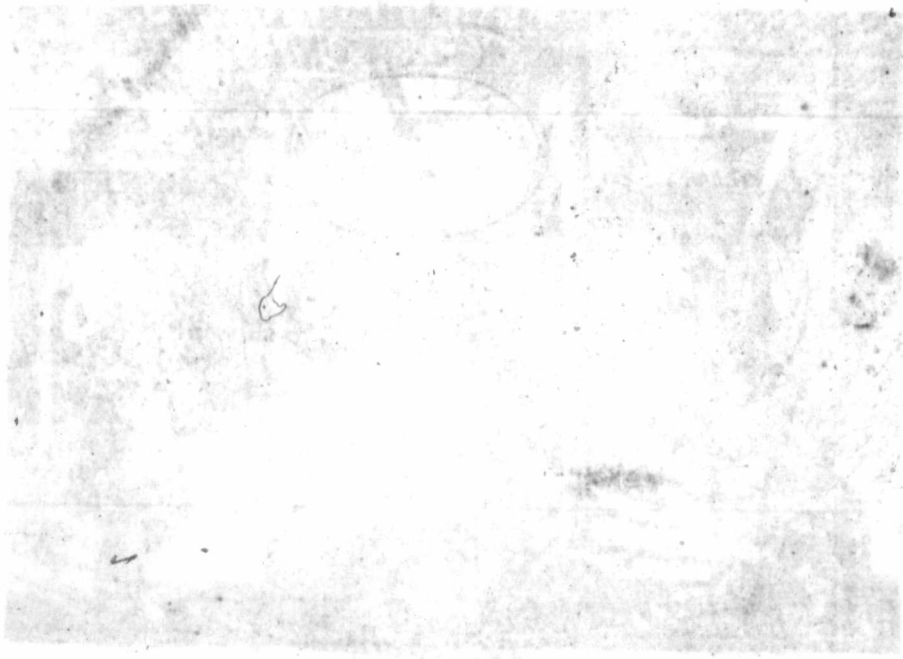
Engraved for BANKES's New System of GEOGRAPHY Published by Royal Authority.

Winter Habitations of the Peasants of Kamtschatka.

Summer Habitations of the Superior People of Kamtschatka.



Engraved for
T. Bankes's Complete
System of Geography

The manner in which the KAMTSCHADALES melt
the Grease & dry the Fish that they catch in the Spring
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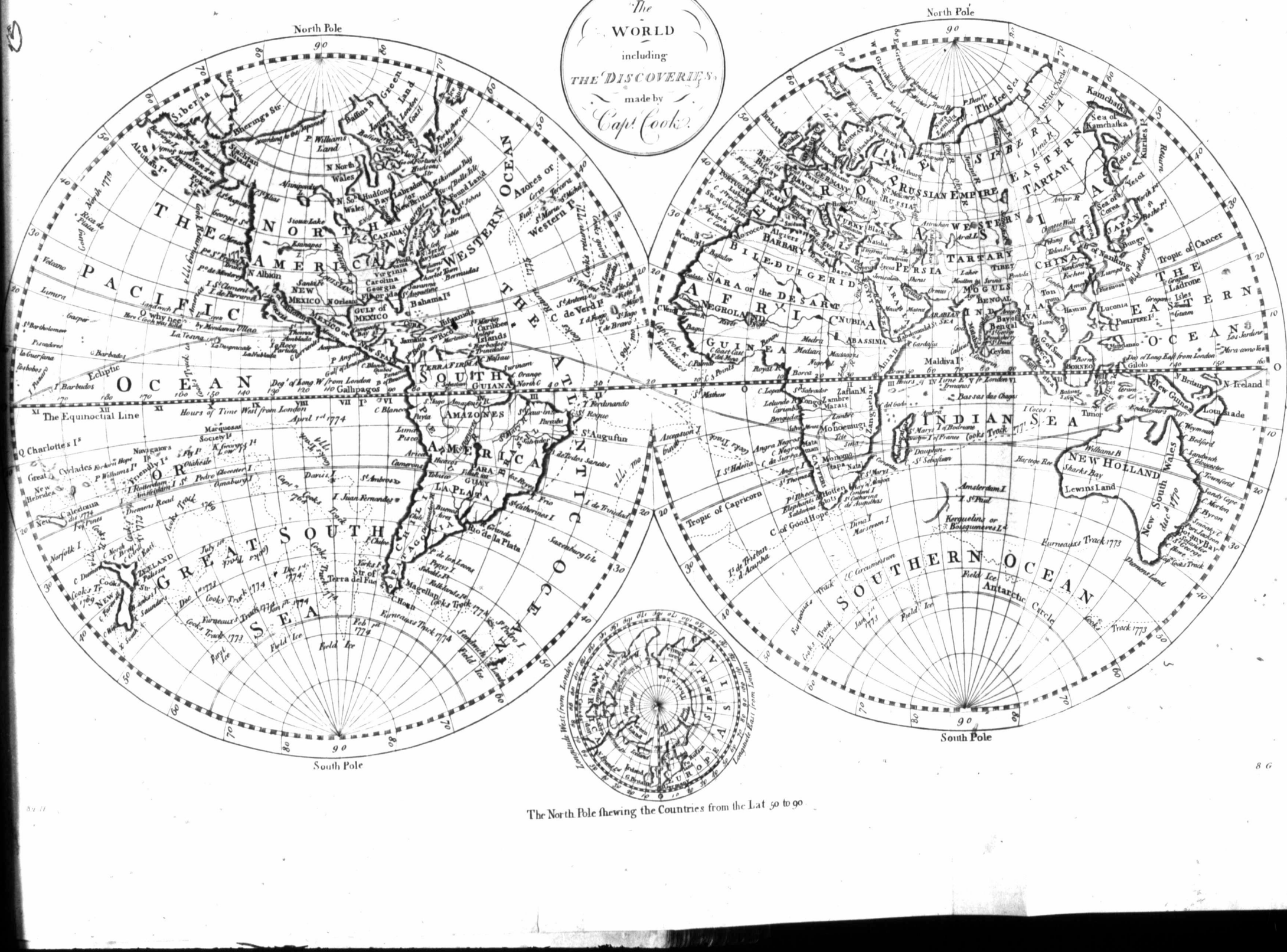
The WORLD including THE DISCOVERIES made by Capt. Cook



The North Pole shewing the Countries from the Lat 50 to 90

the obſervation of places almoſt deſolate, which, they were informed, had been fully inhabited. According to the account of a Ruſſian officer reſident in the country, there was not in the whole more than 3000 that paid tribute, and thoſe included the inhabitants of the Kurile iſlands.

The Ruſſian government is both lenient and equitable in this country; the tribute exacted is very inconſiderable; and it muſt be obſerved, to the honour of the Ruſſians, that they have beſtowed great pains in converting the natives to chriſtianity, which have been attended with great ſucceſs. To further this benevolent deſign, miſſionaries are appointed, and ſchools eſtabliſhed, for the gratuitous inſtruction of both natives and Coſſacks in the Ruſſian language, in order to teach them the rites of the religion of the Greek church.

The principal commerce of Kamſchatka, as far as reſpects the line of exportation, conſiſts in the furs, and is carried on by a company of merchants under the immediate patronage of the Empreſs of Ruſſia. The members wear a medal as a badge of honorary diſtinction. The fur buſineſs was formerly tranſacted by way of barter, but of late they deal for ready money only, by which means a conſiderable quantity of ſpecie circulates in this place, though apparently ſo poor.

Various are the articles of importation, nor are they confined to Ruſſian manufactures, but include the produce of England, Holland, Tartary, and China. They conſiſt of wearing apparel, domeſtic utenſils, alimentary and other uſeful and neceſſary particulars. The merchants derive great profit from them in general; but the fur trade upon the frontiers of China is attended with the higheſt advantage. The duties upon the whole of the exports and imports could not be aſcertained; but the tribute, according to the account of the Ruſſian governor, amounts, in value, to ten thouſand rubles annually.

The grand mart for furs is the iſlands ſituated between Kamſchatka and America, diſcovered in 1741, by Captain Beering. From thence the ſea-otter ſkins, the moſt important branch of the fur-trade, are produced. Being ſubject to the Ruſſian government, the merchants have ſettlements upon them, and appoint reſidentiary agents for the purpoſe of carrying on a commerce with the natives; ſo that conſiderable advantages mutually reſult from their intercourſe.

SECTION V.

Perſons, Dreſs, Habitations, Manners, Cuſtoms, and Religion of the People of Kamſchatka.

THE Kamſchadales are in ſtature much below the common ſize, which has been judiciouſly attributed to their generally entering into the conjugal ſtate at the early age of thirteen or fourteen years. They reſemble the other inhabitants of Siberia in moſt inſtances, excepting that their viſages are ſomewhat ſhorter, their mouths larger, and their cheeks fuller. Their hair is dark, their eyes are hollow, and the remarkable ſwarthineſs of their complexion is attributed to the power of the ſun reflecting from the ſnow; to obviate the effects of which, thoſe who are obliged to be in the woods, cover their faces with a kind of netting; for this refraction injures not only the complexion, but the eyeſight.

They are in general exceeding ſlovenly, neglecting to waſh themſelves, comb their hair, (though ſome pains are beſtowed by both ſexes in plaiting it,) or cutting their nails. They eat of the moſt putrid and filthy commodities, out of bowls and troughs with their very dogs, nor do they even waſh them afterwards.

The dreſs of the natives of this peninſula conſiſts of the ſkins of divers animals, with the fur outwards. They wear, in general, two garments, the ſleeves of the outer reaching down to their knees. They have boots of dog or deer ſkin, with the hair innermoſt. Alſo a fur cap, or hood, which ſerves to cover the head in bad weather. The dreſs of the men and women are nearly the ſame. The coat, or rather waiſtcoat, of the latter, fits cloſe to the bodies, and it decorated with ſlips of red, blue, and yellow cloth, and ſometimes ribbon or woollen liſt. A kind of petticoat is joined to this waiſtcoat, that comes half way down the leg. The women let their hair grow much longer than the men. They plait it, and hang braſs trinkets to it. The Ruſſians, in general, wear the European dreſs throughout the different parts of Siberia.

There is, however, diſtinctions in their dreſſes, and particularly thoſe of the women, ſome of which are gay and pleaſing. There is the common dreſs, compoſed of common materials; the holiday dreſs, rather more decorated; and the grandeſt dreſs, conſiſting of a looſe robe of white nankeen, gathered cloſe round the neck, and faſtened with a ſilk collar. A ſhort jacket, without ſleeves, is worn over this, conſiſting of different coloured nankeens; and they have petticoats made of a ſlight Chineſe ſilk. Their ſhifts, which are alſo made of ſilk, have ſleeves extending to the wriſts; and their heads are bound with coloured ſilk handkerchiefs, which entirely conceal the hair of the married women; but the unmarried ones place the handkerchief under the hair, permitting it to flow looſely down the ſhoulders.

The habitations of the Kamſchadales are of three kinds; the firſt adapted to the winter, the ſecond to the ſummer, and the third of Ruſſian introduction, and inhabited chiefly by the opulent. The winter habitations, called *jourts*, are under ground, to the depth of about ſix feet. They are covered with graſs or earth, and ſometimes with the ſkins of the animals they have killed in the field, which, being undreſſed, cauſe a moſt nauſeous ſtench. Some of the huts, indeed, are covered with mats, and alſo lined with them. There is a cavity in the center, which ſerves the purpoſes of chimney, window, and entrance. They paſs in and out by the means of a pole (inſtead of a ladder) with notches juſt deep enough to reſt the toe upon. They have platforms made of boards, raiſed about ſix inches from the ground, which they uſe as ſeats, and on which they repoſe themſelves, after ſtrewing them with mats or ſkins. Near one corner is the fire place, and the oppoſite ſide is ſet apart for the reception of proviſions and culinary utenſils. Our European voyagers found theſe *jourts* in general ſo warm, as to render any conſiderable ſtay in them intolerable. It is to be obſerved, that ſeveral families live together in one *jourt*. They take up their reſidence in them about the middle of October, and uſually continue in them till about the middle of May.

Their ſummer habitations, called *balagans*, are built on the ſurface of the earth, and conſtructed with more regularity than the *jourts*. They are raiſed on pillars about thirteen feet high from the ſurface, with beams thrown acroſs them, on which is fixed a floor, with a roof riſing from each ſide to a centrical point. It is found neceſſary to raiſe the ſummer habitations to this height, to ſecure the inhabitants from the danger of wild beaſts. The *balagans* have two doors oppoſite each other, and they aſcend to them by the ſame kind of ladders as they uſe in the jourts. The lower part, which is entirely open, is ſet apart for the purpoſe of drying fiſh, roots, vegetables, and other articles of winter proviſion.

The third and laſt, of the Ruſſian introduction, are the log-houſes, called here *iſbas*. They are raiſed upon long timbers piled horizontally; the ends are let into one another, and ſeams filled up or caulked with moſs. The roof ſlopes like our cottages, and is thatched with coarſe graſs or ruſhes. There are three diviſions or ſeparate apartments in them. The firſt runs the whole width and height of the habitation, and is appropriated to the reception of the more bulky articles, ſuch as ſledges, harneſs, and domeſtic utenſils that are weighty and cumbrous. The next is the middle and moſt commodious

modious apartment, furniſhed with benches for the purpoſes of eating and repoſe. The laſt is the kitchen, half of which is taken up by the oven or fire-place, and ſo contrived in point of ſituation, as to convey heat to that and the middle apartment at the ſame time. In each apartment are two ſmall windows. The beams and boards are ſmoothed as well as poſſible with a hatchet, (for they know not the uſe of the plane,) and theſe, from the effects of the ſmoke, become very black and ſhining.

A town is called by the natives an *oſtrog*, and conſiſts of the three ſeveral habitations deſcribed; but the *balagans* are moſt numerous. Our late voyagers obſerve, that they never met, in the courſe of their travels in this country, with any kind of habitation detached from a town or *oſtrog*.

Their marriage ceremonies are as ſingular as many others of their cuſtoms. When a man fixes his affection upon a female, he binds himſelf to the ſervice of the parents for a limited time, at the expiration of which, he either obtains their conſent to marry her, or a requittal for his ſervices upon diſmiſſion. If he gets conſent, they proceed to the nuptial ceremonies, which conſiſt in the bridegroom's ſtripping the bride of her cloaths, which are purpoſely bound ſo faſt with ſtraps, girdles, and other ligaments, as to render it a very difficult taſk to accompliſh his deſign. The bride is aſſiſted againſt his efforts by the interpoſition of ſeveral women, notwithſtanding which he perſiſts in his purpoſe, till her exclamations bring them all upon him, and he is ſubjected to very rough treatment, and exhibits ſeveral tokens of their indignation. At length the bride, moved with pity for his ſituation, and the women abating of their fury, the man gains his point, and retiring to a ſhort diſtance, is called back in a plaintive tone by the bride, who confeſſes his conqueſt over her. Here ends the ceremony; and the happy pair, the enſuing day, proceed to the habitation of the huſband. In the courſe of a week they pay a viſit to the parents of the wife, the relations of both parties are aſſembled, and the marriage is celebrated with great feſtivity. Some men marry three wives, who generally live together in an amicable manner, and (what to us muſt appear moſt extraordinary) are ſeldom or ever jealous. When the women go abroad, they veil their faces; and if they meet a man, and cannot get out of the way, turn their backs to him till he has paſſed by. Though the very attempt in a woman to procure abortion is judged a capital crime, yet when twins are brought into the world, one of the innocents muſt be deſtroyed. Infants, as ſoon as they come to ſtand, are left to themſelves by the mother, who ſuffers them to roll on the ground any where. They go in common half naked, and begin to walk at a time that, in Europe, a child would hardly be able to ſtand. Soon after they begin to run about the ſnow.

When one of the natives ſeeks the friendſhip of another, he invites him to his hut, which is made very hot for his reception, and he no ſooner enters than both ſtrip themſelves naked. The maſter of the hut then ſets before his gueſt great plenty of his beſt proviſions, and, while he is eating, throws water upon red hot ſtones, till the heat of the place becomes inſupportable. The viſitor ſtrives to bear it, and to eat up all the victuals, while the maſter of the hut endeavours to oblige him to complain of the heat, and to deſiſt from eating. He eats nothing himſelf, but is allowed even to leave the hut, though the viſitor is not ſuffered to ſtir till he confeſſes that he is overcome. They uſually eat ſo much at theſe feaſts, that, for two or three days, they can ſcarcely move, or bear the ſight of victuals. At length the viſitor, being unable to eat any more, purchaſes his diſmiſſion with preſents of cloaths, dogs, or whatever the maſter of the hut likes, and, in return, receives others of no value. But if the man who has obtained this advantage over his friend, does not ſoon return the viſit, the gueſt pays him another, and then it is his turn to make him ſuch preſents as he is able; and if he makes him none, it is conſidered as the groſſeſt affront; the man himſelf will be his enemy, and nobody elſe will live in friendſhip with him.

Sometimes one village entertains another, either upon account of a wedding, or their having had great ſucceſs in hunting or fiſhing. The maſter of the hut endeavours to make his gueſts ſick with eating, and ſometimes gives them a liquor made of a large muſhroom, prepared with the juice of a willow, which intoxicates them in ſo ſtrange a manner, that they commit a thouſand extravagancies; and if the doſe be too large, it ſometimes proves fatal, and thoſe who are thus intoxicated, die raving mad.

The mirth of the women conſiſts in jeſting and ſinging. At firſt they begin to ſing very low, giving a gentle motion to their hands; but by degrees raiſe their voice, and increaſe their motion, till they are out of breath. Their only muſical inſtrument is the flute, upon which they play very poorly. A ſtranger no ſooner comes to Kamſchatka, than they give him a new name, and, at their entertainments, mimic all his actions. They have alſo profeſſed buffoons, but their wit is highly indecent. Their dances are very ſingular; nor is it poſſible to convey an adequate idea of this uncouth exhibition. The figure of the Ruſſian dance reſembles thoſe of our hornpipes, and conſiſts of one, two, or four performers at a time. Their ſteps are exceedingly ſhort and quick, their feet being raiſed but a very little way from the ground; their arms are hung down cloſe to the ſides, the body being kept, the whole time, erect and immoveable, except when the performers paſs each other, when the hand is ſuddenly raiſed with an awkward motion. But, if the Ruſſian dance is unmeaning and ridiculous, the Kamſchadale is infinitely more ſo. The principal aim, in their performances, is to repreſent the clumſy geſtures of the bear, which the inhabitants of this country have frequent opportunities of obſerving in various ſituations. To deſcribe the awkward poſtures exhibited on theſe occaſions, would appear tedious and unintereſting. In general, however, the body is bowed, and the knees bent, whilſt the arms are employed in imitating the motions of that awkward animal.

There prevails with ſome of the Kamſchadales a ſhocking cuſtom, not only of neglecting the burial of their dead, but giving their carcaſes to the dogs, abſurdly alledging, that as the deceaſed are thus devoured by dogs, they will thereby enſure to themſelves a pleaſant carriage in ſledges drawn by fine dogs in the other world. This horrid practice, however, does not now prevail (though it formerly did) univerſally, ſome having the humanity at leaſt to leave the dead in their hut, and go in queſt of a new habitation. They always throw away the cloaths of the deceaſed, from a perſuaſion, that whoever ſhould wear them would ſoon meet with the ſame fate.

The natives of this peninſula always travel in ſledges. The length of the body of the ſledge is about four feet and a half, and the breadth one foot. It is made in the form of a creſcent, of light tough wood, faſtened together with wicker work; and thoſe of the principal people are elegantly ſtained with red and blue, the ſeat being covered with furs or bear ſkins. It has four legs, about two feet in height, reſting on two long flat pieces of wood, of the breadth of five or ſix inches, which extend a foot beyond the body of the ſledge at each end. Theſe run up before ſomewhat like a ſkait, and are ſhod with the bone of ſome ſea animal. The carriage is ornamented, at the fore part, with taſſels of coloured cloth, and leather thongs. It has a croſs-bar, to which the harneſs is joined; and links of iron, or ſmall bells, are hanging to it, which, by the jingling, is ſuppoſed to encourage the dogs. They ſeldom carry more than one perſon at a time, who ſits aſide, with his feet on the lower part of the ſledge, having his baggage and proviſions in a bundle behind him. The uſual number of dogs employed in drawing this carriage, is four, though very lately they have began to uſe five. The reins being

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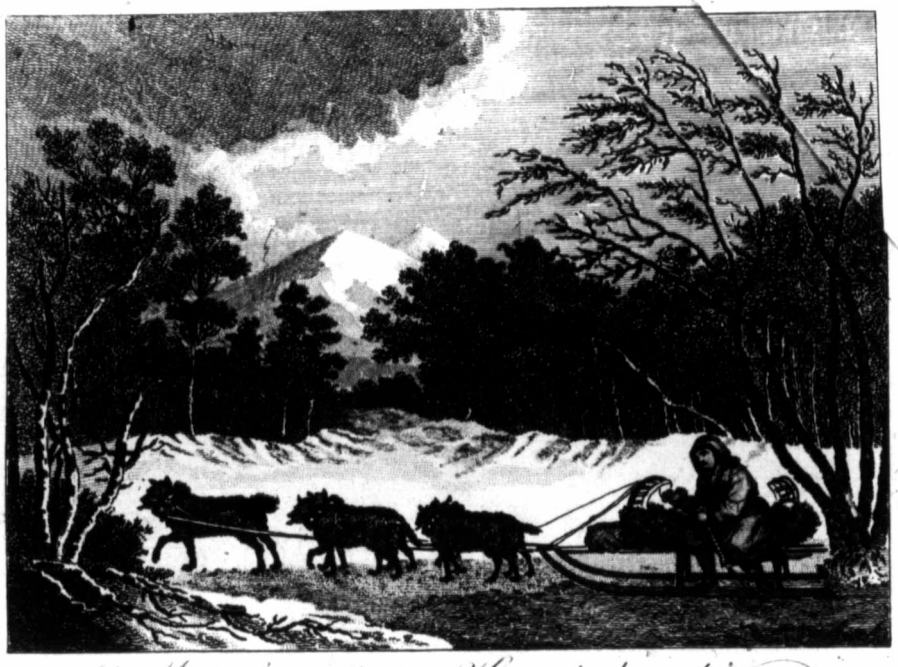

Mode of travelling at Kamtschatka in Winter.

Grignion sculp.

The Ostiacks method of travelling in Winter.

being faſtened to the collar, inſtead of the head, have no great command, and are therefore uſually hung upon the ſledge, the driver depending principally upon their obedience to his voice. Great care and attention are conſequently uſed in training up the leader, which frequently becomes very valuable on account of his ſteadineſs and docility; the ſum of forty rubles (or ten pounds) being no unuſual price for one of them. The rider has alſo a crooked ſtick, anſwering the purpoſe both of whip and reins, with which, by ſtriking in the ſnow, he can regulate the ſpeed of the dogs, or even ſtop them at his pleaſure. When they are inattentive to their duty, he often chaſtiſes them by throwing it at them. The dexterity of the riders in picking this ſtick up again, is very remarkable, and is the moſt difficult manœuvre in the exerciſe of their profeſſion. Nor is it, indeed, ſurpriſing that they ſhould be ſkilful in a practice in which they are ſo materially intereſted; for they aſſured our people, that if a driver ſhould happen to loſe his ſtick, the dogs immediately diſcover it; and, unleſs their leader is both ſteady and reſolute, they will inſtantly ſet off full ſpeed, and never ſtop till their ſtrength is exhauſted; or till the carriage is overturned and daſhed to pieces, or hurried down a precipice, when all are buried in the ſnow. The accounts of the ſpeed of theſe animals, and of the hardſhips and fatigues they ſuffer would have appeared incredible, had they not been ſupported by the greateſt authority. Some of the Engliſh were witneſſes of the extraordinary expedition with which the meſſenger returned, who had been diſpatched to Bolcheretſk with the news of their arrival at St. Peter and St. Paul's, though the ſnow was exceedingly ſoft. The governor of Kamſchatka aſſured them, that this journey was uſually performed in two days and a half; and that he had once received an expreſs from that harbour in twenty-three hours.

During the winter the dogs are fed on the offals of dried and ſtinking fiſh; and even this miſerable food is with-held from them a day before they ſet out on a journey; and they are not permitted to eat a morſel of any thing till they arrive at the end of it. They are frequently kept faſting for two entire days, in which time they will perform a journey of great extent. During the preparation for the journey, and the laſhing of the baggage upon the ſledges, theſe animals make a horrid howling; but when they are yoked, and ready for travelling, they ſet up a chearful yelp, which ceaſes the inſtant they march off.

The principal diverſion of the natives is that of bear-hunting, which is followed about ſun-ſet. Having found out the track of the animals, and fixed upon a convenient ſpot for concealment, the huntſmen point their firelocks in a proper direction. They afterwards kneel or lie down, as circumſtances may require, and having their bear ſpears in readineſs, wait the arrival of their game. On the diſcharge of the piece, the enraged animal makes immediately towards the place from whence the ſound and ſmoke iſſue, and furiouſly attacks his adverſaries, If he ſhould not happen to fall, and they have not ſufficient time to reload their pieces, they immediately prepare to receive him upon their ſpears, their ſafety depending, in a great meaſure, on their giving him a mortal ſtab as he advances towards them. Should he parry the thruſt, and break in upon his opponents, the conflict becomes dreadful, and it is ſeldom that the loſs of a ſingle life will ſatisfy the beaſt's revenge.

The diverſion of bear-hunting is particularly dangerous at two ſeaſons of the year. In the ſpring, when they firſt iſſue from their caves, after having ſubſiſted the whole winter, (as the natives poſitively aſſert) ſolely on ſucking their paws, they become exceedingly famiſhed, and growing fierce and ſavage in proportion, purſue the inhabitants by the ſcent, and prowling about at a diſtance from their uſual tracks, dart upon them unawares; ſo that the natives having no idea of ſhooting flying, or even running, they fall a ſacrifice to their rapacity.

The time of their copulation, which is towards the cloſe of the year, is another dangerous ſeaſon. The hunters never preſume to fire at a young bear if the dam is on the ſpot, as, if the cub happens to be killed, ſhe becomes enraged to an immoderate degree, and is ſure to be revenged on the offender, or die in the attempt. If the dam ſhould fall, the cub continues by her ſide, exhibiting, by the moſt affecting geſtures and motions, the moſt poignant affliction. The hunters, inſtead of commiſerating their diſtreſs, embrace the opportunities of deſtroying them. The natives affirm, that the ſagacity of the bears is as extraordinary as their natural affection.

Before the people of Kamſchatka were acquainted with fire-arms, it is ſaid they poiſoned their ſpears and arrows with a juice extracted from the root of the *azgate*, and that the wound was inevitable death. The Tſchutſki are reported to uſe the ſame drug for the ſame purpoſe.

The dreſſing the ſkins of ſeals, beavers, dogs, &c. conſtitutes part of their employment. The mode is, firſt to wet and ſpread them out, then with ſtones fixed in wood to ſcrape off all the fat. They then rub them with caviare, roll them together, and tread on them. Afterwards they ſcrape them again, and repeat the firſt part of their proceſs till the ſkin is thoroughly cleaned and rendered ſoft. In the ſummer the men are occupied in collecting the neceſſaries of life, and laying up a ſtore for the enſuing winter's proviſion. The women are employed in making ſhoes, ſewing clothes, dying ſkins, and making glue of the dried ſkins of fiſhes, and particularly of the whale.

The Kamſchadales are timid and puſillanimous, and, from an innate kind of ſtupidity, ſeem to deſpiſe life. They never attack an enemy openly unleſs conſtrained, but ſteal privately to their habitations, and there exerciſe the moſt horrid barbarities, cutting them to pieces, and even tearing out their entrails with ſavage triumph and ſhouts of joy. When they hear of the approach of a foe they retire to ſome mountain, and fortify it as ſtrong as poſſible; if it appears that the enemy are like to get the better, they murder their wives and children, and then encounter their aſſailants with a fury bordering on phrenzy; and when overpowered ſell their lives as dear as poſſible.

Though many of theſe people adopt the Ruſſian manners, deſpiſe the cuſtoms of their country, and have been inſtructed in the Chriſtian religion by the Ruſſian miſſionaries, they have, in general, a very imperfect idea of a Supreme Being. They think the woods and burning mountains are inhabited by evil ſpirits, to which, from motives of fear, they make conſiderable offerings, and ſome of them have idols in their huts, while others reverence ſome particular animals from which they apprehend danger.

The law of retaliation is ſtrictly obſerved by them: if one man takes away the life of another, the relations of the deceaſed avenge themſelves upon the murderer in his deſtruction. Theft is puniſhed by depriving the thief of his fingers.

They are liable to a variety of diſeaſes, ſome hereditary, others the effects of intemperance, and debauchery. Roots and herbs are their general antidotes, excepting in a diſorder called the *ſhuſhutch* which is a kind of ſcab that encompaſſes the body under the ribs, like a girdle; when this does not ſuppurate, and fall off, it is mortal; and they aſſert, that every one has it once in life. To promote ſuppuration, they apply the raw ſkin of a hare. In fine, nature here, as in other parts of the world, ſeems to have provided remedies for moſt if not all the diſeaſes incident to the human frame.

KURILE ISLANDS.

THE Kuriles are a chain of iſlands extending from latitude 51 deg. to 45 deg. north, in a ſouth-weſt direction from the ſouthern promontory of Kamſchatka

to Japan. According to Spanberg, a Ruſſian voyager, they are twenty-two in number, without reckoning the very ſmall ones. Theſe iſlands derived their name from the inhabitants of the neighbourhood of Lapatka, who being called themſelves Kuriles, gave them the ſame appellation when they firſt became acquainted with them.

The inhabitants of the northernmoſt, called Shoomſka, diſtant about three leagues from the promontory Lopatka, conſiſts of a mixture of natives and Kamſchadales.

Paramouſir, which is conſiderably larger than the before-mentioned, is inhabited wholly by natives, whoſe anceſtors, according to a received tradition among them, came from an iſland a little farther to the ſouth, called Onecutan.

Theſe two iſlands were firſt viſited by the Ruſſians in 1713, and then ſubjected to the government of their country. The others, according to the moſt authentic account that could be obtained, are now made tributary as far as Oothéſheer. Captain King relates, that tho' the laſt mentioned iſland is the ſouthernmoſt of any under the dominion of the Ruſſians, they trade to Ooroop, which is the only one that has a good harbour for ſhips of burthen.

To the ſouth of this lies Nadeegrada, the inhabitants of which, like thoſe of Ooroop, maintain a ſtate of independence.

Spanberg, ſpeaking of theſe iſlanders, ſays, their bodies were covered all over with hair; that they wore a looſe ſtriped ſilk gown, and that many of them had ſilver rings pendant from their ears. He adds, that on ſpying a live cock upon deck they fell on their knees before it; and likewiſe before the preſents that were brought out to them, cloſing and ſtretching forth their hands, and bowing their heads at the ſame time down to the ground; and that except the peculiarity of their hairineſs, they reſembled the other Kurile iſlanders in their features and figure, and ſpoke the ſame language.

The inhabitants of the Kurile iſlands are of a low ſtature and round viſage. Their dreſs is commonly formed of the ſkins of different animals. Their habitations reſemble thoſe of the Kamſchadales, but kept ſomewhat cleaner; and their food generally conſiſts of the fleſh of amphibious animals.

With reſpect to the genius and diſpoſition of theſe people, they were ſpoken of to Captain King, by the Ruſſian miſſionary, a man of piety and learning, who viſits them once in three years, in terms of the higheſt commendation. He repreſented them as a generous, hoſpitable, humane race of people, ſurpaſſing their neighbours of Kamſchatka no leſs in the formation of their bodies than in their docility and quickneſs of underſtanding.

The greater part of the inhabitants of theſe iſlands, who are under the dominion of the Ruſſians, are converted to the Chriſtian religion, from whence it is probable that the time is not very diſtant when an advantageous commerce will be carried on between Kamſchatka and this extenſive chain. This intercourſe may be greatly promoted by a particular circumſtance, which is, that ſeveral Ruſſians (as our people were given to underſtand) having been taught the Japaneſe language by two natives of that country, who had been ſhipwrecked on the coaſt of Kamſchatka, had been ſent among theſe iſlands. The benefits with which ſuch an intercourſe muſt be attended to the Ruſſians are too obvious to need deſcription.

THE KOREKI.

THE country of the Koreki includes two ſeveral nations, under the diſtinct appellations of the fixed and the wandering Koreki. The former dwell on the coaſt of the Eaſtern Ocean, from the river Ukoi to the Anadir, and a part of the iſthmus of Kamſchatka. The wandering Koreki inhabit the country weſtward of the river Kovyma, and along the north-eaſt of the ſea of Okotſk, as far as the river Penſkina.

The fixed and wandering Koreki differ from each other in form, diſpoſition, dreſs, cuſtoms and manners. The former nearly reſembles the Kamſchadales, and depend, like them, on fiſhing for ſubſiſtence. Their cloathing and habitations are ſimilar. They are under the diſtrict of the Ingiga, and are tributary to the Ruſſians.

The wandering Koreki are ſhort of ſtature, ſlender in ſhape, with oval faces, large mouths, and ſhort noſes. Their hair is very ſhort and ſlender. They are naturally jealous, and often put their wives to death upon the ſlighteſt ſuſpicions. If a man and woman be actually detected in criminal connection, both are ſure to ſuffer death. The women, therefore avoid ſetting off their perſons to advantage, and never waſh their faces or comb their heads. But this is by no means the caſe with the fixed Koreki, whoſe wives decorate themſelves to the beſt advantage; and ſo little does jealouſy prevail among this nation, that exchange of intercourſe is admitted between friend and friend.

The wandering Koreki are wholly employed in breeding and nurturing deer, with which this country ſo much abounds, that it is common for a ſingle chief to have a herd of four or five thouſand. Deer is their principal food, and they have an averſion to fiſh in general. Their ſledges are drawn by deer; and thoſe that are uſed for this purpoſe, feed in the ſame paſture with the others. When they are wanted, the herdſman makes uſe of a certain cry, which being familiar to them, they obey, quitting the herd immediately.

Their habitations are like thoſe of the Kamſchadale *jourts*, (having no *balagans*,) excepting that they are covered with rein-deer ſkins in the winter, and tanned ones in the ſummer.

The Koreki differ from the Kamſchadales in their marriage ceremonies. They have great affection for their children, whom they accuſtom to induſtry from early life. They generally intermarry with their own families. and diſregard perſonal accompliſhments: nor is wedlock prohibited but between father and daughter, mother and ſon. Inſtead of cauſing the deceaſed to be devoured by dogs, they put on them their beſt attire, and fixing them on a pile of wood, ſet it on fire. They are drawn on a ſledge to this pile by a rein-deer, which, while the pile is conſuming, is put to death, and thrown into the fire.

They have the ſame dreadful apprehenſions as the Kamſchadales of evil ſpirits, which they imagine hover in woods and mountains. They ſometimes fix the head of a dog upon a ſtave, and turning the animal's face towards the eaſt, cry "Take this, and ſend us ſomething better for it."

CHAP. III.

EMPIRE OF JAPAN.

SECTION I.

Diſcovery, Situation, Extent, Soil, Climate, Rivers, &c.

THIS extenſive country, ſituated in the moſt eaſtern part of Aſia, and bearing the title of an empire, was diſcovered by ſome Portugueſe in 1542, who were caſt on ſhore by a tempeſt. It conſiſts of three large, and many leſſer iſlands, and extends from 30 to 41 degrees north latitude; and from 130 to 147 degrees eaſt longitude, being about 600 leagues in circumference, and 200 in length.

The larger of the two iſlands is Japan itſelf, uſually called by the natives Niphon. The next in extent is Ximo; and the ſmaller of the three is Xicoco, ſituate between the former two.

The whole empire is divided into ſeven capital territories, five of which are in Japan properly ſo called. It is ſurrounded by craggy rocks (the greateſt ſecurity of the empire from foreign invaſions) which are ſo high and inacceſſible, that when ſeen at ſea from a diſtance, the whole appears as one immenſe rock.

" ——— A rock that braves
" The raging tempeſt, and the riſing waves.
" Self-propt it ſeems to ſtand. Its ſolid ſides
" Keep off the ſea-weeds, and the ſounding tides."

The ſoil is rocky, and rather barren: but through the induſtry of the natives, it has been greatly improved, to their general benefit and advantage. Though the breezes from the ſea tend to moderate the ſummer's heat, they add to the intenſeneſs of the winter's cold, and render the ſeaſons more uncertain here than in any other parts of the Indies. The country is ſubject to heavy rains, which are always exceſſive during the months of June and July. Dreadful ſtorms and hurricanes, and tremendous thunder and lightning, are alſo common here, to the great alarm and injury of the natives. The principal rivers here are three, the Ujingava, the current of which is ſo rapid, that no bridge can be built over it; the Corric, that takes its name from the province in which it riſes; and the Aſkagava, remarkable for its depth and perpetual fluctuation. There is one principal lake called Citz, which is an hundred miles in length, and twenty in breadth. This lake is formed by the conflux of ſeveral rivers, and diſcharges itſelf into the ſea on the ſouth-weſt ſide of Japan.

SECTION II.

Productions, Vegetable, Animal, Mineral, &c.

THIS country produces rice, wheat, barley, and beans. With the barley they feed cattle; the fine wheat they convert into cakes; and of two kinds of beans, they grind one into meal, to boil for eating, and with the other make a ſort of preſerve for deſerts. They have alſo many other ſpecies of grain. Such is their aſſiduity in cultivation, that the very rocks, and other places naturally barren, produce plants and fruits in abundance. They have various flowers and herbs, and their tea is eſteemed particularly excellent. A great number of camphire trees grow near the hot ſprings, which reſemble laurels, and bear purple or black berries. The cedars of this country are excellent, and many other trees, as plantains, &c. ſome of which, when cut aſunder, exhibit admirable figures of birds, beaſts, landſcapes, &c. Of theſe are made many curious pieces of furniture, which, when poliſhed, have a fine effect.

Of animals they have buffaloes, oxen, ſheep, horſes, deer, together with many wild beaſts, that yield very valuable furs; and elephants, whoſe teeth are an ineſtimable commodity. The horſes, though ſmall, are uncommonly ſwift, and extremely beautiful.

The ducks of Japan are remarkable for ſize, ſhape, and beauty, as are the nightingales for their melody. They have ſea and river fiſh of divers kinds, and in great abundance. There is a ſpecies of white ant, which, though pleaſing to the eye, is very miſchievous; for they pierce, with their little ſnouts, every thing they come near, except metal and ſtone, and greatly damage all kinds of goods, if not prevented from approaching them, by ſtrewing the adjacent place with ſalt, which theſe little inſects abhor. The beetles make an agreeable kind of humming noiſe, which gradually riſes to a pretty high note. But the night fly exceeds all the other inſects for its beauty. The body is about three inches long, round, and finely ſhaped. It has four wings, two cloſe to the body, which make a very brilliant appearance, by means of the luſtre of the blue and gold ſtreaks with which they are tinged; and two above theſe, whoſe tranſparency not only admits of the others being ſeen through them, but even adds to their brilliancy.

The Japaneſe derive from the ſeas by which they are encircled, red and white coral, ambergris, and curious pearls and ſhells. But the grand ſource of their opulence flows from their invaluable mines of gold and ſilver, to which the Emperor claims an excluſive right, as he does to all the gold ſand in his dominions. Their copper mines are innumerable, producing a fine and coarſe ſort. The bowels of their mountains are likewiſe pregnant with ſulphur, iron, and ſteel.

The following is their proceſs for producing ſalt. They encloſe portions of ground near the ſea, covering them with fine ſand, till it is well impregnated with the ſaline particles. It is then placed in large veſſels, with holes in the bottom, for the ſalt to fall into proper receivers, as it filters through the ſand; after which it is boiled, and brought to a proper conſiſtency, as with us.

Their frequent earthquakes, and number of tremendous volcanos, are attributed to the ſulphur every where encloſed in the bowels of the earth. From the ſame cauſe their hot baths, and mineral ſprings, which are extremely numerous, may be deduced. Some equal the heat of boiling water, and others are even as hot as boiling oil. They have likewiſe many cold mineral ſprings; but their phyſicians are ſo ignorant, as to be incapable of adviſing them to the proper uſe of either.

Beſides a variety of uſeful and ornamental ſtones of various colours, this country abounds with excellent marble, which is applied to the conſtruction of ſumptuous edifices, and other grand and important purpoſes.

SECTION III.

Perſons. Dreſs. Diſpoſition. Genius. Endowments, natural and acquired.

IT is here neceſſary to premiſe, that the prevailing diſpoſitions, habits, manners, and cuſtoms of the inhabitants of Japan, are diametrically oppoſite to thoſe of the Europeans in general; and further, that as the country was peopled at divers periods, and from various nations, there muſt of courſe be a diverſity of manners, &c. between themſelves; ſo that it remains only for us to deſcribe thoſe which are moſt general and ſtriking.

The complexion of the Japaneſe is commonly yellowiſh, and their aſpect forbidding, having flat noſes, thick eye-lids, and broad viſages. Their ſtature is ſhort, their bodies thick, and their legs clumſy. Some differ from this character, and reſemble the Chineſe. Thoſe in the northern provinces are ſimilar in their appearance to the Europeans.

They black their teeth and nails, and let the latter grow very long.

Their general dreſs conſiſts of a ſhort jacket of ſilk next to the ſkin, and a long cotton gown over it. They wear no covering to their heads, but when they go abroad, defend themſelves from the exceſſive heat of the ſun by means of umbrellas; and the appearance of the men is at once martial and effeminate; for by their ſides they wear a broad-ſword or dagger, and in their hand carry a fan. They are in another particular ſingularly inconſiſtent, muffling themſelves up in cloaks when at home, and throwing them off when they go abroad. Unlike moſt other nations, white is their mourning dreſs, and black deemed their gayeſt apparel. The travelling dreſs, however, differs from the above: it conſiſts of a very large hat made of bamboo ſplinters, which totally defends the head from heat and wet: and a cloak made of oiled paper, ſufficiently large to cover man and horſe; which are both ſo exceedingly light, that their weight is ſcarcely felt. Ribbons wrapped round their legs inſtead of ſtockings; and wide drawers, with ſlits on each ſide to receive the extremities of their gowns complete the whole.

None manage or direct their own horſes, for none ride but ſuch as can have a perſon to lead him. Not, therefore, having a bridle to mind, a japaneſe traveller amuſes himſelf with ſinging, fanning himſelf, or peruſing the ſubjects painted upon his fan, which uſually are a map of the country, deſcription of the road, account of the inns, number of miles from ſtage to ſtage, price of accommodation at each, &c. Agreeable to what we premiſed, as we mount our horſes on the left ſide, they get on theirs on the right.

The japaneſe women of quality are carried, or rather wheeled, by their ſervants, in a kind of ſedan. Theſe ſedans are not cloſe like ours, but open, reſembling, in ſome degree, a car, or chair of ſtate, with a canopy, and decorated with elegant carved work.

The virtues and vices of theſe people ſeem to bear an equipoiſe. They are modeſt, patient, not avaricious, temperate, ſtrangers to envy or defamation, and ſtrictly honeſt in all their dealings. Their deportment is grave, their words laconic, and their behaviour affable. Gluttony and drunkenneſs are unknown to them. They deſpiſe idle ceremony, and are ſincere in what they ſpeak.

The Japaneſe are repreſented, on the other hand, as cruel to an exceſs, ambitious, proud, and poſſeſſed of ſo little feeling, that they will ſuffer a fellow creature to periſh, ſooner than give him any relief; and ſo exceedingly revengeful, that if diſappointed in gratifying their reſentment againſt another, they will deſtroy themſelves. In war they are ferocious and ſanguinary, and when a town is taken, put all the inhabitants indiſcriminately to the ſword.

The conception of theſe people are ſtrong, and their memory retentive, ſo that they make a rapid progreſs in the acquiſition of knowledge. Their common learning conſiſts in reading, writing, underſtanding their own hiſtory, civil, military, and eccleſiaſtical, and a few ſimple precepts of morality; but many of them acquire ſeveral branches of the mathematics and philoſophy from the European miſſionaries, at various times, which their deſcendants ſtill retain. Their philoſophy, however, is tinctured with many ſuperſtitions of their own, and their aſtronomy blended with the abſurdities of aſtrology. Prior to the arrival of the Europeans in this country, they were ſo ignorant with reſpect to geography, that they imagined their own empire, China, and Siam, to be the only countries in the univerſe; and even of the ſituation and extent of theſe, their notions were extremely imperfect. They have, however, many univerſities and public academies, for the training up of youth in the learning of the country, and the practice of the moral duties. Theſe ſeminaries are well ſupplied with books, and reſorted to by a great number of ſtudents, under the direction of what are called *bonzas*, who are uſually of noble deſcent, and well endowed with money for their ſupport. According to the Portugueſe miſſionaries, theſe ſuperiors of the public ſeats of learning are adepts in moral philoſophy, and great maſters of elocution.

They have not reduced the ſcience of phyſic to any ſyſtem, ſo that their practitioners truſt to experience, and always preſcribe according to precedent, if they have a precedent to go by; but where that is wanting, they proceed entirely by conjecture; ſo that ſimilar caſes and gueſs-work, form the whole of their *materia medica*. But the moſt faſhionable remedies, upon all occaſions, are hot and cold baths. The ſurgeons are more unſkillful than the phyſicians, in every thing except the cure of the *ſeuki*, a moſt grievous kind of cholic peculiar to the Japaneſe, which they almoſt inſtantly expel, by taking blood from the part afflicted, with a ſmall needle made of gold or ſilver. Both phyſicians and ſurgeons are, however, highly eſteemed by the people, and uſually acquire conſiderable fortunes by their profeſſions.

The poetry of the Japaneſe is ſublime, melodious, and deſcriptive. Their muſic is not equivalent. But their paintings, like thoſe of the orientals in general, can only boaſt a ſuperiority in colouring, being deſtitute of every trait of nature, and ſhadow of reſemblance.

They lay claim to the invention of gunpowder and printing, as well as the Chineſe. In the preparation and uſe of the firſt, they are much inferior to them; but they exceed them in the latter, which is performed in a ſimilar manner, as well as in the compoſition of ink and paper.

Like the Chineſe, they write from top to bottom in columns, which they begin at the right hand; and their letters were originally the ſame, but they have changed the form, and even the ſound, of many, in order to differ, as much as poſſible, from the Chineſe, whom they naturally hate, and affect upon all occaſions to deſpiſe.

Their mode of educating their children is worthy of univerſal imitation. They win them to a love of their ſtudies by motives of emulation, and the moſt captivating endearments. They differ from all other oriental nations in inculcating a contempt of pain and death, teaching them to deſpiſe all kind of luxuries, weaning them from every thing that in the leaſt tends to effeminacy, and inuring them to every kind of hardſhip.

SECTION IV.

Manufactures. Commerce. Veſſels. Coins. Buildings. Entertainments. Cuſtoms. Marriage and Funeral Ceremonies. Diſeaſes.

THEIR mechanics and manufacturers excel in their different branches. Their ſilks and cottons are excellent, and their Japan ware and porcelain unequalled. But great reſtrictions are laid upon their trade, the Dutch being the only Europeans who are permitted to enjoy it: and even when their ſhips arrive, they are obliged to land their great guns, and all their other weapons, ſails, tackling, &c. which are carefully depoſited in warehouſes till they have the emperor's permiſſion to depart, when all is again returned, and they are under an obligation to ſail away immediately. And the natives themſelves are not allowed to trade, by the means of ſhipping, to any places but China, Korea, and the land of Jeſſo. The ſwarms of pirates in their ſeas add to the obſtacles that obſtruct their commerce.

Their articles of exportation are wrought ſilk and cotton, rice, ſoy, Japan ware, porcelain, gold, ſilver, copper,

copper, iron, ſteel, artificial metals, furs, tea, (finer and better cured than that of China) gums, medicinal herbs, roots, diamonds, pearls, coral, ſhells, ambergris, &c.

The Dutch have a factory ſituated on a rock called Diſnia, near the city of Nanguwzak, from which it is ſeparated by a wall and a river; and out of this little iſland, which is only two miles in circumference, none of the Dutch are permitted to ſtir. This reſtraint the people of the factory always ſuffer, and the merchants and ſailors are compelled to endure it during their continuance in Japan, which uſually laſts about nine months.

The Japaneſe, for whatever goods they want, pay either by way of barter with other commodities, or in bullion of gold, ſilver, or copper.

Their veſſels have been heretofore repreſented as only fit for very ſhort voyages, and open in the ſtern; but Captain King obſerves, that according to that deſcription, thoſe that he ſaw off their coaſt, could not have endured the violence of the ſtorm, when the ſea ran as high as the oldeſt mariner on board ever remembered to have ſeen it. They had only one maſt, on which was hoiſted a quadrangular ſail, extended aloft by a yard, the braces of which worked forwards. Three pieces of black cloth came half way down the ſail, at an equal diſtance from each other. Spanberg mentions two ſorts of Japaneſe veſſels, one correſponding with the firſt mentioned deſcription; and the other, in which, he ſays, the natives make voyages to the adjacent iſlands, agreeing with thoſe ſeen by our people.

The Japaneſe pleaſure-boats, which are intended only for the navigation of lakes, rivers, &c. are finely gilt, carved, and otherwiſe adorned with the moſt curious and ſuperb embelliſhments.

There are various kinds of coin for the purpoſe of home circulation. The gold coins are *obans* and *cobans*: ten *cobans* make one *oban*, which latter is of about two guineas value. The ſilver coin is compoſed of a variety of flat pieces, of different ſhapes, dimenſions, weight, and value. And a copper coin is ſtamped for the inferior purpoſes of change.

The public and private edifices of Japan have their reſpective merit; the former being magnificent, and the latter neat and convenient; as is the furniture plain and uſeful. The houſes of the nobles are elegantly decorated. Almoſt every houſe has a garden, in which much induſtry, and ſome taſte, are diſplayed: and the apartments of moſt houſes are divided by moveable wainſcots or ſcreens, which may be taken away at pleaſure, and many apartments thrown into one upon any particular occaſion. The ſcreens, couches, beds, tables, cabinets, &c. of the grandees, are all made of the beſt materials, admirably wrought, and highly finiſhed. Their ceilings are exceedingly magnificent, being made of the beſt cedar, admirably carved and gilt, and inlaid in a moſt ingenious manner with gold and ſilver plates.

The coaches, equipages, and dreſſes of thoſe who attend on the emperor, are very grand: though moſt of the coaches are cloſe, particularly thoſe appropriated to the uſe of the women.

The poſture of ſalutation among the Japaneſe is erect, unleſs it is before the emperor, or ſome great lord, when they proſtrate themſelves. If a perſon ſalutes them, they ſit down, inſtead of returning it.

Theſe people are abſtemious in their diet, and live for the moſt part upon vegetables, fruit, &c. They are neat in dreſſing their food, ſit croſs-legged to eat it, and make uſe of little ſticks inſtead of knives and forks. They drink warm water at their meals; but after dinner and ſupper indulge themſelves with a diſh of tea.

Their entertainments are muſic, dancing, plays, and maſquerades. Their dramatic pieces are neither ſo correct or elegant as thoſe of the Europeans, yet they are not without their merits.

The celebration of the marriage rites comes within the department of the *bonza* or prieſt; the bride and bridegroom having lighted a torch or a lamp put into their hands, ſtand before ſome idol; when the woman, to evince that ſhe is determined to commence a woman, burns all the trinkets and toys of her childhood: the company then congratulate her on her marriage, and make her a variety of preſents, to recompence her for thoſe ſhe hath deſtroyed. The rejoicings continue ſeven days, during which every thing is done to promote mirth and feſtivity, and at the cloſe of that time, the bride is conducted with great ceremony to her private apartment.

They treat their women with great ſeverity, and puniſh adultery with death. Yet a man may take as many wives as he pleaſes.

The funerals in general, but particularly thoſe of the nobles, are conducted with great pomp and ſolemnity, and no manner of expence is ſpared, as it is a prevailing opinion among the Japaneſe, that the greater the expence of a funeral, the happier the deceaſed will be in the other life.

The corpſe of a grandee is dreſſed in the moſt ſuperb apparel, and placed upon a litter made of cedar, in the ornaments of which the moſt curious workmanſhip is diſplayed. The women are carried in cloſe coaches or ſedans; and the men elegantly dreſſed in white garments, walk on foot. Many *bonzas* follow, ſome ſinging, ſome playing upon muſical inſtruments, and others carrying the banners of the deceaſed. The rear is brought up by the domeſtics of the family, who, like the reſt of the mourners are clad in white. On arriving at the funeral pile, which is built of the moſt ſweet-ſcented woods that can be procured, and the fragrancy of it heightened by the addition of ſpices, gums, oils, and other perfumes, or odoriferous materials, the corpſe is laid upon it. An oration, ſuitable to the occaſion, is ſpoken, ſtanzas are ſung, and then fire is put to the pile in ſeveral places at once. A variety of cloaths, wines, flowers, ſweet herbs, pieces of money, victuals, &c. are thrown in by the relations and friends, as preſents to the defunct for his particular uſe in the other world. The whole then concludes with a banquet, and an entertainment of ſuch muſic as is beſt calculated to baniſh melancholy ideas.

They pay an annual viſit to the tombs of their anceſtors, at which time, when the company have arrived at the ſepulchres of the dead, the *bonzas* deſcribe the ſituation of the perſons deceaſed, and inform their relations of all they have occaſion for in the other life, which demands are uſually very extravagant. The kindred, however, furniſh every article with great ſatisfaction, which they ſend, together with a few kind and complimentary meſſages, to the defunct, by means of the *bonzas*, who convert the whole to their own uſes, and leave the dead to ſhift for themſelves as well as they can.

The pages and dependants who attend upon the grandees engage themſelves, by a moſt ſolemn oath, not to outlive their lords, but, upon their deceaſe, to put themſelves to a voluntary death, which oath they are never known to break.

Upon theſe ſolemn occaſions, the *bonzas* or prieſts, are principal agents, acting in the ſeveral capacities of mourners, prieſts, and undertakers.

The enſuing day the neareſt relations gather up the bones and aſhes of the deceaſed, put them into a rich funeral urn, and depoſit them in the ſepulchres of their anceſtors. It is here worthy of remark, that the Japaneſe, in their funeral ceremonies, very nearly reſemble the ancient Greeks and Romans, as appears from the deſcription of their poets.

The ſepulchres are at a diſtance from the towns, ſurrounded by an incloſure, and planted with trees, which gives them a very agreeable appearance.

Though the Japaneſe in general are healthy, many are troubled with the leproſy, a diſorder equally dreadful and nauſeous; and thoſe who are infected with it are obliged to live in ſome ſolitary place, ſecluded from ſociety, where they remain without aſſiſtance or compaſſion,

compaſſion, till death puts an end to their miſerable exiſtence. The ſmall-pox and bloody flux are diſorders known here, but not much dreaded. But they are totally unacquainted with the ſtone and gravel, gout and rheumatiſm.

SECTION V.

Inſtitutions civil, military and religious. Introduction and extermination of Chriſtianity.

THE government of Japan is monarchical and deſpotic in the extreme, the emperor poſſeſſing abſolute power over the lives as well as properties of his ſubjects. Formerly the emperors were at the head of religious as well as civil and military matters, and, under the title of Dairo, were the pontiffs as well as ſovereigns of Japan; at which time they were held ſo ſacred, on account of the eccleſiaſtical being blended with the regal authority, that a defection in any of their ſubjects was deemed as a rebellion againſt heaven itſelf. They were perfectly adored; but the abſurd dignity which they affected, and ſtate in which they paſſed their time, rendered their lives none of the moſt deſirable; they were cloſely confined, as it was deemed derogatory to their conſequence to ſuffer the ſun to ſhine, or the wind to blow upon them: thus through a ridiculous parade of importance they were at once deprived of three of the greateſt bleſſings of Providence, viz. liberty, light, and freſh air.

Many other marks of the emperor's grandeur were equally diſagreeable, and even diſguſting: they were never ſuffered to put their feet to the ground, to wear the ſame cloaths, eat out of the ſame utenſils, or lie in the ſame bed twice: nor were they permitted to have their hair cut, their beards ſhaved, or their nails pared.

They had generally twelve wives, who had each a palace, with ſinging and dancing women for their diverſion, beſides an unlimited number of concubines.

Their titles, and the manner of approaching them, were equally abſurd, the firſt bordering on blaſphemy, and the latter on idolatry.

Thus confined to a ſolitary effeminacy and luxurious inactivity, the adminiſtration of public affairs was delegated to the prime miniſter, who was ſtiled Cubo; and it was one of the Cubos that ſtripped the Dairo of having any concern in the civil and military authority. So that the Cubo at preſent may be deemed the emperor, as he hath all the power; and the Dairo the high prieſt, or pontiff, as he ſtill poſſeſſes all the eccleſiaſtical dignity.

The Cubo goes once in five years in grand proceſſion to the city of Meaco to do homage to the Dairo, and acknowledge himſelf his deputy: this ceremony, however, is a mere piece of affectation, and only calculated to prevent an inſurrection in favour of the Dairo, who is ſtill highly reverenced by the common people.

The grand council of the nation at which the emperor preſides, is compoſed of four miniſters ſelected from the principal nobility, and twenty-eight aſſiſtant counſellors, four of whom are tributary princes, who come to the city of Jeddo, and attend by rotation. And not only theſe, but all the other dependant princes, are obliged to attend upon the emperor ſix months annually. The governor and nobles muſt be in waiting a limited time, and the eldeſt ſons of all the tributary princes, governors, grandees, nobles, &c. muſt be educated at court, and remain there during pleaſure; by which means the ſubmiſſion and fidelity of all the principal people in the empire is ſecured either by their own preſence, or the hoſtages they leave behind them. In critical times, an oath of fidelity is adminiſtered, and the wives and younger children are obliged to reſide in Jeddo, till any ſtorm which is thought to be impending is blown over.

As an inſtance of excellent policy, and a moſt effectual preſervative from an idle and refractory diſpoſition, not leſs than 15,000 of the common people are conſtantly employed in the public works. Beſides theſe precautions numerous garriſons are diſperſed throughout the empire; all cities and towns are divided into wards, ſeparated from each other by gates, which are ſhut and guarded every night.

The emperor's army, garriſons included, conſiſt of 100,000 foot, and 20,000 horſe. This is the peace eſtabliſhment; but in the time of war the tributary princes are obliged to join the royal ſtandard with ſuch a number of troops as increaſes the firſt to 368,000, and the latter 38,000 men. The cavalry wear armour, but the infantry have not any thing defenſive except helmets.

The Japaneſe troops march in diviſions of 50 men in each, five in front and ten deep, each diviſion being commanded by a ſingle officer, who keeps them in exact order. They are armed with either muſkets, pikes, bows and arrows, ſabres and targets, or battle-axes. Five of theſe diviſions form a kind of regiment; but they are not accompanied by any warlike muſic; between each diviſion are three led horſes finely capariſoned, and three ſlaves are appointed to lead each horſe with long reins. The captains ride on horſeback between their reſpective diviſions, and on each ſide of the horſes are a kind of panniers, containing the officer's bedding and baggage. When an officer grows old he is permitted to have a ſmall ſort of couch, or ſupporter behind him, againſt which he may commodiouſly lean when fatigued by ſitting upright.

The revenues of the emperor, from the produce of the gold and ſilver mines, and the opulence of the country, muſt certainly be very great, though the ſum cannot be poſitively aſcertained. But ſome writers have aſſerted, that it exceeds 28,000,000.

Their laws are rigorous, and their penalties ſevere in the extreme; the firſt have little or no mixture of lenity, and the latter are more than adequate to the crime. They have no code of ſtatutes, the emperor's will being the grand law, and the inclinations of the ſubordinate princes and governors final in their own kingdoms and provinces; even every petty lord, or maſter of a family, has a power over the lives of their vaſſals and relations. The ſmalleſt crimes are puniſhed with death, and the only indulgence ſhewn is to any of the tributary princes when they offend, and this is no more than allowing them to execute themſelves, which is deemed a great favour. The mildeſt ſentence in Japan is baniſhment to a dreary and almoſt barren iſland, ſurrounded by rocks, and deſtitute of almoſt every comfort of life.

High treaſon and other crimes of an attrocious nature, which concern the emperor's ſafety or intereſt, are not only puniſhed in the perſon of the criminal, but his parents, children, and all his relations are put to death on the ſame day, let them be at ever ſo great a diſtance, expreſſes being ſent for that purpoſe to the different governors. With reſpect to other crimes, the male relations only are put to death, and the females ſold as ſlaves.

Their puniſhments are as horrid as invention could deviſe, or cruelty execute; ſuch as, crucifixion with the head downward, burning, boiling in oil, tearing to pieces by wild horſes, beheading, hanging, &c. If the criminal eſcapes, he is executed in effigy; but his unfortunate relations are puniſhed in reality for crimes of which, perhaps, they never had the leaſt thought or conception.

So wide is the difference between their laws and thoſe of our happy iſland, that we may well ſay with the poet,

> "When ſanguinary laws are ſtrain'd too high,
> "The hapleſs guiltleſs for the guilty die,
> "And greater crimes the legiſlators cauſe,
> "Than the poor culprit who infring'd the laws."

The Japaneſe are the groſſeſt of idolators, and ſo irreconcileable to Chriſtianity, that it is commonly ſaid the

the Dutch (the only Europeans with whom they now trade) affect to renounce their own religion, and honour them in the moſt abſurd ſuperſtitions. They hold the eternal exiſtence of the world, and that the idols they worſhip were originally men, who for their exemplary piety, were at length transformed into deities. Their idols are divers, and divided into ſeveral ſects; their temples numerous, and their monaſteries abundant.

The monks are either regulars or ſeculars. The regulars reſide in convents, ſome of which contain a thouſand monks or upwards; the ſeculars are diſperſed about, and live in private houſes. The former are exceedingly abſtemious, but the latter live in luxury and idleneſs.

Some of the temples are extraordinary for their extent and magnificence, particularly one near Meaco, which is equal in ſize to St. Paul's in London, and contains the largeſt idol in the Japaneſe empire. The chair upon which it ſits is ſeventy feet high, and eighty broad. The feſtivals are as numerous as the deities; and as the number of the latter are ſo great, many of the former are daily celebrated in different parts of the empire, the number of feſtivals greatly exceeding the number of the days in the year; and various ceremonies are uſed upon theſe occaſions, according to the antiquity, dignity, and reputation of the idol whom they intend to honour.

The following is a ſuccinct account of the riſe, progreſs, and extirmination of the Chriſtian religion, in the empire of Japan. Chriſtianity was firſt introduced into this country by the Portugueſe jeſuits, in or about the year 1552; their ſkill in the mathematical ſciences being their recommendation to the emperor, nobility, and literati. They gained many proſelytes among the lower orders of the people, who were won by the mild precepts of a religion ſo different from their own, which abounded with the moſt bloody tenets; and captivated by the innumerable charities of the miſſionaries to the poor, blind, lame, and diſeaſed of all denominations, whom their own prieſts repreſented as marked out by the vengeance of the gods, and afflicted by means of their anger. Many of the petty kings, and of the nobility, likewiſe became proſelytes; but theſe the miſſionaries repreſent as hypocrites, who embraced the Chriſtian faith merely through intereſted motives; that is, either to monopolize the commerce of the Portugueſe, or to learn thoſe arts and ſciences in which the jeſuits were capable of inſtructing them. The miſſionaries had great ſucceſs till 1616, when, being artfully accuſed of having formed a plot to dethrone the emperor, and ſubvert the government, great jealouſies ſubſiſted till 1622, when a dreadful perſecution enſued, not only of the Chriſtian foreigners, but of the native proſelytes. Chriſtianity was totally extirpated, and none are ſince permitted to profeſs the Chriſtian tenets, under pain of death. Nor is a ſtranger ſuffered to land in any part of the empire, unleſs he firſt publicly renounces them.

SECTION VI.

Account of the principal Cities of the Empire of Japan. A magnificent proceſſion deſcribed.

MEACO, or Miaco, is ſituated in the province of Jamatto, and was the ancient metropolis of the whole empire. It is built in a pleaſant and extenſive plain, on the ſouthern coaſt of the Iſland of Japan, being ſurrounded at ſome diſtance by mountains, which give a delightful and romantic proſpect to the whole.

The circumadjacent country between the city and the mountains, and the mountains themſelves, are covered with temples, ſepulchres, and monaſteries, and embelliſhed with a variety of orchards, gardens, groves, caſcades, and purling ſtreams; and where

"The various leaves on ev'ry bough are ſeen,
"Some ruddy colour'd, ſome of lighter green:
"The painted birds, companions of the ſpring,
"Hopping from ſpray to ſpray, are heard to ſing:
"Both ears and eyes receive a like delight,
"Enchanting muſic and a charming ſight."

This fertile plain is watered by three conſiderable rivers, which unite their ſtreams in the center of the city, where a magnificent ſtone bridge facilitates the communication between the upper and lower town.

The palace of the dairo is ſituated in the north part of the upper town; and on the weſtern ſide is a ſtrong caſtle, which ſerves as a palace for the cubo, when he comes to pay homage to the dairo, who takes up his reſidence here. It contains a ſmall garriſon, is 600 yards in length, has a tower in the center, and is ſurrounded by two ditches, the one dry, the other full of water, and abounding with the moſt delicious fiſh.

The emperor having diſcontinued his reſidence here, the city of Meaco has greatly declined; ſo that, according to the beſt authorities, it does not at preſent contain above 100,000 ſouls. The univerſities, colleges, monaſteries, and temples, are numerous, and magnificent to a degree. But the private houſes are but two ſtories high, built of wood, and covered with clay or thatched. Every houſe is obliged to have a reſervoir, or trough of water, always ready in caſe of fire. They, however, join neatneſs with their ſimplicity; and every trade, or calling, hath its particular ſtreet or diſtrict.

So extenſive is the palace of the dairo, that it might be deemed a city of itſelf. It is incloſed by magnificent walls, flanked with ſtately towers, and ſurrounded with a double ditch. It contains twelve capital ſtreets, in the center of which are the royal apartments, ſuperbly gilt, elegantly furniſhed, and adorned with gardens, orchards, pavillions, terraces, groves, &c.

Jeddo, or Yeddo, deemed at preſent the moſt important city in the empire, for commerce, opulence, and extent, and reſidence of the cubo of Japan, is ſituate in the midſt of a fine plain, in the province of Muſaſi. It is in the form of a creſcent, and exceeds Meaco both in circumference and population. It is interſected in almoſt every ſtreet by canals of water, whoſe banks are planted with rows of trees. Theſe canals not only ſerve as ornaments to the city, but are of ſingular utility in caſes of fire, as they both afford a ready ſupply, and ſtop the progreſs of the conflagration. The city is not ſurrounded by walls, but has a ſtrong caſtle to defend it. The river Tonkag waters it, ſupplies the caſtle ditch, and being divided into five ſtreams, has a bridge over each. The principal of theſe bridges, named Niphonbas, is the ſtandard from which all the roads, poſts, and diſtances in the empire, are taken.

This city is the conſtant reſidence of the tributary princes who attend on the emperor. The ſtreets are wide and handſome, but more irregular than thoſe of Meaco. The public buildings are magnificent, but the private buildings are as mean, and at the ſame time as neat as thoſe of the above-mentioned city.

The imperial palace is a moſt noble building, formed by three cinctures, or circular piles of building, and incloſing many ſtreets, courts, apartment, pavilions, guard-houſes, gates, draw-bridges, gardens, canals, &c. &c. In it reſides the emperor and his family, the royal domeſtics, tributary princes, and their retinues, the miniſters of ſtate, many officers, and a ſtrong garriſon. The walls are built of free-ſtones, which are not cemented by mortar, or braced together with iron, but being prodigiouſly large, are laid looſe upon each other, which is a precaution taken, that they may not receive any conſiderable injury from the earthquakes which are ſo frequent. The whole pile of buildings is covered with gilt tiles, ſo that at a diſtance it makes a moſt ſplendid appearance, and ſeems to be a huge mountain of gold. Many of the ſtately apartments are formed and altered at pleaſure, by means of magnificent ſcreens, and ſuperb moveable partitions. The principal apartments, are the *hall of attendance*, where the emperor gives audience; the *council chamber*, where the miniſters

of ſtate meet; the *hall of a thouſand mats*, where the tributary princes do homage, &c. This palace was built ſo late as the year 1600, in the reign of the emperor Tayko.

This city is under the direction of two governors, who rule a year each alternately. Under theſe are inferior officers, like our aldermen, who have the direction of particular diſtricts or wards; and ſubordinate to theſe are the *ottonas*, who have each the care of a particular ſtreet.

Oſaeca, ſituated on the mouth of the river Jedogawa, deemed the chief ſea-port in the empire, is inhabited by vaſt numbers of merchants, tradeſmen, and mechanics. It is ſo very populous, that an army of eighty-thouſand men has been drawn from it upon emergencies. It is near fifteen miles in circumference, contains many elegant houſes, and ſome palaces belonging to the nobility. A ſtrong quadrangular caſtle defends the port. The walls are thick, the towers with which they are flanked well fortified, and the garriſon numerous. Two officers command here; one has the ſuperintendance of the caſtle, and the emperor's treaſures, ſtores, and cuſtoms: the other preſides over the garriſon. But the city itſelf hath a governor of its own, who has the regulation of all civil affairs. The houſes in this city are covered with a kind of earth of a yellow colour, which gives their roofs an elegant appearance; and great quantities of this earth are tranſported to other parts of the empire. In this city the watchmen make the hour known by means of three inſtruments. An hour after ſun-ſet they beat a drum, the ſucceeding hour is ſignified by ſtriking on a brazen bowl, and the hour ſubſequent to that by ringing a bell; the next hour they begin again with the drum, proceed to the bowl and bell, and ſo continue the whole night, uſing the three inſtruments alternately. In all other parts of the empire, however, the hour of the night is told by beating with two wooden cylinders againſt each other.

Sarunga is a conſiderable ſea-port town, has been the reſidence of ſome of the emperors, but is now on the decline; though it retains its ancient privilege of coining money.

About twenty miles diſtant from Oſaeca ſtands Saecai, inhabited by a proud ſet of people, who all boaſt of their anceſtors, and pretend to be deſcended from the ancient Japaneſe emperors.

This city is very advantageouſly ſituated as a place of ſtrength, being defended on the different ſides by a ſtrong wall, an inacceſſible mountain, a capacious ditch, and a formidable caſtle.

There is an iſlet near the harbour of this city, called Pie-nes, celebrated for its pleaſant groves, and feigned as the reſidence of a favourite idol, to whoſe temple many of the inhabitants of the city repair in boats; and ſome, through an exceſs of zeal, jump into the water and drown themſelves by the way.

Having deſcribed the chief cities, &c. of Niphon or Japan, we proceed to thoſe of Ximo, which are the following.

Bungo, which, though ſaid to be the capital, does not contain any thing worthy of particular notice.

Cangoxima, remarkable for being the ſpot on which the Portugueſe firſt landed, is a ſea-port. It lies in 31 deg. 42 min. north latitude; and 133 deg. 16 min. eaſt longitude. A ſtrong caſtle is built on a rock in the harbour, and a light-houſe on another very high rock in the harbour. A good garriſon is kept here, and many ſtately temples adorn the city.

Nangazaki claims notice as the mart of trade for the Dutch, being the only place in the whole Japaneſe empire where they are permitted to come. It lies in 32 deg. 30 min. north latitude, and in 131 deg. 22 min. eaſt longitude, in the province of Tingen. The city is in the form of a creſcent, delightfully ſituated among verdant lawns, and ſurrounded by pleaſant hills. It contains many handſome buildings, particularly temples, and is ſtrongly garriſoned. The ſtreets in general, are narrow and crooked, but run a conſiderable length, the temple, or ſome public building, uſually terminating the viſta. The town is watered by three rivers, and divided into upper and lower; the former containing twenty-ſix, and the latter ſixty-one ſtreets. But ſtrangers reſide in the ſuburbs, and are narrowly watched. The principal buildings are five warehouſes, in which are laid up all the materials for forming three men of war, which upon an emergency, may be taken out, and put together in a very ſhort time; a powder magazine, the palaces of the two governors, the palaces of between twenty and thirty-five grandees, ſixty-two temples, thirty-five bridges, twenty being of ſtone, and the reſt of timber, and the *gokina* or priſon, which the people very emphatically ſtile *hell*. It conſiſts of about one hundred dungeons or cages, ſeparate from each other, apartments for private executions, and baths, in which the priſoners are obliged to waſh themſelves, in order, as much as poſſible, to prevent infections.

With reſpect to the Iſland of Xicoco, the only authentic account that can be obtained is, that the capital is Ava. There are alſo other places appertaining to the Japaneſe empire, beſides thoſe we have mentioned, ſome few of which are inhabited, but the greater part are deſert.

As the curious reader will doubtleſs be highly gratified with the deſcription of a proceſſion, that equals, if not exceeds, any thing of the kind upon record, we ſhall preſent that of the cubo from Jeddo to Meaco, to pay homage to the dairo, in full diſplay.

They are uſually twelve months in making the neceſſary preparations for this ſuperb and magnificent proceſſion. The rout between the two cities is divided into twenty-eight ſtages, two of which the cubo performs in a day, entering the firſt at noon, and putting up at the other at night; hence the whole journey takes up a fortnight to complete it. At every ſtage the equipages and guards are changed; but the whole join in the proceſſion, and follow the cubo entirely to Meaco, ſo that the retinue is very conſiderably augmented daily.

Upon a certain occaſion (according to the account of a Dutch grandee, who was upon the ſpot) the dairo and cubo agreed to unite their numerous retinues, in order to render the ſcene more ſplendid and magnificent. The ſtreets were ſtrewed with a white glittering ſand, which gave them a ſilver appearance; and on each ſide a baluſtrade was erected, and lined with a double file of ſoldiers, who were all cloathed in white robes; they wore a ſcymetar on each ſide, a varniſhed cap on their heads, and a pike in their right hand.

At the dawn of day the ſuperb cavalcade began: the domeſtics of each monarch went firſt, carrying the reſpective preſents in boxes admirably wrought, and elegantly varniſhed. Theſe were followed by an hundred magnificent ſedans, containing the ladies and gentlemen of the dairo's court, each being carried by four men in white garments, a ſervant attending every one, and holding over it a beautiful umbrella of ſilk, finely embroidered with gold. Twenty-four gentlemen on horſeback ſucceeded, their caps were brown varniſhed, and adorned with a black plume of feathers: their boots were gilt, and their drawers were ſattin, covered with gold and ſilver lace; and their arms were ſcymetars, bows, and arrows. The horſes on which they rode were ſmall, beautiful, high ſpirited, and richly capariſoned. The ſaddles were finely embroidered, and the holſters made of the ſkins of tigers; elegantly decorated with red ſilk, and gold fringes. The horſes had two gilt horns placed between their ears, and their manes were curiouſly ornamented with gold and ſilver wires. Each horſe was led by two men, who held the bridle in one hand, and a rich umbrella in the other; and every one of theſe gentlemen was followed by eight ſervants, dreſſed in white, and armed with two ſcymetars each. The horſes were ſhod, upon this particular occaſion, with a knid of red ſilk, juſt ſtrong enough to ſerve for the day. After theſe came three ſuperb ſtate coaches, each of which

which had two beautiful black bulls to draw it, every bull being covered with crimſon ſilk, and led by four men. The coaches were of a ſhining brown, finely gilt, and embelliſhed with the moſt admirable decorations. Beſides a door on each ſide, they had a door behind, embelliſhed with feſtoons. The wheels were ſhod, and the ſpokes plated with gold elegantly enamelled. The bodies were ſquare, but the roofs of a circular form: he inſides were of a ſhining black varniſh, painted with the arms of the dairo. Each coach contained one of the dairo's wives, and a female attendant; and all three were ſtrongly guarded by a great number of footmen. Behind each coach was a pair of ſteps plated with gold, to ſerve in lieu of a foot-board, and the ſlippers of the lady who was riding in it. Twenty-three ſedans followed filled with the ladies of honour. Their chairs were made of a fine white wood, highly poliſhed, and adorned with plates of copper elegantly wrought. They were each carried by four men in white, followed by two with umbrellas, and guarded by a numerous eſcort. Then came ſixty-eight gentlemen on horſeback, attended by a great number of footmen. Theſe were followed by the principal grandees and miniſters of ſtate, carrying preſents of ineſtimable value, and ſucceeded by two hundred and ſixty noblemen. Then came the cubo's brothers, and one hundred and ſixty-four tributary kings and governors, each attended by a ſuitable retinue. Theſe were followed by two ſtate coaches, richer and more magnificent than the former; the firſt containing the late emperor, Fede-tadda, who had abdicated the crown in favour of his ſon Toxogunſama, who followed his father in the other coach, both being guarded by four hundred ſoldiers richly accoutered. After theſe came many other ſuperb coaches and caravans, and thirty ſedan chairs, made of ebony and ivory, richly embelliſhed, covered by the moſt ſumptuous umbrellas, eſcorted by many ſervants, both horſe and foot, and followed by a large band of muſicians, who ſung to the tune of their inſtruments. Then followed the diaro's ſedan, carried by fifty gentlemen richly apparelled, and preceded by forty life guards. The chair itſelf was as magnificent as art and expence could make it. The inſide repreſented a blue ſky, embelliſhed with the figures of the ſun, moon, and planets, admirably formed with diamonds and other precious ſtones. Perched on the ſummit of the outſide appeared the figure of a cock, with wings expanded, made of maſſy gold. And the whole cavalcade was cloſed by a numerous retinue, clad in the moſt noble garments that art could furniſh, or money procure.

SECTION VII.

Succinct Hiſtory of Japan.

THE annals of Japan, thoſe of the early times in particular, are ſo perplexed with incoherent relations, and involved in ambiguity and abſurdity, that they merit little or no attention. Their hiſtorians alſo, inſtead of adverting to the political and moral characters of their monarchs, have confined themſelves to dull, tedious and unintereſting details of their deſcent, names, births, ſucceſſion, lengths of reign, &c. to recapitulate which would conduce neither to profit or entertainment. We ſhall therefore reduce the whole as abſtracted from their own chronicles, to a narrow compaſs, as far down as any authentic account can be obtained.

From theſe it appears, that the monarchs of Japan have been famous for longevity, and that three of them in particular had lived from the age of 137 to 149 years. Sin-mu, the founder of the Japanese monarchy, began his reign 660 years before Chriſt. In the 70th year of his reign he inſtituted a form of government, eſtabliſhed laws, civilized the people, taught them chronology, and other arts and ſciences; divided time into years, and years into months and days; ſecured the crown to his poſterity; and having reigned 79 years, died in the 149th year of his age.

Some of their monarchs have ſignalized themſelves by their military exploits: one was ranked upon that account as more than mortal, and might be deemed the Mars of the Japaneſe, as was his mother the Bellona of her country.

Another monarch, named Taycho, though of mean extraction, diſplayed ſingular reſolution in the total ſubjection of the petty princes, and thereby quelling that rebellious ſpirit which was prevalent in the empire. He expelled the Portugueſe from Japan, prohibited their ever after trading with his ſubjects, and began the firſt perſecutions againſt the Chriſtians, of which there were once great numbers in different parts of the empire. The cauſe of this was ſaid to be the oppoſition of the prieſts, in not allowing them a plurality of wives, and the perſuaſion of the Dutch, who told them, that their emperor would become a ſlave to the pope.

The perſecution againſt the Chriſtians in Japan, both natives and foreigners, was carried on with ſuch horrid cruelty, that in the ſpace of four years no leſs than 20,570 perſons were cruelly maſſacred. Notwithſtanding which, in the two ſucceeding years, after the places of worſhip had been ſhut, and the public profeſſion of Chriſtianity prohibited, the Jeſuits, by their private endeavours, made 12,000 proſelytes; and when any of theſe were detected, they not only abſolutely refuſed to abjure the Chriſtian faith, but readily ſubmitted to death, and ſuffered martyrdom with aſtoniſhing conſtancy. Indeed, the perſecution continued forty years, reckoning from its commencement in the reign of Taycho, with unremitting cruelty, before Chriſtianity could be totally exterminated.

The laſt monarch, of whom there is any authentic account, was called Tſinajoſi, who ſtands upon record as a great philoſopher, a ſtrict obſerver of the laws, an humane, benevolent diſpoſition, and, in one word, the father of his people.

SECTION VIII.

Deſcription of the Land of Jeſſo, *or* Jedſo.

THIS country, which extends from 42 to 50 deg. north latitude, and lies to the northward of the Iſland of Niphon, or Japan, is governed by a tributary prince depending on that empire.

There are two different accounts of this land, one by the natives, the other by Father de Angelis, a Sicilian Jeſuit, who went thither in the year 1620. That of the former runs thus:

The natives of Jeſſo are ſtrong, fierce, and ſavage; they wear their hair and beards long, and cover themſelves all over with the ſkins of wild beaſts, with the fur outwards, ſo that, upon the whole, they have a moſt frightful appearance. Thoſe who live on the ſouthern coaſt are much more civilized than thoſe who reſide in the inland parts.

They are expert in fiſhing, hunting, and the uſe of the bow and arrow, which are their only weapons. The country is rocky, woody, but little cultivated, and in many places barren: it only produces a coarſe kind of barley, ſome roots, and a few fruit trees.

The people worſhip the firmament, but have few religious ceremonies. They are ſtrong, hardy, and addicted to drinking, when they can procure liquor: they have their ears bored, and wear ſilver ornaments hanging to them.

The Jeſuit above-mentioned gives a more favourable deſcription of theſe people, and informs us, that the natives of Jeſſo are ſtouter, taller, and fairer than the Japaneſe; that they let their beards grow very long, but ſhave the fore parts of their heads; that they make a very ſtrong wine, which they drink to exceſs, and dreſs themſelves in ſilks, cotton, or linen gowns, which are long, and embelliſhed with needle-work.

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He adds, that beſides bows and arrows, they uſe lances, ſcymeters, and poiſoned darts; that they are quarrelſome, capricious, paſſionate, and revengeful; but at the ſame time almoſt as ceremonious and inſincere as the Chineſe. Polygamy is allowed among them, and adultery they puniſh thus: they man pays a pecuniary fine, and the woman is cloſe ſhaved, which is the greateſt diſgrace that can happen to her. If the gallant refuſes to pay the mulct, the huſband has a right to ſtrip him whenever and wherever he meets him, and ſend him home naked; to effect which he calls to his aſſiſtance all that are near at hand, who are obliged to aid him in plundering the adulterer.

All the particulars mentioned by the Jeſuit are confirmed by ſeveral Dutch mariners, who have, ſince his time, viſited Jeſſo. From them it appears, that their boats are made of ſlight boards faſtened together with cords made of the bark of a tree, called coxo, which, when they return from fiſhing, are unfaſtened, and carefully laid up. That many of the natives wear rings on their fingers as well as trinkets in their ears, and paint their lips and eye-brows blue; that the men are very jealous; the women in general modeſt; and the language a corrupt mixture of the Chineſe and Japaneſe tongues.

They have no place in the whole country, that can deſerve the name of a city: even Matzimai, the capital, is a very inconſiderable town. Here the prince of the country, as well as the Japaneſe governor, reſides: but the former is obliged to go once a year to Jeddo, to do homage, and make a preſent to the emperor of Japan.

The manner of executing criminals is ſomething ſingular: the culprit is laid flat upon his back, his arms and legs being ſtretched out, and held tight by two ſtout fellows to each; the executioner then, who is armed with an iron-headed club, dances round him, ſings a ſong, and at length diſcharges ſuch a blow at his head as breaks his ſkull, which is immediately followed by another upon the ſtomach, that diſpatches him in an inſtant.

Of the Higher Jeſſo or Oku, there is no other account from the Japaneſe geographers, than that it is 900 miles in length: but the ſouthern parts of Jeſſo, already deſcribed, were conquered by Joritomo, the firſt cubo of Japan, and annexed to the dominions of that empire.

CHAP. IV.

Kingdom of COREA.

SECTION I.

Situation, Extent, Climate, Soil, and various Productions.

THE kingdom of Corea is divided into eight provinces, which contain upwards of an hundred and ſixty cities, with many caſtles and fortified places. It lies between the 34th and 43d deg. of northern latitude. From north to ſouth Corea is about 450 miles in length; and from eaſt to weſt about 225 in breadth. On the north ſide it is contiguous to that part of Chineſe Tartary which is called the Mancheoux or Manchew Tartars. Notwithſtanding this natural boundary they have built on this ſide an high wall as a limit of ſeparation between the two kingdoms. On the weſt ſide Corea hath a proſpect of Chan-tong in China, from which it is ſeparated by a bay, and over this is the moſt common paſſage from Corea to China, the way by the great mountain being almoſt impaſſable: in the winter ſeaſon they croſs this bay on foot, it being then frozen over. Corea, on the eaſt and ſouth, is bounded by the ocean.

The entrances into its ports are very difficult and dangerous, from the rocks and ſands along the coaſts. To the ſouth-eaſt the land ſtretches far towards Japan, there being only twelve leagues diſtance between the city of Pouſan in Corea and the Iſle of Tſuſſima, which is under the juriſdiction of the Japaneſe.

The northern climate of Corea is ſo exceedingly ſevere, and the ſnow ſometimes falls in ſuch prodigious quantities, that the people are forced to work a paſſage under it, in order to go from one houſe to another; and they fix a ſmall board to their feet, to keep them from ſinking into the ſnow. As this dreary region yields no rice, the inhabitants are forced to live upon barley; and, for the want of cotton, cloath themſelves in ſheep-ſkins and coarſe hempen cloth. This climate, however, produces great plenty of ginſeng, with which the natives carry on a very profitable trade to Japan; this gin-ſeng, however, is inferior to that of Tartary.

The ſouthern parts of the kingdom are fruitful, producing every neceſſary of life, as rice, millet, and other ſorts of grain; alſo ſilk, cotton and flax: the Coreans, however, have not the art of manufacturing ſilk into piece goods. Here grows a kind of grain called *paniz*, of which they make a ſtrong liquor. The Japaneſe, within this laſt century, have taught them to plant and dreſs tobacco, the uſe of which they were entire ſtrangers to before. Here are ſilver, lead, and iron mines: nor do the natives make an inconſiderable profit of their tyger, ſable, and caſtor ſkins. The country abounds with all ſorts of cattle, as well as with both wild and tame fowl. They have a breed of horſes not more than four or five feet high. They have wolves, tygers, and bears, but no elephants. In their rivers are many crocodiles, or *kaimans*, as ſtiled by the natives. The back of the *kaiman* is covered with ſo ſtrong a coat of ſcales, as to be muſket proof: it has a large head, and a mouth opening almoſt to its ears. Contrary to all other animals, this creature moves only its upper jaw. Its back bone conſiſts of a long proceſs of vertebræ, or moving joints; and in its fins it hath a ſort of claws. It is a very voracious animal, and is alike greedy of fiſh and fleſh, particularly human fleſh. This country produces likewiſe great numbers of ſerpents, and other reptiles of the venomous kind.

The rivers Yalu and Tumen take their riſe in the high mountain that joins Corea to Chineſe Tartary, one running to the weſt, and the other to the eaſt. This mountain, which is one of the higheſt in Aſia, is always covered with ſnow, and is therefore called Changpe-chang by the Chineſe, and Chan-alia by the Tartars, or the White Mountain.

SECTION II.

Perſons, Diſpoſition, Dreſs, Habitations, Marriages, Funerals, Ceremonies, &c. of the Natives.

THE inhabitants of this country are, in general, well made, with good features, of a tractable diſpoſition, addicted to pleaſure, and very fond of muſic and dancing. They are, for the moſt part, weak and credulous; yet, at the ſame time, tricking and deceitful. They have, notwithſtanding, a law among them, by which fraudulent contracts are made void, where there is evident proof of the deceit.

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They are timid and pufillanimous, and conſequently the life of a ſoldier is their averſion. They abhor the ſight of blood; nor are leſs ſhocked at beholding ſick people, eſpecially ſuch as have any malignant diſeaſe. The ſick are removed into little ſtraw hovels in the fields, where their relations are charged with the care of them, and receive ſtrict orders to warn all paſſengers to keep at a diſtance; and ſometimes the poor wretches are entirely forſaken, and ſuffered to periſh. When a town or village is viſited by the plague, they hedge up all the avenues to ſuch town or village by briars, and place ſignals on the infected houſes.

Thoſe of the firſt rank wear a purple-coloured ſilk gown with long and wide ſleeves, and a ſaſh or girdle thrown round them. They alſo wear fur caps and linen buſkins. The common claſſes wear cotton or hempen cloth.

In general their habitations are mean; but thoſe of perſons of diſtinction are handſome and ſpacious. In the front of theſe is an advanced apartment for the accommodation of ſtrangers, the receiving of viſits, and the giving entertainments. There are generally alſo belonging to them a grand court, a fountain, and a garden planted with rows of trees. At the lower end of the court are the apartments of the women, into which no ſtrangers are admitted; though the better ſort occaſionally ſuffer their wives to receive viſits in the common-hall, and alſo to ſit at table: however, they always ſit immediately oppoſite to their huſbands.

Tobacco is uſed here by perſons of both ſexes, and all ages.

Marriages are here prohibited to the third degree of kindred. Sometimes children of ſeven or eight years old are contracted; in which caſe the females (an only daughter excepted) are brought up by the father-in-law, till the celebration of the nuptials. On the day of marriage the bridegroom mounts his ſteed, accompanied by his friends, and, after riding through different parts of the town, ſtops at the door of his bride, upon which her relations come out to him, and then conduct her to his houſe, where the nuptials are, without further ceremony, conſummated.

A plurality of wives is allowed, provided the huſband keeps only one at home. A partiality, however, is ſhewn to the grandees, who often keep three or four at home; but then one of them acts as ſole and ſupreme miſtreſs.

The Coreans do not, in general, manifeſt any particular attachment to their wives: on the contrary, they too frequently treat them not much better than ſlaves. They not only divorce them at their pleaſure, but oblige them at the ſame time to take their children along with them.

The moſt conſiderable part of the father's ſubſtance devolves to the eldeſt ſon: the reſidue of his effects is equally divided among the other male children, the daughters having no claim to any ſhare in the dividend.

If the father of a family lives to a very advanced age, it is cuſtomary for him to make over the whole of his ſubſtance to his eldeſt ſon, who in that caſe, takes poſſeſſion of the family houſe, and builds a ſmaller one for his aged father, whom he provides for with all dutiful reſpect, though he has nothing farther to expect from him.

The Coreans bury their dead only at two ſeaſons of the year, ſpring and autumn; and, till the time of burial arrives, place the corpſe in a kind of hut made of ruſhes, raiſed upon four ſtakes, in their courts or gardens. The deceaſed lies in a double coffin, the parts of which are cemented cloſely together, and is dreſſed in his beſt apparel, with ſome toys lying by the ſide of him. All the kindred of the deceaſed repair to his houſe on the evening preceding the funeral, and paſs the night in carouſing and jollity. At dawn of day they ſet out in proceſſion with the body, the bearers ſinging all the way, and keeping exact time with their voices and ſteps, while the reſt of the company pierce the air with their doleful lamentations. In general they are interred in graves five or ſix feet deep: but people of rank are depoſited in ſtone vaults, whereon is commonly placed the effigy of the deceaſed, with an inſcription at bottom, diſplaying his titles, &c. The company who attend the corpſe at the funeral return three days after to the ſepulchre, to make their offerings to the deceaſed, which ſuperſtitious practice is repeated monthly, at the full of the moon, when they cut the graſs growing round the vault or grave.

Children mourn for their fathers three years, during which time no one is allowed to exerciſe any public office. A man muſt not even lie with his wife: for ſhould any infant be born during the time of mourning, it would not be allowed to be legitimate in law. Quarrelling, fighting, or immoderate drinking, during the mourning, is deemed an high miſdemeanour.

The mourning worn by the Coreans conſiſts of a ſhabby gown of coarſe ſtuff, under which they have a ſort of hair cloth corded, with a twiſted band of the ſame hanging down from their hats, which are made of green ruſhes. During the whole time of mourning they never waſh themſelves, and conſequently appear very filthy.

On the deceaſe of a relation, the kindred run into the ſtreets like frantic people, tearing their hair, and alarming the whole neighbourhood with their bitter lamentations.

The Coreans are under very little religious reſtraint. According to a late author, the grandees appear void of all devotion, and rather idolize themſelves than their gods: and though the common claſs are more religious, yet their worſhip ſeems to conſiſt more in external ceremony, than inward adoration. The religion of Foë, ſo much in eſteem by the commonality of China, hath ſome votaries in Corea alſo. The country abounds with temples conſecrated to this deity. Here too are the followers of Confucius.

They aſſemble, on particular occaſions, in their temples, when every one lights a piece of ſweet-ſcented wood, and throws it into a vaſe placed before the idol. The greateſt part of the Coreans believe the doctrine of tranſmigration, and that there is a future ſtate of rewards and puniſhments.

There are prodigious numbers of monks in almoſt every part of the kingdom. Some cities maintain, within their particular juriſdiction reſpectively, not leſs than 4000 of them: and there are ſingle convents containing five or ſix hundred, which are divided into diſtinct claſſes of ten, twenty, and thirty each. The ſenior of the convent is inveſted with the authority of governor, and has the power of inflicting the baſtinado on his inferiors, upon any violation of the rules of their order. Theſe monks do not bind themſelves by vow for life, as in ſome other countries, but have the privilege of returning to a ſecular life when weary of ſolitude: and it muſt be acknowledged that their mode of life is not very eligible; for they are not only ſubject to a moſt rigorous diſcipline, but are forced to pay heavy taxes impoſed on them by the ſtate, and are beſides held in contempt by the generality of the people. The royal monks, indeed, are better reſpected: theſe are ſuch as live about the court, and are often employed in offices of high importance. The monks are enjoined the greateſt abſtinence; and a failure of obedience is puniſhed with an expulſion from the monaſtery, beſides previouſly ſuffering the baſtinado.

There are alſo two monaſteries for religious women; the one for daughters of the nobility, and the other for young women of inferior rank. They are all ſhaved, but not confined for life, and have a diſpenſation from the king to marry, if they pleaſe, and leave the monaſtery.

SECTION III.

State of the Sciences, Language, Mode of Education, Commerce, &c.

THESE people hold the liberal arts in high eſteem. Like the Chineſe, they have their doctors and other literati, who diſtinguiſh themſelves by a double

feather in their caps. They paſs regularly to their degrees, through certain annual examinations in the chief cities, agreeable to the Chineſe cuſtom. The aſſemblage of candidates on theſe occaſions is very conſiderable; but, unfortunately, the ſuffrages of the electors are for the moſt part venal.

In geography they are very ignorant, and have the moſt abſurd notions. They think that the globe conſiſts only of twelve kingdoms; and their map extends no farther than Siam. Even the literati entertain the erroneous idea that there are no more than twelve nations in the univerſe; nor has it been poſſible to convince them of their errors.

The Corean language hath a ſet of characters peculiar to itſelf, which the women, and common claſſes of community, ſpeak and write. However, the literati affect the Chineſe language.

They have the ſame method of printing as the Chineſe; and alſo a grand library, which is under the immediate care of the firſt prince of the blood.

Their mode of education is highly commendable. Without rigour, they implant in the tender mind a ſenſe of honour and emulation. They relate to their children the virtues of their anceſtors, and ſpur them on to aſſiduity in their ſtudies, by extolling the advantage and reputation of learning; the principal part of which conſiſts in the knowledge of moral philoſophy, as preſcribed by the great Confucius.

Their chief commerce is with the Japaneſe, more particularly with the iſlanders of Tſuſſima, ſubject to Japan, who have a factory at Pouſan in Corea, to which place they bring the ſcented wood, allum, paper, pepper, buffalos horns, and other commodities, in exchange for which they receive cotton and gin-ſeng.

The only ſpecies of money uſed by the Coreans are pieces of copper, called *caſh*; and theſe are current no farther than the frontiers of China. In other parts they make their payments in wedges or ingots of ſilver, without any ſtamp or mark on them.

SECTION IV.

Civil, Military, and Naval Inſtitutions.

THOUGH the king of Corea is no more than a vaſſal to the emperor of China, he affects as much ſtate and pompous ceremony. He keeps continually in his ſervice a great number of houſhold troops: theſe guard his palace, and attend on him wherever he goes.

If any one happens to be in the way where the king is paſſing, he muſt inſtantly turn aſide, and not preſume to look at his majeſty; and the people all ſhut up their doors and windows; for the king muſt not be ſeen by any of them; and ſhould any one be diſcovered peeping, he would ſuffer the baſtinado.

He exerciſes an unlimited authority over his ſubjects, is lord of all the lands in his kingdom, no private perſon having the abſolute right and property of any eſtate. Theſe lands his majeſty beſtows on whomſoever he pleaſes, and for whatever term of years he thinks proper; though, on the death of the feoffee, the land reverts to the crown.

His council of ſtate is compoſed of ſeveral miniſters, who aſſemble daily in his palace; though none are ſuffered to give an opinion upon any thing till firſt aſked by his majeſty; neither dare they meddle in any ſtate concern without his royal order. If they behave well, and to the ſatisfaction of the king, they are continued in office during life: and this rule holds good alſo with reſpect to the other court officers, who, unleſs guilty of ſome miſdemeanor, generally die in their employments: but ſuch employments do not paſs by patent to their children.

Magiſtrates of cities, and governors of fortified places, are choſen every third year. In caſe of malpractices, theſe are either ſent into exile, or ſentenced to ſuffer death.

Excluſive of the revenues ariſing from the rents of lands granted to the people, the king has the tythe of every thing productive of profit either on land or ſea: the tythe of the fruits of the earth is collected in harveſt time, before the crop is taken off from the ground.

There is great rigour, as well as partiality, in the laws of this country. All rebels and traitors, together with their whole families, are cut off without the leaſt gleam of mercy, and the habitations of the ſufferers levelled with the ground. If a woman kills her huſband, ſhe is placed up to her ſhoulders in the earth of ſome high-road, and cloſe to her is placed an hatchet, with which every one gives her a chop as he paſſes by her. In ſhort, all paſſengers are obliged to do this by the laws, except thoſe of noble family. The magiſtrates of the place where the murder is perpetrated, are ſuſpended from the execution of their office: and if it be a town of note, it forfeits its juriſdiction, and becomes ſubordinate to ſome other town; or, at beſt, only ſome private ſubject has the care of it. The ſame penalty is inflicted on any town revolting from the obedience due to its governor, or for bringing any accuſation againſt him not founded in truth.

Notwithſtanding the ſeverity of the laws reſpecting the women, they juſtify and protect the man who kills his wife when detected in adultery, or any other capital offence, proved by ſubſtantial evidence: or if he gives her up to public juſtice, ſhe is condemned to die, with permiſſion, however, to chooſe the mode of her ſuffering death: and in this caſe the women generally cut their own throat.

If an unmarried man be detected in criminal converſation with a married woman, they puniſh him by ſtripping him down to the waiſt, and leaving him only a pair of drawers on: they then ſmear his face with lime, pierce an arrow through each of his ears, and tie a kettle on his back, which is beat upon as the offender walks through the ſtreets, and then he receives the baſtinado.

Murder committed on the perſon of a freeman, is puniſhed as follows. They oblige the criminal to ſwallow a quantity of vinegar with which the body of the murdered perſon has been waſhed; then they trample the delinquent under foot, and kick him on the belly till he dies. Theft is puniſhed in the ſame manner.

The common mode of puniſhment is the exerciſe of the baſtinado on the poſteriors, and ſometimes on the ſhins and ſoles of the feet. When this diſcipline is given on the ſhins, they bind the legs of the ſufferer to a couple of benches, the one at his feet, and the other under his hams, and in this poſture they ſtrike him on the legs with a ſort of laſh. They are not permitted to inflict more than thirty ſtrokes at a time. However, two or three hours afterwards, they repeat the diſcipline, and ſo on till they have given the full number of ſtrokes agreeable to the ſentence paſſed. When an offender is ſentenced to ſuffer the baſtinado on the ſoles of his feet, they compel him to ſit down on the ground, and then tying his two great toes together, fix them in a wooden frame, and inflict the appointed number of ſtrokes.

Women and apprentices commonly receive the baſtinado on the calves of their legs. Perſons who are in arrears with the king, or who refuſe to pay their other creditors, are ſentenced to be baſtinadoed on their ſhins, which dreadful and painful diſcipline is repeated every fifteen days, till they pay the debt or debts.

The grand council try all criminals of ſtate, and are obliged to lay all the particulars of their proceedings before the king.

The military government in Corea is nearly the ſame as the civil, each province having a general, or chief of the militia, with four or five colonels under him, each of them commanding a regiment; and every colonel has under him ſo may captains, each of which has the government of ſome fortreſs or town. In ſhort, there is ſcarce a village but what has a commanding officer in it: and the inferior officers are obliged to keep an accurate liſt of all the men belonging to their reſpective

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Engraved for BANKES's *New System of* GEOGRAPHY *Published by Royal Authority.*

HABITS *of Oriental or Eastern* TARTARS.

Dresses and persons of TWITSIKAR *a province of Eastern* TARTARY.

tive corps, which they tranſmit to their ſuperior officers at ſtated times, that the king may know exactly the number of ſoldiers he has in pay.

Every city in the kingdom is compelled to fit out one complete ſhip of war. Their ſhips have commonly two maſts and about thirty oars, with five or ſix men to each oar, which, added to marines on board, make a crew of about three hundred men in each ſhip. Their ſtores conſiſt principally of cannon and pot-granadoes. Every province has its particular admiral, who is obliged to review the ſhips of war belonging to his province annually.

SECTION V.

Compendious Hiſtory of Corea.

THE inhabitants of Corea were once divided under different princes, laws, maxims, and cuſtoms. In proceſs of time they united, and formed themſelves into one nation. According to the Chineſe annals, the moſt conſiderable of theſe early natives were named Kau-kiu-li, deſcended from the Tartars.

The firſt king of Corea is ſaid to have been Ki-tſe, a nephew of Gehou, emperor of China, who introduced into the kingdom the Chineſe laws, civilized his people, and acquitted himſelf in the public adminiſtration of affairs, with great prudence and wiſdom. This event happened in the year 1120 before Chriſt.

The throne of Corea was filled by the ſucceſſors of Ki-tſe near nine hundred years: but, at length, Tehuang-ſiang-vang, emperor of China, ſubdued the Coreans, and reduced the title of their king to that of *hean*, or count, with a very limited authority annexed. About forty years afterwards a prince of the family of Ki-tſe, named Chun, reſumed the title of king, but was in a very ſhort time dethroned; and, at his death, the race of Ki-tſe became extinct.

A native of China, named Vey-nan, then forced his way to the throne of Corea, and, in order to ſecure his uſurpation, courted an alliance with the emperor of China, and obtained the title of *vang*, or king. The ſovereignty, however, did not continue a long time in the family of Vey-nan; for his grandſon was maſſacred, and the Chineſe profiting by the confuſion attendant on this circumſtance, conquered Corea a ſecond time. It was, however, in proceſs of time, reſtored to its ancient monarchial form of government, and the king ſubmitted to pay a tribute to the emperors of China.

Corea has ſince undergone various revolutions; ſometimes being under vaſſalage to the Chineſe, ſometimes tributary, ſometimes independant, and very often at war with that nation. It is now, however, tributary to it; and his Corean majeſty, on his acceſſion to the throne, receives from the emperor of China, his confirmation upon his knees.

CHAP. V.

EASTERN TARTARY.

SECTION I.

Of Tartary in general, and Eaſtern Tartary in particular. Extent, Cuſtoms, Religion, &c.

TARTARY, taken in its full extent, is bounded on the weſt by the Caſpian Sea and Perſia; to the ſouth by Perſia, Indoſtan, Arracan, Ava, China, and Corea; to the eaſt by the Pacific Ocean; and to the north by the Frozen Ocean. It lies between the 55th and 141ſt degrees of longitude from London, and between the 37th and 55th degrees of north latitude, being 3600 miles long, and upwards of 900 broad in many places. One part is ſubject to the Chineſe empire; another is under the dominion of Ruſſia; and the third is independent.

This wild and inhoſpitable country is inhabited by people of different denominations, manners, and cuſtoms. The Mantcheoux, or Mantchew Tartars, live chiefly in huts on the banks of the rivers. Their country is in the north of Lao-tong, the moſt eaſterly of the Chineſe provinces, and is bounded by the river Saghalian-ula on the north, by Corea and Lao-tong on the ſouth, eaſterly by the ocean, and weſterly by the Mongols country. It is divided into three provinces, viz. Mugden, Kirin-ula, and Tſitſi-bar; and hence originated that enterprizing ſpirit, which, in time, triumphed over the imperial throne of China.

The ſoil of the province of Mugden (which is about 270 miles in length, and 120 broad) is a favourable one, producing ſome wheat, millet, and cotton, as well as paſture for cattle, and ſeveral ſorts of fruit.

In Mugden, the capital, are ſeveral public buildings, and courts of juſtice as at Pe-king.

But the moſt capital city is Fon-wang-ching, which, indeed, may be deemed the key of the great peninſula of Corea.

From Mugden to the city of Pe-king, which is about 1100 miles diſtant, there are two large handſome roads, which are kept conſtantly in repair, and which were, with great labour, formed principally for the emperor, whenever it ſhould be his royal pleaſure to viſit his Tartarian territories. One of theſe roads is for the paſſage of his majeſty to Tartary, and the other for his paſſage back from thence to Pe-king.

The ſecond province is Kirinula. It has Lao-tong on the weſt for its boundary, the ocean on the eaſt, Corea on the ſouth, and the river Saghalian-ula north; it is a mountainous deſart, upwards of 740 miles in length, and 600 in breadth. Added to a moſt bleak, keen air, here is ſcarce any thing to be ſeen but the gloomy tops of mountains, nor any thing heard but the hideous howlings of wolves and tigers. Very little rice grows here, but plenty of oats.

Thoſe Tartars, who take up their reſidence in huts on the river Uſuri, and ſubſiſt principally on fiſh, are Yupis. They imitate the Chineſe in dreſs, and the women decorate their hair with a variety of baubles.

The Ke-cheng Tartars live after the ſame manner on the banks of Saghalian-ula.

When the rivers are frozen over, they are drawn in ſledges upon the ice by dogs. They are very ignorant and uncivilized, though peaceable and inoffenſive.

The Yupis have no ſovereign prince, but chooſe ſeveral chiefs. The Mugden provincials have a Tartarian general, who has a lieutenant-general, and a great number of ſoldiers under him.

The third province of Eaſtern Tartary is Twitſikar, and the capital, alſo named Twitſikar, is peopled moſtly by Chineſe, and is a place of tolerable trade.

Some of theſe people are famous for hunting ſables, the ſkins of which are of great utility to them; and the women hunt them as well as the men. In the purſuit of this game they frequently meet with tygers, which they are never afraid to engage, and generally get the better of them: however, if any one is unfortunately killed by this animal, his companion or companions do not decline their purſuit of the ſable: for their livelihood

lihood depends principally upon the furs they get by their activity and perſeverance in the field.

Here are ſome gold mines, and ſeveral of the rivers contain fine pearl fiſheries, the pearls of which are highly eſteemed by the natives.

The lateſt and moſt authentic account reſpecting the manners and government of the Scythians, or Eaſtern Tartars, is the following.

The extenſive regions of Scythia, or Tartary, have ever been inhabited by vagrant tribes of hunters and ſhepherds, too indolent to cultivate the earth, and too reſtleſs to be confined to one ſpot. They have, however, been famous for their courage and conqueſts, and though vagrant ſhepherds, cauſed the monarchs of Aſia to tremble on their thrones.

Through the neglect of agriculture, theſe people are reduced to the neceſſity of living upon their flocks and herds, which, as they accompany them on the march, afford a ſure and increaſing ſupply of fleſh and milk. They feed indifferently on the fleſh of thoſe animals that have been killed for the table, or died with diſeaſe. Horſe-fleſh, which in every age and country has been proſcribed by the civilized nations of Europe and Aſia, they devour with peculiar greedineſs, and this ſingular taſte tends to the ſucceſs of their military operations. As the cavalry of Scythia is always followed by a number of ſpare horſes, theſe may be occaſionally uſed for the purpoſe of ſpeed, or to appeaſe the hunger of the barbarians. When the forage round the camp of Tartars is almoſt conſumed, they ſlaughter a part of their cattle, and preſerve the fleſh either ſmoaked or dried in the ſun. On a haſty march they provide themſelves with a ſufficient quantity of little balls of cheeſe, or rather of hard curd, which they occaſionally diſſolve in water, and this unſubſtantial diet will ſupport for many days the life and even ſpirits of the moſt patient warrior.

Notwithſtanding this extraordinary abſtinence in point of food, the wines of a happier climate are the moſt grateful preſent, as the moſt valuable commodity that can be offered to theſe Tartars; and the only example of their induſtry ſeems to conſiſt in the art of extracting from mare's milk a fermented liquor, which poſſeſſes a very ſtrong power of intoxication. Upon the whole, it may be ſaid, that the ſtomachs of theſe barbarians are inured to ſuſtain, without much inconvenience, the oppoſite extremes of hunger and intemperance.

The habitations of the Tartars are ſmall tents of an oval form, which afford a cold and dirty reception for the promiſcuous youth of both ſexes. The houſes of the rich are conſtructed of wood, and of ſuch a ſize that they may be conveniently fixed on large waggons, and drawn by a team of twenty or thirty oxen. The flocks and herds, after grazing all the day in the adjacent paſture, retire on the approach of night within the protection of the camp. The neceſſity, therefore, of preventing the moſt miſchievous confuſion in ſuch a perpetual concourſe of men and animals muſt gradually introduce a ſettled plan of the diſtribution, the order, and the guard of the encampment.

In the ſummer theſe Tartars advance towards the north, and pitch their tents on the banks of a river, or at leaſt in the neighbourhood of a running ſtream. In the winter they return to the ſouth, and ſhelter their camp behind ſome convenient eminence. It muſt appear, therefore, that theſe manners are admirably calculated to diffuſe among the wandering tribes the ſpirit of emigration and conqueſt.

As the paſtoral life compared with the labour of agriculture and manufactures, may be ſaid to be a life of idleneſs, and as the ſuperiour people among the Tartars devolve on their captives the management of their cattle, their leiſure is ſpent in the violent and ſanguinary exerciſe of the chace. They are bold and ſkilful riders, and their horſes are eaſily trained for the purpoſes of war and hunting. The Scythians are equally expert in the management of the lance and drawing the bow. The vigour and patience both of men and horſes are continually exerciſed by the fatigues of the chace, the objects of which are, the hare, the goat, the roebuck, the ſtag, the elk, and the antelope.

Nor are the exploits of theſe hunters confined to the deſtruction of timid or innoxious animals; they boldly encounter the angry wild boar when he turns againſt his purſuers, excite the ſluggiſh courage of the bear, and provoke the fury of the tyger as he ſlumbers in the thicket. The general hunting matches, the pride and delight of the Tartar princes, compoſe an inſtructive exerciſe for their numerous cavalry. A circle is drawn of many miles in circumference to encompaſs the game of an extenſive diſtrict, and the troops that form the circle regularly advance towards a common centre, where the captive animals, ſurrounded on every ſide, are abandoned to the darts of the hunters. In this march, which frequently continues many days, the cavalry are obliged to climb the hills, to ſwim the rivers, and to wind through the vallies without interrupting the preſcribed order of their gradual progreſs. Now, as the ſame patience and valour, the ſame ſkill and diſcipline are required againſt a human enemy, the exerciſe of the chace ſerves as a preparative for the conqueſt of a kingdom.

SECTION II.

COUNTRY OF THE MONGOLS.

Cuſtoms, General Account, as to the Country, Natives, Religion, Productions, &c.

THIS country is ſituated to the northward of China. The natives are of the ſame original as thoſe who accompanied Tamerlane in his conqueſts. It is bounded on the eaſt by the territories of the Mantchews, by the country of Kalkas on the weſt, by China on the ſouth, and by Eaſtern Tartary, and the Kalka Tartars, on the north. It is about 800 leagues in length, and 200 broad.

The climate is exceedingly ſevere here, and ice lies on the ground eight or nine months together. It is a country little known, except that part of it which the caravans paſs in travelling from Muſcovy to China.

With reſpect to the perſons of the natives, they are in general of a middle ſize, but very ſtrongly made, with broad faces, black eyes, flat noſes, long whiſkers, ſallow complexion, and of a moſt rude behaviour. Their hair is nearly as thick and ſtrong as horſe-hair, which they cut cloſe to the head, and leave only a tuft at top. They wear large ſhirts and calico drawers; and their garments, which are lined with ſheep-ſkin, reach almoſt down to their feet: theſe they faſten on their bodies by ſtrong leather ſtraps. Indeed, when on horſeback, they wear a ſhort jacket, with narrow deer-ſkin ſleeves, having the fur outward, with trowſers and hoſe of the ſame kind of ſkin, both of one piece, and light to the limbs. On their heads they have caps bordered with fur. The women are not quite ſo coarſe featured as the men, though their dreſs is much the ſame.

The animals of this country are camels, dromedaries, cows, horſes, ſheep, mules, elks, bears, tygers, and wolves. There is alſo every ſpecies of game known in Europe.

Of vegetable productions, there is rhubarb, and other medicinal articles; and of mineral, are ſalt and ſaltpetre.

There is a race of Tartars called the Kalka Mongols, who are dependent on China. Theſe dwell beyond the Mongols, and take their name from the great river Kalka. Their perſons, manners, habits, &c. are the ſame as the Mongols.

The habitations of the Mongols, who are a wandering people, are little moveable huts, formed of twigs, and covered with matted wool. They have a fire in the center, with a hole at the top to let out the ſmoak, and boards or benches round the fire, to ſit or lie upon.

Habits of the Women of Eastern Tartary.

Woodman Sculp.

Habits of the Women of Western Tartary.

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Ever having had an averſion to a ſettled life, they continually rove about from place to place, with herds and flocks. They generally ſet out in the ſpring on their peregrinations, and their number is frequently ten thouſand in one body, preceded by their herds, &c. When they come to an inviting ſpot, they live upon it till all the graſs and verdure are eaten up. The ſpots on which they fix their tents, are commonly the banks of ſome lake or river; and in the winter they remove to the ſides of mountains, where, it is ſaid, they are ſo ſociable as ſometimes to make ſubterraneous communications from hut to hut.

Their chief food is horſe-fleſh, of which they are paſſionately fond, and that which is the moſt tainted is the moſt palatable. They ſubſiſt otherwiſe by hunting and fiſhing, as well as on the milk of camels, goats, cows, and mares. They drink water that has been boiled with the coarſeſt ſort of Chineſe tea. They extract a ſpirituous liquor from the four milk of mares, and diſtil it after fermentation: with this they get intoxicated, and ſmoke a great deal of tobacco.

They are as filthy in their dreſs as in their food, and ſtink as they paſs. The dung of their cattle they often make uſe of as fuel.

The ſupporting a war by laying waſte a country is a very ancient cuſtom among theſe people. Their tribes are commanded by ſeparate khans or leaders, and they elect a great khan, who conſequently claims a paramount power over all. His reſidence is a kind of military moving ſtation, and he can bring into the field from twenty to ſixty or ſeventy thouſand horſemen.

One of their monarchs ſo prided himſelf on his authority, opulence, and grandeur, that, each day (ſays an author) as ſoon as he was ſeated to dinner, a trumpet ſounded, by way of giving notice to all the other monarchs in the globe, that they might alſo go to dinner.

The weapons of theſe people are bows and arrows, in the uſe of which they are very dexterous. They are inured to horſemanſhip from their infancy, and will, while in full gallop, hit a ſmall mark with an arrow, though at a conſiderable diſtance.

They have the utmoſt contempt for agriculture, looking upon all buſineſs of that kind as the moſt abject ſtate of ſlavery. When they are angry with any one, they wiſh it may be his fate to work like an European.

The younger of them make ſmall huts for the aged invalids near the river, and there leave them for their ſpeedy journey into the next world; and think that in this they do them a friendly office.

Having no other occupation than to attend on their cattle, which they ſell or exchange with the Chineſe for ordinary tea, coarſe cloth, &c. they are never troubled with much care and anxiety; for they have nobody to pleaſe, nor any body to fear.

This wandering ſavage race of people cannot be ſuppoſed to be under any very regular form of government, eſpecially as they are continually roving from place to place. It muſt be obſerved, that as their country is divided into diſtricts, and that as each of theſe hath a khan of its own, the Tartars of one province muſt not emigrate to another: they are to confine themſelves to their own nation, where they have full liberty to roam as much as they pleaſe.

The men purchaſe their wives with cattle; and when the wife is turned of forty, ſhe is employed by the huſband as a ſlave, and as ſuch muſt attend the young wife who ſucceeds her.

The Mongols worſhip the idol Foë, and they have an high prieſt among them, to whom they do homage, and think that he has the power of obtaining favours from Foë for them. Whenever this prieſt ſignifies his pleaſure to remove to any particular part of the country, the inferior prieſts, and a great number of other perſons attend him; and thoſe who reſide on the ſpot to which he is going, meet him on the road in crowds, ſupplicating his bleſſing, which he never fails to beſtow upon ſuch as can make him an adequate contribution towards his ſupport; and this he is in no doubt of receiving for his benediction, as he ſuffers none to approach his ſacred perſon but the higher order of people. This high-prieſt is named Khutucktu; and ſome of the deluded people think that the ſpirit which animates him, immediately, on his death, paſſes into the body of him who is elected to ſucceed him. Many others think that he grows old with the decline of the moon, and reſumes his youth with the new moon.

Thoſe who die in their hut are thrown into a burning pile, and their bodies conſumed to aſhes, which are afterwards interred with great ſolemnity on ſome mountain.

CHAP. VI.

WESTERN TARTARY.

AS there are divers nations or tribes of Aſiatic Tartars bordering on the Caſpian Sea, and on the north of Perſia, we ſhall deſcribe them ſeverally under diſtinct Sections.

SECTION I.

ASTRACHAN TARTARY.

ASTRACHAN Tartary is bounded on the eaſt by the country of the Coſſacks, towards the ſouth by Circaſſia, on the north by the kingdom of Cazan, and part of Siberia. The eaſtern boundaries are deſarts very little known, and not inhabited. It lies between 44 deg. 10 min. and 52 deg. north latitude.

The metropolis of this kingdom is called Aſtrachan. It is built upon an iſland in the Volga, known by the name of the Iſle of Hares. The capital was long ſubject to the Tartars, from whom it was taken by the Ruſſians. This city is populous, it abounds in well furniſhed magazines, and hath a citadel ſurrounded by a thick brick wall, of about thirty feet in height. Though the citadel, which lies towards the weſt of the city, is irregularly built, the baſtions are ſtrong, and the cannon numerous. Here is a palace for the governor, and another for the archbiſhop. In the court of chancery all civil and military affairs are heard and adjuſted, and the records are kept. The citadel hath three gates, one opens to the city, another to the Volga, and the third to the Tartar ſuburbs. It likewiſe contains a guard-houſe, a metropolitan church, and a monaſtery.

A conſiderable wall encircles the city, which conſiſts principally of three long ſtreets from eaſt to weſt, interſected by many others, and is, upon the whole, about a mile in length. The houſes are built of timber. The ſuburbs are extenſive, and more populous than the city. There are four churches and a monaſtery belonging to thoſe of the Greek perſuaſion. The reformed have a church built of wood. The Roman Catholics have a monaſtery, and the Armenians a church of ſtone. Without the ſuburbs are a naval and military hoſpital, and a large monaſtery.

Aſtrachan is inhabited by Armenians, Ruſſians, and Tartars of various denominations. The latter are not permitted to ſtay all night in the city. It is garriſoned by five regiments of infantry, and one of dragoons. Many field regiments and Coſſacks, excluſive of the Tartar militia, winter here, beſides the garriſon itſelf. The regulars are ready to march againſt the wild Tartars whenever they attempt to make any incurſions into this kingdom; and the irregulars are employed to ſcour the deſarts, in order to trace out the lurking places of the banditti.

The articles of importance here are chiefly ſilks, brocades, velvets, ſattins, drugs, copper, cotton, Perſian fruits, wines, ſweetmeats, &c. Thoſe of exportation are meal, fiſh, ſalt, woollen, &c. All naval and military ſtores are prohibited from being exported to Perſia.

The merchants of Aſtrachan have permiſſion to navigate the Caſpian Sea: beſides which, they always keep a great number of barks on the Volga. Formerly theſe barks were frequently robbed by a ſtrong body of pirates, who either lurked in the immenſe woods near the banks, or on the iſlands in that river: but this evil is now pretty well remedied: as the lawleſs banditti, who ſpread ſo much terror in Aſtrachan, have been almoſt exterminated by the care of the governor of Caſan.

Pirates committing depredations on the Volga, are ſentenced to be hanged up alive by the ribs, upon gibbets fixed upon floats, where they are left to expire in the greateſt agonies; and if any perſons relieve them, they render themſelves liable to ſuffer the ſame puniſhment.

Peter the Great planted a large mulberry garden near the city of Aſtrachan, and deſigned to eſtabliſh a ſilk factory; but the building and gardens are fallen to decay, and the money intended to carry on this deſign, was applied to more courtly and venal, though leſs noble and patriotic, purpoſes.

The chief offices of ſtate are veſted in the Ruſſians. The Georgians, who profeſs the Greek religion, are fond of ſerving in the army. And the Armenians, who, in perſons, diſpoſitions, and features, very much reſemble the Jews, have no other ideas but of ſcraping money together by the means of traffic. As for the Perſian and Tartar inhabitants, they are too fond of indolence and roving, to think of any thing elſe, unleſs compelled to do it by abſolute neceſſity.

The ſoil of this country is light and ſandy, but ſo much impregnated with ſalt, as greatly to add to its ſterility. The earth produces no grain, unleſs it has been overflowed during the winter ſeaſon. To remedy this, ſome of the Tartars cut trenches in their grounds, which have been under water, and, draining them, they ſoon become fit for tilling, and, in a very ſhort time, produce abundance of grain, or even fruit, which the intenſe heat of the climate ſoon ripens.

The natural produce are melons and pumpkins, which they eat with bread. This country likewiſe produces fine grapes, the flavour of which, in eating, is delicious; but the wine made from them is too ſharp, which proceeds from the ſaltneſs of the earth. The mulberries are unwholeſome. The garden vegetables are good, but are obliged to be continually watered, as much to waſh the ſalt from them, as on account of the heat; for the ſalt lies on the ſurface of the earth every morning like an hoar froſt.

Many animals which are found in Great Britain, are alſo found in Aſtrachan; beſides which they have a great variety of wild ones; ſuch as wild boars, elks, red and fallow deer, antelopes, hares, wild horſes, &c.

The antelope is of a light grey colour, of the ſize of a deer, with a head reſembling a cow, but the noſe is without griſtle. It has fine black eyes, yet is purblind. The horns are beautiful, and without branches. They are taper to the tip, and have rings at equal diſtances. The fleſh is tender, but ſeems to taſte of muſk.

The have alſo the ſame kinds of fowl with thoſe of Great Britain.

The Volga is replete with a great variety of the moſt delicious fiſh: but there are few reptiles in Aſtrachan, and none worth particularizing.

The Ruſſians, Armenians, Georgians, &c. who inhabit Aſtrachan, have the ſame cuſtoms and manners as the people of their reſpective countries; but the real natives, or Nagai Tartars, greatly differ from the others in many reſpects, and require a diſtinct account. We are therefore happy to have it in own power to preſent our readers with ſome curious and intereſting particulars reſpecting the manners and cuſtoms of theſe people, communicated to us by a learned and ingenious correſpondent, who lately viſited this part of the world, and formed his obſervations on the ſpot.

SECTION II.

THE NAGAI TARTARS.

THE Tartars properly ſo called, and diſtinguiſhed by the term of real natives, ſeek for little but what is ſtrictly neceſſary, ſo that the luxuries of life are their leaſt concern. Theſe people are low of ſtature, but rather corpulent. They have olive complexions, large faces, and little eyes. They ſhave their heads, wear a coarſe grey caſſock, and over it a ſheep-ſkin cloak, with the wool outwards, and a cap of the ſame materials. Their women wear linen, and a cap with Ruſſian coin hanging round. With reſpect to their perſons and features, they are tolerable. They are in general Mahometans. The males wear a ring in their right ear, and the females in the noſe. The rings worn by the latter are uſually ſet with a piece of coral, a ruby or turquoiſe. The luxury of glaſs windows is confined ſolely to the prince's apartment. Paper frames are uſed in winter, and taken away in ſummer, that they may breathe more freely, and have a full view of diſtant objects.

The pleaſures of hawking, hunting, and courſing, are their chief delight: and their chiefs frequently form hunting parties, attended by numbers of *mirzas*, or noblemen. They depart for the chaſe with arms and baggage. It laſts ſeveral days. Camps are formed every night. A body of troops follow the *ſeraſker*, or commander in chief of the army: and ſometimes theſe parties of pleaſure ſerve as pretexts for more ſerious expeditions. There are ſome tribes among theſe people who live under a kind of tents in vallies eight or ten fathoms deep, which interſect the plains from north to ſouth, and which are more than thirty leagues long, though but half a quarter of a league wide. Muddy rivulets run through the middle of them, on the borders of which are tents, intended to give ſhelter, during winter, to their numerous flocks and herds.

Each proprietor has his own marks, which are burnt in the thighs of horſes, oxen, and dromedaries, and painted with colours on the wool of the ſheep. The latter are kept near the owner's habitation; but the other ſpecies, united in herds, are, towards the ſpring, driven to the plains, where they are left at large till the winter, at the approach of which they ſeek and drive them to their ſheds.

In this ſearch the Tartar employed has always an extent of plain, which, from one valley to another, is ten or twelve leagues wide, and more than thirty long, not knowing which way to direct his ſearch, nor, in fact, troubling himſelf about it. He puts up in a little bag about ſix pounds of the flour of waſhed millet, which is ſufficient to laſt him thirty days. Having made this proviſion, he mounts his horſe, ſtops not till ſun-ſet, then clogs the animal, and leaves him to graze, ſups on his flour, goes to reſt, ariſes, and continues his route. He neglects not, however, to obſerve, as he rides, the mark of the herds he happens to ſee, which he communicates to ſuch as he meets on the ſame errand, and, in his turn, receives ſuch information as help to put an end to his journey.

A Tartarian

A Tartarian *oba*, or tent, in many parts reſembles a large kind of hen-coop. The paling is in a circular form, and over this a dome opens at the top. A felt of camel hair envelopes the whole; and a piece of this felt is thrown over the hole in the center, which ſerves to give vent to the ſmoak. The *obas*, or tents, inhabited by the Tartars, have each of them a piece of felt faſtened in form of a banner, directed towards the wind, and ſuſtained by a long pole, which projects out of the *oba*. This pole likewiſe ſerves to lower the felt, and to ſhut the vent-hole, when the fire, being extinguiſhed, renders its remaining open uſeleſs or incommodious.

The following deſcription will furniſh an idea of Tartarian architecture.

There are pillars placed on the points of the angles and openings of the buildings, kept in a perpendicular poſition by a beam, on which uprights are fixed from the firſt plan, and diſpoſed ſo as to receive and ſupport the roof. This accompliſhed, other perpendicular pillars, but ſmaller, at twelve inch intervals are erected, round which hazel twigs are twiſted in the manner of baſket-work. This kind of wicker-work they fill with mud mixed with cut ſtraw, which they plaiſter with hair mortar within and without, and the whole white waſhed and painted on the pillars, baſes, doors, and windows give the building an agreeable aſpect.

The palace of the *Cham*, built firſt in the Chineſe ſtile, and afterwards repaired in the Turkiſh, preſerves ſome of the beauties of its firſt conſtruction. It ſtands on the outſide of the town, and is ſurrounded by very high rocks, where water abounds, which is diſtributed through the kioſks and gardens in a moſt agreeable manner.

The traveller referred to thus deſcribes their proviſions and mode of cookery. A party having procured two ſheep and a kettle, they ſuſpended the kettle to the center of three ſticks ſet up in the form of a pyramid, and the kitchen thus eſtabliſhed, they proceeded to kill and diſſect the ſheep. Some filled the kettle, while others prepared ſpits to roaſt what there was not room to boil. Bread is a luxury with which they are unacquainted. Their avarice alſo forbids them the habitual uſe of meat, although they are very fond of it. Millet and mare's milk, indeed, form the principal part of their ſubſiſtence. No people are more abſtemious than theſe, who debar themſelves of every thing they can ſell. If any accident kills one of their cattle, they then only regale on his fleſh, and this not unleſs they find it time enough to bleed the dead animal. They follow the precept of Mahomet likewiſe with reſpect to beaſts that are diſtempered: they carefully obſerve each ſtage of the diſeaſe, that they may ſeize the moment when, their hopes being loſt of preſerving the beaſt, they may ſtill have ſome conſolation, by killing it in an inſtant before the cloſe of its natural exiſtence.

The fairs of Balta, and others eſtabliſhed on their frontiers, are the emporiums to which they annually bring their immenſe flocks and herds. The grain finds a ready vent by the Black Sea, as well as their fleeces. To theſe objects of commerce are added ſome bad hides and great quantities of hare-ſkins.

Theſe different articles united, annually procure the Tartars conſiderable ſums, which they only receive in ducats of gold, Dutch or Venetian; but the uſe they make of theſe annihilates every idea of wealth which ſuch accumulation preſents. Conſtantly augmenting, without turning any part of their ſtore into circulation, avarice ſeizes and ſwallows up their treaſures, while the plains in which they are buried afford not the leaſt indication or guide to future reſearch. The avarice of a Tartar never ſtays to calculate eventual loſs, but enjoys the momentary gain.

Notwithſtanding the prevalence of avarice, the Tartars are not deſtitute of hoſpitality. On the arrival of a ſtranger at any town or village, it is cuſtomary for the inhabitants to ſtand at their doors, as if deſirous of inviting him to enter. Having made choice of his temporary reſidence, the inhabitants go into their houſes, and the ſtranger is ſhewn into an apartment, into which the wife and daughter of the hoſt enters, both with their faces uncovered; the firſt carrying a baſon and a pitcher, and the ſecond a napkin, for the purpoſe of waſhing. They then ſet before him their beſt cheer, with an aſſurance of his being heartily welcome. According to their own declaration, they conſider the exerciſe of hoſpitality as a benefit, and therefore, if any one ſhould conſtantly enjoy that advantage, he would make others jealous; but they do not permit of any means which might determine the choice of travellers. Their eagerneſs to come to their doors, is only to prove that their houſes are inhabited. Their uniformity preſerves an inequality, and no one has a chance of procuring a gueſt ſuperior to another. They ſeem, in this inſtance, to have imbibed thoſe noble principles, that it is equally their duty and pleaſure to aſſiſt the ſtranger in diſtreſs; and that in exerciſing hoſpitality, and following the dictates of humanity, they fulfil the law of Mahomet, according to the ſum and ſubſtance of the Koran. Their furniture conſiſts chiefly of a bed, chairs, tables, and cuſhions.

The Nagai Tartars are ſettled in the vallies that traverſe the plains from north to ſouth, and their tents, ranged in a ſingle line, form there a kind of villages, of thirty and thirty-five leagues in length, which diſtinguiſh the different hordes. It may be preſumed, that the ruſtic frugal life which theſe paſtoral people lead favours population; while the wants and exceſſes of luxury among poliſhed nations ſtrike at its very roots. In fact, it is obſerved, that the people are leſs numerous under the roofs of the Crimea, than in the tents of the Nagais.

We ſhall relate ſome particulars concerning theſe people. Our traveller, in his journey, obſerved a group of Nagais aſſembled round a dead horſe they had juſt ſkinned. A young man about eighteen, who was naked, had the hide of the animal thrown over his ſhoulders. A woman, who performed the office of taylor with great dexterity, then began by cutting the back of this new dreſs, following, with her ſciſſars, the round of the neck, the fall of the ſhoulders, the ſemi-circle which formed the ſleeve, and the ſide of the habit, which was intended to reach below the knee. There was no neceſſity to ſuſtain a kind of ſtuff, which, by its humidity, naturally adhered to the ſkin of the youth. The female leather-cutter proceeded with equal eaſe to form the two fore-flaps and the cuffs, which operation ended, this almoſt-man, who ſerved as a mould, crouched on his hams, while the pieces were ſtitched together; ſo that in leſs than two hours he had a good *brown-bay coat*, which only wanted to be tanned by continual exerciſe. This ſeemed to be his firſt care; for he afterwards leaped lightly on the bare back of a horſe, to go and join his companions, who were buſy in collecting horſes for the accommodation of travellers.

We have already obſerved, that the Tartar horſes are left to wander over the plains in companies, and diſtinguiſhed by the marks of the proprietors; but each individual is obliged to contribute to the public ſervice. There is, therefore, a certain number appropriated to the uſe of the community, and kept within ſight of their habitations. As theſe animals run free, they are not eaſy to catch; and the choice neceſſary to furniſh ſaddle and draft horſes from among them, adds to the difficulty. In this the Nagai ſucceed by a method which at once gives their youth, always deſtined to this kind of chace, an opportunity of becoming the moſt intrepid and adroit horſemen in the world. To effect this they take a long pole, to the end of which they faſten a cord, that terminates in a loop paſſed through the pole, and ſo form a running nooſe wide enough to receive the head of a horſe. Furniſhed with this inſtrument, the young Nagais mount their horſes, without a ſaddle, making a bridle of the halter, by twiſting it round the under jaw, ride to the herd, pick out the horſe they want, purſue him

him with vaſt agility, come up with him notwithſtanding his tricks and turnings, in which he ſhews infinite addreſs, and ſeizing the inſtant when the end of the pole is beyond the head of the horſe, ſlip it over his ears, tighten the knot, ſlacken their courſe, and thus retain their priſoner, which they bring to the general receptacle.

SECTION III.

THE KALMUCK TARTARS.

THE Kalmucks are divided into different tribes, each of which has its chief. They inhabit a vaſt deſert, which lies between the two rivers Don and Volga.

Theſe people are continually roving about. In the winter they uſually reſide on the borders of Circaſſia: they proceed northerly in the ſpring, and return back again at the latter end of autumn. They never cultivate any land, their only riches being their flocks and cattle, on whoſe account they principally roam about in ſearch of freſh paſture.

Their temporary or moving habitations are huts, which the poorer ſort cover with reeds or ruſhes, and the better ſort with felt.

On all occaſions they affect to profeſs the Chineſe religion, though they know very little of its principles. They believe in one God only, are fond of keeping holidays, and are tolerably decent in the mode of worſhip. However, they keep idols about them, but pretend not to pay to them any kind of adoration, but only to treat them with reſpect out of regard to the ſaints they repreſent. During the time of their worſhip they ſing, and make uſe of cymbols, and other muſical inſtruments, which are ſtringed; to theſe they beat time, and look upon notes, which are pricked from the top to the bottom of the page.

Polygamy is forbidden; and adultery is ſeverely puniſhed.

When two young people are diſpoſed to marry they cohabit together for a twelvemonth: if in that ſpace the woman proves pregnant, the marriage is legal; but if the contrary is the caſe, they are at liberty either to part entirely, or to make another year's trial. The undergoing of ſuch a trial is no ways injurious to the reputation of a woman.

Conjugal infidelity is rarely known among theſe people. If the wife is caught tripping, ſhe is immediately condemned to death; and the huſband, if he thinks proper, may be the executioner.

The prieſts are neither permitted to have money or wives, for theſe two reaſons; firſt, they are allowed to ſupply their neceſſities from the properties of whom they pleaſe; and ſecondly, they have the liberty of paſſing a ſingle night with any married woman they chuſe: and this is ſo far from diſguſting the huſbands that they conſider it as a diſtinguiſhed favour.

The method in which it has been erroneouſly ſaid the Kalmucks originally buried their dead was, perhaps, of the moſt ſingular as well as ſignificant nature, as it ſeemed to have reſpect to the different elements. It is ſaid they buried them that they might return to their original clay; but before it was poſſible for the bodies to corrupt they took them up again, and then threw them into the Volga, but took care to ſecure them ſo, that they might eaſily be drawn out again. After having been immerſed in water for ſome time, they drew up the bodies, and half burned, or roaſted them, to bring them acquainted with the elements of fire: then, that they might not omit the fourth element, air, the carcaſes were expoſed upon the banks of the Volga, to be devoured either by birds of prey, or by Tartarian dogs. If they were devoured by dogs it was conſidered as a lucky omen; for dogs being looked upon in a ſacred light, they ſuppoſed that the ſpirit appertaining to a carcaſe belonging to any perſon devoured by dogs muſt infallibly be in an abſolute ſtate of felicity.

It is aſtoniſhing that within theſe laſt thirty years, neither the account of the ſuppreſſion of the Kalmuck's mode of burial is mentioned in any of our Syſtems of Geography, or the real method in which they formerly uſed to bury their dead; which evinces that the writers of many Syſtems of Geography were mere copyiſts from the antiquated and ſtale works of obſolete and inaccurate authors; otherwiſe they muſt have known, that the Kalmuck Tartars never buried their dead in the manner they have deſcribed: that the number of dogs who devoured the body was immaterial, all their dogs being looked upon in a ſacred light; and that the practice of openly expoſing the dead bodies was ſuppreſſed in the year 1740, by the intervention and repreſentation of John Cook, M. D. a Scotch gentleman, who was many years employed by the court of Ruſſia in a medical capacity at Aſtrachan; and who reported to that court, that one of the chief cauſes of that country being viſited by the plague, was owing to the putrified carcaſes of the Kalmucks, which were continually expoſed to be devoured on the banks of the Volga, and near the city of Aſtrachan.—In conſequence of this repreſentation the Imperial court of Ruſſia humanely interfered, and iſſued a prohibition; ſo that the Kalmucks, at preſent, are compelled to bury their dead in the ſame manner as the chriſtians of Aſtrachan.

Though the Kalmucks ſeem neither to be ſwayed by ambition or avarice, they are always quarrelling with their neighbours. They have a particular enmity to the Karakalpaaks, and to prevent quarrels between them, the Ruſſians are under the neceſſity of keeping a military force upon the banks of the Volga; but theſe troops are only under arms in the ſummer.

The Kalmuck dogs are exceeding fierce, and very voracious, and will attack any man who gives them the leaſt offence. In bodies they will aſſault a number of armed men; but the inhabitants of Aſtrachan very frequently go out on purpoſe to ſhoot them, and, in time, will, without doubt, extirpate the whole ſpecies.

SECTION IV.

CIRCASSIAN TARTARY.

CIRCASSIAN Tartary is bounded on the north by Aſtrachan; on the ſouth by the high mountain of Caucaſus; on the eaſt by the Caſpian Sea; and on the weſt by the Paulus Mœtis and the Black Sea.

The ſouthern diviſion of this country is claimed by the Perſians; the weſtern is under the dominion of the Turks; and the eaſtern pays obedience to the Ruſſian empire.

The ſoil has, by many writers, been reported to be ſterile, for this reaſon only, becauſe they ſaw no appearance of fertility. But it ſhould be conſidered, that the natives underſtand nothing of agriculture, and have not the leaſt inclination to be induſtrious. Its natural richneſs is unqueſtionable, and the ſurface of the earth, when juſt turned up, will produce a plentiful crop.

Kezlaar, the capital of Circaſſia, which was built by the Ruſſians, is only formed of earth, but the garriſon conſiſts of five hundred regulars, and three thouſand Coſſacks, the latter of whom are permitted by the Ruſſian government to erect habitations on the banks of the Terek.

Kezlaar is in 44 deg. north latitude; the air is conſequently wholeſome and ſerene.

The river Terek, which flows from weſt to eaſt, produces a great variety of fiſh, as ſturgeon, ſalmon, &c. It meanders beautifully through the country till it diſembogues itſelf into the Caſpian Sea.

Thoſe Circaſſians, who profeſs the Mahometan religion, admit of polygamy.

The women are lovely in their features, majeſtic in their perſons, and agreeable in their deportment; in

in their ſtature they are large, and the men make excellent ſoldiers. However, none but the principal people are permitted to carry fire-arms, with which they are very expert, killing at a great diſtance, and making uſe of balls and rifle barrels. The common weapons are ſcymetars, bows and arrows,

The Circaſſians, who are immediately under the protection of the court of Ruſſia, have chiefs of their own, the principal of whom, ſtiled *Becovitch*, is a major-general of irregulars in the Ruſſian troops. He is, however, always ordered to remain in Circaſſia, where it is imagined his ſervice can be the moſt eſſential. Though the Circaſſian princes are exceedingly honoured and reſpected by their ſubjects, yet ſuch is the independency of the people, that they are not obliged to do any thing at their command, unleſs prompted by their own inclination. The princes themſelves are likewiſe independent of each other.

Whatever preſents the Empreſs of Ruſſia ſends to the Circaſſian princes, the reſpective ſubjects expect a part. If the things are not ſufficiently diviſible to be diſtributed, they will have an equivalent in ſpecie, or ſome other commodity, which may be eaſily parted among them.

In war, all the ſpoils are divided among the troops, the ſovereigns being excluded from having any ſhare.

Circaſſia, with reſpect to ſubordination to Ruſſia, is only confined to a formal oath of allegiance, in which they ſwear to be ſubmiſſive to a certain number of general laws, as long as their being ſo continues eſſential to the good of the Ruſſians and themſelves. The imperial court, for many cogent reaſons, ſeldem interferes with their political, and never with their religious concerns.

Like the Turks, they have harams, or ſeraglios, for their women, from whom all men, except the huſband, are excluded. Theſe are ſeparate from, though built contiguous to, their dwelling houſes.

Among many other cuſtoms, they have the following ſingular one. When the principal lady of any of their princes is in labour, the firſt Circaſſian who hea s it, let his ſituation be ever ſo menial, runs and places himſelf at the door of the haram, from whence none are authoriſed to drive him. When the lady is delivered, if it happens to be a boy, he is richly dreſt with the utmoſt ſpeed, and delivered to the Circaſſian, who immediately takes him home, and, if he is a married man, delivers him to his wife to nurſe. If he is a batchelor, a nurſe muſt be procured, and the child remains under his inſpection and tuition, till he is nine years of age, when he is again returned to his parents, who receive him with great rejoicings, and the utmoſt public ceremonies. The reaſon which they give for this remarkable cuſtom is, that the child may not be ſpoiled in its infancy, by the delicacies of a court, or effeminate treatment which he might receive in the haram; but rendered ſo hardy and robuſt, as to become, in time, a *buggateer*, or hero. For courage and perſonal ſtrength are, by the Circaſſians, deemed as the firſt qualifications of a human being.

The Circaſſians make no ſcruple of ſelling their children into Turkey and Perſia, eſpecially their daughters, who leave their parents without reluctance, from the pleaſing tales they hear of thoſe who have arrived at the honour of being ſultana in the haram of the Grand Signior and the King of Perſia, and their imaginations being taken up with fine cloaths, jewels, and a luxurious life, they leave their father's houſe with joy: and even the mothers are no leſs pleaſed with the hopes of their daughters advancement.

The Circaſſians pay their chiefs great reſpect; but a prevailing part of their character is their veneration for ancient houſes. They are as great genealogiſts as the Welch, but more tenacious of their family honour, by not intermarrying, even for gain, with an inferior perſon.

The marriage ceremonies of the Circaſſians are the following.

The parents or guardians enter into a nuptial contract: the young people are then permitted to ſee each other. After two or three viſits, if each party is ſatisfied, the affair is concluded, and nothing remains but to ſend the bride home to the bridegroom's houſe, in a cloſe waggon finely painted, attended by the women who are to live with her.

The contract itſelf falls heavy on the bridegroom, eſpecially if he is ardently deſirous of concluding the match; as the bride's relations give nothing with her but a few ſuits of cloaths; but the bridegroom is obliged to make them preſents to a great value, of horſes, dromedaries, camels, cows, &c. If they happen to demand more than he is poſſeſſed of, it makes no difference to him, for he immediately makes incurſions upon his neighbours, and ſteals as many as will make up the deficiency.

The natives of Circaſſia carry on a good trade with the Ruſſians for an excellent root called *Rubia Tinctorum*, which is uſed in dying a beautiful red colour. Beſides a great variety of uſeful herbs, this country furniſhes the beſt capers in the univerſe.

The woods naturally produce vines, the grapes of which are ſmall, but the wine made from them is excellent.

Circaſſia abounds in wild ſwine, wolves and foxes; their method of catching which is very ſingular. After digging a hole in the earth nine feet deep, broad at the bottom, and narrow at the top, they drive a ſtake into the middle, which projects from the ſurface of the earth about four feet. Upon the top of the ſtake a moveable cart wheel is fixed, to which a young pig is faſtened in the evening. The mouth of the pit is then covered with branches of trees in a very ſlight manner, over which graſs is ſcattered. The pig does not fail to ſqueak all night, being irritated by its confinement. When any of the above-mentioned animals hear the noiſe, they do not fail to viſit the place, which they no ſooner approach than they fall into the pit, where they remain till morning, being totally unable to diſengage themſelves.

They follow the diverſion of hare-hunting in the ſame manner as in England. Pheaſants abound in this country.

From Kizlaar the traveller may paſs through a great number of Coſſack villages, till he arrives at an excellent hot well, where Peter the Great built an hoſpital for the cure of ſcorbutic patients. The hot ſpring is ſituated upon a hill, beyond the independent village Bragutſkoi, ſouth of the river Terek: boiling hot water iſſues from it, which ſmells ſtrongly of naptha, and falls into a baſon, the diameter of which is about twelve feet, and the depth three. On the weſt ſide there are ſeven ſmall ſprings of the ſame kind of water; and on the eaſt ſide there is an acid ſpring. The water of the chief well will boil a fowl in a very ſhort time.

They have a great number of ſerpents, who make holes in the ground, and are extremely dangerous. Theſe ſerpents are ſix or ſeven feet in length, and about the thickneſs of a man's arm.

There are likewiſe mice as large as ſquirrels, which are called *jerhuah*. Their ears are long, and their fore feet ſhorter than thoſe behind, which prevents their running ſwiftly. They can, however, lay their tails over their backs, and leap to a conſiderable height or diſtance.

SECTION V.

THE COSSACK, KARAKALPAAK, KIRGEE, AND BASKEER TARTARS.

THE Coſſack Tartars inhabit a ſtrong town, built by themſelves, and called Jaik, from the river Jaik, which runs through a deſart of a prodigious extent, and at length empties itſelf into the Caſpian Sea. This wild deſart is infeſted with innumerable hordes of wild Tartars.

There is a wandering people about the Caſpian Sea, called Karakalpaaks, to the northward of whom the Kirgees and Baſkeers take up their abodes. The Kalmucks are continually at war with theſe tribes.

The Kirgees and Baſkeers profeſs Mahometaniſm, and being, perhaps, the moſt ignorant and unpoliſhed of any who profeſs that religion, they are of courſe the moſt ſuperſtitous,

During the war between the Ruſſians and the Turks, thinking they could not do a more eſſential ſervice to Mahomet, than by injuring the Ruſſians as much as their power would permit, they fell upon all the defenceleſs towns and villages of the province of Umſimafoſkaga. All who were young and vigorous they carried with them, deſigning either to uſe them as ſlaves, or ſell them as ſuch. The old, the infirm, and the very young, fell indiſcriminate victims to their remorſeleſs fury.

The Ruſſian governor of Orenburg, however, being informed of theſe cruel depredations, diſpatched a body of five thouſand regulars, and three thouſand Coſſacks, who marched with ſuch ſecrecy, that they attacked the Kirgee camp in the night, and deſtroyed the greateſt part of thoſe barbarians, though they were at the time twenty thouſand ſtrong.

The fiſheries on the river Jaik greatly enrich the Coſſacks, who, after having cured their fiſh, ſell them to the Aſtrachan merchants for the mart of Ruſſia.

The celebrated Peter the Great had entered into a ſcheme for turning the Volga to a political advantage, and gave an excluſive privilege to one Demidioff, with reſpect to the fiſhing, advancing, at the ſame time, 20,000 rubles, to enable him the better to put his deſign into execution. In a few years Demidioff repaid the money, and became exceedingly rich.

Theſe fiſheries, at length, exciting the attention of the court of Ruſſia, they determined to tax them, as well as thoſe of the Volga. Proper officers were therefore ſent to enforce the tax, who were thrown into the river and drowned by the Coſſacks, to whom the very idea of any kind of taxation was abominable. Continual expreſſes were ſent from St. Peterſburg, to enquire why the officers had not ſent an account of their ſucceſs; but the meſſengers were treated exactly as the officers had been; till at length the court got information of the whole affair; but it was thought moſt prudent to wink at it; the Ruſſian miniſtry having too much ſenſe to quarrel with a ſet of people, whoſe ſentiments inſured their independency, and whoſe ſituation rendered it impoſſible to conquer them.

SECTION VI.

THE USBEC TARTARS.

USBEC Tartary is bounded, on the north, by the country of the Kalmucks: on the eaſt by Tibet; on the ſouth by India; and on the weſt, by Perſia and the Caſpian Sea. The capital of the country, which lies in 39 deg. 15 min. north latitude, is called Bochara. It is ſurrounded by a mud wall. The houſes are built of wood, but the moſque and caravanſeras are of brick. It is tolerably populous, but not equal to what it was formerly. The Khan is permitted to ſeize upon the property of whom he pleaſes, which injures commerce, and damps the ſpirit of cultivation.

The Uſbecs, nearly reſemble the Perſians in their dreſs, their boots, which are uncommonly large, excepted. The chiefs wear a plume of feathers on their turbans, and, as well as their Khan, pride themſelves much on being the deſcendants of their renowned Tamerlane.

Their common food is pilau, or boiled rice; but their greateſt delicacy is horſe-fleſh. They drink a kind of arrack, or fomented liquor, made of mare's milk.

Their language is a mixture of the Turkiſh, Perſian, and Mongol; but they are the beſt acquainted with the Perſian.

Their arms are large bows, arrows, darts, and ſabres, which they uſe with admirable dexterity. Of late they have begun to uſe muſkets.

The Bucharian Tartars pique themſelves upon being the moſt courageous and robuſt of all theſe nations. The Perſians, who are not deficient in point of natural courage, look upon them with terror. The women themſelves aſpire to military reputation. They are ſtrong and well limbed; and yet, in their features, have all the delicacy of Aſiatic beauty.

The horſes are the beſt in the world for the Tartars to ſcour the deſarts, as they can live upon almoſt any thing. A very ſmall quantity of provender ſeems to keep up their ſtrength; and they are hearty, indefatigable, and ſwift.

They wage perpetual war with the Perſians, the fertile plains of Koroſan exciting them to make frequent excurſions into that rich and plentiful country. But they do not find it quite ſo eaſy to penetrate into the dominions of the great Mogul, on account of the prodigious mountains that intervene.

Thoſe who ſubſiſt upon their cattle, or by plundering their neighbours, live ſometimes in huts. and ſometimes in tents, every tribe forming a camp of its own, and frequently move from place to place, as ſuits their inclination and conveniency. Others, who cultivate the earth, and are a little more honeſt in their principles than their wandering brethren, form ſocieties, and live in towns and villages. Theſe latter are either the real Bucharians, or deſcendants of the Sartes, the ancient inhabitants of the country; or the Turkumaros, who were ſettled in the country long before the Uſbecs ſubdued it. The Uſbecs, like the Tartars in general, however, deſpiſe the thoughts of cultivation, and deem it glorious to make excurſions upon and plunder their neighbours.

SECTION VII.

THE CRIM AND LESGEE TARTARS.

THE Crim Tartars receive their name from their originally coming from Crimea, the ancient Taurica Cherſoneſas, a peninſula in the Black Sea. Its greateſt extent, from north to ſouth, is about 145 miles; its greateſt breadth, from weſt to eaſt, is near 140 miles; and its breadth in other places, are only about 80 miles. It is ſituated between 33 and 37 deg. eaſt longitude; and between 44 and 46 deg. north latitude.

The country, from nature, is capable of cultivation. It contains towns and villages; but the houſes are wretched huts. It was formerly ſubject to the Grand Signior, whom the Khan was obliged, in time of war, to furniſh with 30,000 effective men. Theſe men, however, never receiving any pay, plundered and pillaged every place they paſſed through; on which account every man took three or four horſes with him, beſides that on which he rode, to load with plunder and captives. Whenever a horſe died, the owner immediately dreſſed the carcaſe, and invited his comrades to the entertainment. Great alterations, however, have taken place within ſome years paſt, by the conqueſts of her Imperial Majeſty, and the Tartars of Crimea are now ſubject to the Ruſſian government.

In time of peace they purchaſe beautiful children in Circaſſia, and ſell them to the Turks, who pay for them in cloathing, arms, coffee, tea, rice, raiſins, &c.

They travel in cloſe carts, which contains not only themſelves, but their wives, children, baggage, &c.

A painted waggon, and a hut covered with white linen, with a painted cloth at the top, tied with red ſtrings, are all they give with their daughters in marriage; though they expect a handſome preſent from the bridegroom.

They bury their dead very deep in the grounds erect a tomb of mud over their graves, and adorn it with a

variety of flags, expreſſive of the quality, circumſtances, and actions of the deceaſed.

The ſame ingenious correſpondent, who favoured us with the particulars reſpecting the Nagai Tartars, has ſubjoined the following reſpecting thoſe of Crimea.

While at Bactcheſeray, the reſidence of the Cham, he ſtudied every means of ingratiating himſelf with that monarch. Obſerving that he was fond of fire-works, and that his artificers were ignorant, he prepared utenſils and materials, and inſtructed his own people; and finding himſelf able to accompliſh his purpoſe, aſked the Cham's permiſſion to give him this kind of entertainment on his birth-day.

The Cham was ſo pleaſed with the exhibition, that he obligingly complained it was too ſoon over, and was given to underſtand, by way of anſwer, that his European viſitant had prepared ſome electrical experiments, which he propoſed to ſhew him as a kind of chamber fire-works that might ſerve as amuſement for the reſt of the evening.

So great was the effect of the electrical phœnomena at firſt, that they were looked upon in the light of magic, to which ſuſpicion every new experiment gave additional ſtrength. The Cham himſelf at length deſired to be electrified, as he accordingly was, and ſeveral of his courtiers.

The next day the city reſounding with the wonders performed by this European, ſeveral perſons came to entreat the repetition of the experiments on them and their friends, all of whom were ſent away with equal aſtoniſhment, and each of them expreſſing the wonders of electricity.

So great indeed, was its fame, that application was made by a number of Circaſſian mirzas for permiſſion of admittance to become ſpectators of ſuch wonders as were never before conceived, that they might bear teſtimony of the truth in their own country, and that Circaſſia, though deprived of theſe prodigies, might yet preſerve their memory in her annals. This requeſt was politely complied with, and all expreſſed the greateſt delight, though at the ſame time the moſt diſtinguiſhed aſtoniſhment.

As our traveller was fully in the graces of the prince, he took an opportunity of giving him ſome idea of European horſemanſhip. The ſole principal known to the Tartars is, to ſit firm in his ſeat, which they carry to a degree of rough inelegance. The whole court was therefore aſtoniſhed at the ſupple motions and paces of his Arabian horſe. The prince's groom wiſhed to ride him, but ſcarcely was he ſeated on the ſmooth ſaddle before he was obliged to claſp the horſe's ſides with his heels and knees, that he might keep himſelf on. The horſe, unaccuſtomed to ſuch a rider, was preparing to rid himſelf of the inconvenience, but the Tartar's ſervants ran to his aſſiſtance, and prevented his falling.

Nor was the Cham leſs entertained with an European pointer, the property of our traveller. The animal being ſent for at his requeſt came into the monarch's preſence with that familiarity to which, from having been long careſſed as a favourite, he had been accuſtomed. In the middle of the apartment was a fountain, where the dog bathed himſelf, then leaped on the ſopha to careſs his maſter, and underſtanding the laugh of the Cham as a friendly invitation, ſprang merrily upon him, and overthrew every thing that ſtood in his way. In the firſt moments of favour errors are overlooked: the dog was recommended to a page, ſupped the ſame evening at court, and a grand hunting party was ordered on the morrow. Nothing was heard of over-night but the great talents of this new favourite, and the Cham was ſo impatient to ſee him in action, that he appointed the meeting of the party in the morning ſooner than ordinary.

When the party was aſſembled, the hero of the day was led by his page, encircled and terrified by ſpectators, who were wanting to ſee him ſet at liberty. This was no ſooner done than the horſemen opened to the right and left of the Cham, and the clattering of hoofs ſo terrified the dog, that at firſt he ſeemed to fear being trampled to death. At length a quail was ſtarted, and one of the Cham's falcons let looſe in purſuit of the game. The bird joined and ſeized his prey, and flying to ſome diſtance, a falconer ran with all ſpeed to take it from him. The dog likewiſe ſprang forward with all his might; the double capture of the falcon and quail excited his ambition, to which, had not a a pole-axe been thrown at him to make him quit his prize, it muſt have fallen a ſacrifice. Fear ſeized both the dog and the falcon; each by different routs took the road home, and the Cham paid for his experiment by the fear of loſing his bird.

There is no country where crimes are leſs common than in Tartary: their plains, where malefactors might eaſily eſcape, yield but few temptations, and the peninſula of the Crimea, which affords more objects of deſire, is daily ſhut up, and leaves not the culprit the ſmalleſt hope to eſcape chaſtiſement. Hence no precautions are taken for the ſecurity of the capital, which contains no other guards than thoſe which the ſovereign dignity requires.

The following is an inſtance of the impartiality of the Cham in the adminiſtration of juſtice. The ſlave of a Jew had aſſaſſinated his maſter in his vineyard, and complaint was laid by his neareſt kin. The culprit was ſeized, and during his trial ſome zealous Mahometans determined to make him a Turk, in hopes to obtain his pardon. The Cham pronounced ſentence of death, and the murderer's converſion was pleaded. It is neceſſary to remark, and the laws of Crimea ordain the criminal to be puniſhed by the hand of him he has offended, or by the proſecutors. In vain was it objected, that a Turk might not be left to the mercy of Jews; the Cham nobly declaring, he would leave his brother to their mercy were he guilty, his province being to do juſtice, and as to his converſion and its rewards, he would leave thoſe to Providence. The devotees, however, contrived, by their intrigues, to retard the execution of judgment till the Friday afternoon, that their convert might take advantage of that law, which obliges the offended party to execute ſentence within twenty-four hours, knowing that the Jewiſh rites of Sabbath began at ſun-ſet. Nevertheleſs, the aſſaſſin, loaded with chains, was brought to the butt on which theſe kind of executions were performed. Here a new obſtacle aroſe. The Jews are forbidden to ſhed human blood, and the public crier was ſent thro' the town to offer a conſiderable ſum to any one who would undertake the office of executioner; but this office the moſt miſerable of the Tartars diſdained. An account of the proceedings was carried to the judgment-ſeat of the Cham, and the devotees hoped to gain their point, in which, however, they were deceived. The Cham permitted the Jews to execute the law according to the precepts of the Old Teſtament, and the murderer was ſtoned to death.

The Crimea law requires the complainant himſelf to be the executioner. Here the perſon who is obliged to plunge the fatal knife is never ſeduced by any temptation to remit the puniſhment, and the law which leaves vengeance in his own hand renders his heart inacceſſible to any other ſenſation. One of the prince's officers, bearing a ſilver hatchet, and with his arm raiſed, precedes the criminal, conducts him, and is preſent at the execution.

The liberal, candid, and ingenuous diſpoſition of the Cham appeared from another circumſtance worthy of being recounted. An unfortunate Tartar taken in the act of diſobeying orders, which were too ſevere, had been condemned to death by the Cham, and preparations were made to lead him to execution juſt as our traveller arrived at the palace. He was preſently ſurrounded by ſeveral mirzas, who explained the facts, and entreated him to preſerve the Tartar from the conſequence of this rigorous proceeding. He accordingly waited on the Cham, whom he found agitated by the orders he had given, approached him, ſtooped to kiſs his

his hand, and retained it, notwithſtanding the motion he made to draw it back, which never happened to him before. Upon the prince's demanding of him, with a kind of ſeverity, what he wanted, he anſwered, the pardon of the culprit. When he aſked what intereſt he had in the pardon of that wretch? He rejoined none; adding, that he could not be intereſted in behalf of one who had diſobeyed his prince; that it was for his own ſake he interceded, ſince, ſhould he once be too ſevere, he would ſoon become cruel, and therefore need not ceaſe to be good, in order to be conſtantly feared and reſpected. The Cham ſmiled, and preſented his hand to the petitioner, who went to announce the pardon.

The Leſgee Tartars are a powerful and warlike nation, whoſe country extends near 100 miles in length, from north to ſouth, and about 80 miles from eaſt to weſt. It is fertile and pleaſant, producing all kinds of grain and cattle. The people are good mechanics, and carry on ſeveral manufactures. They are not only very warlike but excel in making fire-arms, with which they trade into Perſia. They are independent, and their chiefs who are named *ſhamkalls*, in any common caſe of danger, unite their forces, and are unanimous in their operations.

They are active and well proportioned: their eyes are black, and full of fire: their complexion ſwarthy; and their features regular and engaging. They dreſs after the Arabian faſhion, and wear whiſkers. Some few, indeed, let their hair grow.

They trade with the Perſians, Ruſſians, and Armenians, giving fire-arms and madder for cloathing and neceſſaries. They are too frequently guilty of rapine, in which, indeed, they reſemble the natives of this extenſive region in general.

They follow the Turks in their mode of worſhip, and the Perſians in their manners: but in one particular they outdo moſt of the oriental nations, for they can drink to great exceſs.

THE hiſtory of the Tartars preſents the image of a vaſt ocean, the extent of which cannot be known but by examining its coaſts. Their archives, in fact, are only found among the nations who have had the misfortune to be their neighbours, and whom they have ſucceſſively ravaged; and as theſe nations have written little or nothing, the hiſtorian is obliged to be contented with probabilities; but theſe are ſuch, that, when compared with the annals of all nations, it muſt be admitted, that the Tartars prove the beſt title to the higheſt antiquity.

It would be difficult to procure any well eſtabliſhed facts of the annals of the Tartars before Zingis-Khan. It is known that this prince was elected Grand Cham by the chiefs of the different tribes, and was only choſen to be the king of princes, becauſe he was the moſt powerful among them.

It is likewiſe known that Zingis-Khan conceived and executed projects of uſurpation, by which he formed the greateſt empire known in hiſtory. The emigrations which followed this conqueror, and which ſpread over the conquered countries, prove alſo the degree of population neceſſary to ſuch an influx, and the conſiderations united through the origin of that family into the obſcurity of the moſt diſtant ages.

An uninterrupted chain has brought down the race of Zingiſian Princes even to our times, as it likewiſe has the feudal government to which the Tartars are ſubject. They have national aſſemblies, and a kind of repreſentatives called *beys*. Their aſſemblies are only convoked on extraordinary occaſions; but in order that the Cham, who has the right to ſummon the members, may not take advantage of their abſence, to extend his authority beyond the bounds of the feudal laws, one of the ſix *beys* conſtantly repreſents the other five; and this chief of the Tartar nobility has, as well as the ſovereign, his miniſter, and the right of convoking the *beys*, if the negligence of the Cham ſhould render it neceſſary to counteract his own abuſes or uſurpations.

The ſame order which unites the great againſt the encroachments of deſpotiſm is equally watchful for the ſecurity and ſupport of the legal power of the ſovereign. The grand officers of the Tartars ſeem to be to the government, what columns are to an edifice; they ſuſtain without having the means of ſhaking it.

The firſt dignity of the empire is that of *calga*, which preſerves the privilege of regency at the death of the Cham, till the arrival of the future ſovereign. The *calga* is commander in chief of the Tartar armies, if the Cham goes not to war in perſon.

The poſt of *nooradin*, which is the ſecond in the kingdom, is likewiſe filled by a man of the firſt rank. He enjoys alſo the right of having his miniſters; but they, as well as their maſter, have no power to act. If, however, any event calls out the troops of the *nooradin* to the field, both his authority, and that of his miniſters, acquire all the activity of ſovereign power.

The third dignity of the empire, under the title of *or-bey*, has occaſionally been conferred on *mirzas*, who had eſpouſed princeſſes of the blood royal. Theſe nobles, who diſdain the firſt places in the miniſtry, have been appointed to diſtant governments; but ſuch governments are uſually given to the ſons or nephews of the reigning prince, where they are generals of their provincial troops.

Beſides theſe great offices, the revenues of which conſiſts in certain rights eſtabliſhed in their provinces, there are two others, which are female dignities; that of *ala-bey*, which the Cham uſually beſtows on his mother, or one of his wives; and that of *eloo-kanai*, which he always gives to his eldeſt ſiſter, or the eldeſt of his daughters. Several villages are dependent on theſe princeſſes, who determine the differences which happen among their ſubjects, and do juſtice in the perſons of their intendants, who ſit for that purpoſe at the gate of the ſeraglio, near the haram.

The revenues of the Cham ſcarcely amount to 25,000l. ſterling for the maintenance of his houſehold. If, however, this ſmall income confines the prince's liberality, it does not prevent him from being generous. A number of *mirzas* live at his expence, till the right of eſcheat gives him the means of diſencumbering himſelf by granting them lands.

The raiſing of forces is no expence to him. All eſtates are held by military tenure. Neither does the ſovereign ſupport any expence of juſtice: he decides all diſputes throughout all ſtates gratis: as each juriſdiction likewiſe does in its reſpective diſtricts. An appeal is from theſe individual tribunals to the lord paramount.

The beſt education among the Tartars goes not beyond learning to read and write. But though the education of the *mirzas* is neglected they are eminent for their eaſy politeneſs. This is the effect of their familiar habits of living with their princes, without ever failing to pay them a proper reſpect.

The Tartars are ſo little attentive to the natural productions of their country, that they even neglect, by digging, to appropriate the mines of Tchadir-Dague to their own uſes. It may be preſumed, the Cham would not remain inſenſible to the acquiſition of its riches, if the fear of exciting the avarice of the Porte had not made him prefer inaction to labour, the fruits of which he would not be ſuffered to enjoy. The danger of ſeeing this gold tranſplanted to Conſtantinople is not the only one which a Cham of the Tartars would be expoſed to in working the mines he poſſeſſes. Forced to invite miners and other artiſts to direct the proceedings, he muſt have introduced into Crimea the ſcourges of prohibition; and the Tartar monarchs have ſacrificed their own intereſt to the public tranquillity.

Accuſtomed to an exiſtence, the pleaſures of which appertain more to the produce of the ſoil, than the pomp impriſoned in the dark entrails of the earth, the Tartars make the free air in which thy breathe promote their happineſs, and the climate adminiſters to their neceſſities and ſatisfactions.

CHAP.

Engraved for BANKES's *New System of* GEOGRAPHY *Published by Royal Authority.*

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CHAP. VII.

EMPIRE OF PERSIA.

SECTION I.

Name, Situation, Extent, Climate, Rivers, chief Cities, Iſlands, &c.

THERE are different opinions reſpecting the derivation of the name of Perſia. According to the ancient poets, it was derived from Perſeus, the ſon of Jupiter and Danæ; but leſs fabulous authors rather think it a corruption of the word Parthia, and that the modern Perſians derive their name from their progenitors, the Parthians, the ancient inhabitants of the country. The word itſelf implies a horſeman, the Perſians and Parthians having always been famed for their ſkill in horſemanſhip.

Modern Perſia includes all thoſe countries which were anciently celebrated and known by the names of Media, Parthia, part of Aſſyria, Hircania, Colchis, Bactria, Iberia, and Suſiana.

This extenſive empire lies between the 45th and 70th deg. of eaſt longitude; and 25th and 44th deg. of north latitude. It is 1300 miles in length, and 1100 in breadth, being bounded, on the north, by the Caſpian Sea, which ſeparates it from Ruſſia; and on the north eaſt by the river Oxus, which divides it from Uſbec Tartary. The north-weſt boundaries are the Daghiſtan mountains, and the mountains of Ararat, which divide it from Circaſſian Tartary. India is the eaſtern boundary; the Indian Ocean, and the gulphs of Perſia and Ormus, the ſouthern; and Arabia and Turkey the weſtern. Hence it is evident that no country in the world is more happily ſituated for commerce, or better calculated to become a great maritime power: but its natural advantages have always been rendered of very little uſe by its unhappy political conſtitution: for wherever private property is precarious, and the human reaſon manacled, the people muſt be miſerable. Nothing but liberty, guarded by wholeſome laws, and freedom of thought, under ſalutary reſtrictions, can render any people happy. From the remoteſt periods down to the preſent time, we find that arbitary meaſures have ruined the moſt powerful ſtates, and depopulated ſome of the fineſt regions in the univerſe, while liberty hath rendered countries, leſs happily ſituated, opulent and potent.

The chief mountains of Perſia are thoſe of Ararat, Caucaſus, and Tauris, which have long made a diſtinguiſhed figure in hiſtory.

There are fewer rivers in this country than in any other of ſo vaſt an extent in the world. The only ones worth naming, are the Kur and Aras; they both ariſe near mount Ararat, and diſcharge themſelves into the Caſpian Sea. The weſtern boundary, indeed, is watered by the Euphrates and Tigris; and the river Indus waſhes the eaſtern part. The ſtream called Oxus does not merit the name of a river; and the few other rivulets are no better than ditches, many of them being the greateſt part of the year dry. However, the Perſians, have ſupplied by art, what they have been refuſed by nature; and by the means of a great variety of canals, reſervoirs, aqueducts, and other uſeful and ingenious contrivances, they ſeldom know the want of water.

The air and climate in ſo extenſive an empire muſt neceſſarily be very different. Towards the Daghiſtan mountains, which are continually covered with ſnow, the air is exceedingly cold: it is very hot in the ſouthern parts; but the midland regions are temperate and pure.

Iſpahan, or, as it is pronounced by the Perſians, Spahawn, the metropolis of the Perſian empire, and the capital of the province of Erahi, is ſituated in a pleaſant plain, and is defended from the winds by a chain of mountains, which ſurround it at ſeveral miles diſtance. It is twelve miles in circumference, excluſive of the ſuburbs. The form is oval; and though the ſtreets are irregular, it certainly merits the name of a magnificent city; though it ſuffered greatly, in point of population and ſuperbneſs, by the devaſtations of Kouli Khan. Previous to which time it contained 18,000 houſes, 500,000 inhabitants, 1,800 caravanſeras, 160 moſques, 260 public baths, a great number of ſuperb palaces, and fine ſquares planted with ſhady trees.

The royal palace, with the offices and gardens, is three miles in circumference. The royal ſquare, or *meidan*, is near a mile long, and about three furlongs broad. The fortifications of this city are, however, mean and weak, being moſtly made of earth, and the moat that ſurrounds them is generally dry; ſo that the place is but in a defenceleſs ſituation. It is, nevertheleſs, not only the beſt town, but the greateſt mart of commerce in Perſia, all the trade of the empire centering here; beſides the vaſt quantity of goods of all kinds, which are brought by merchants of all the oriental nations, who deal in muſk, ambergris, diamonds, pearls, gold, &c.

The royal ſquare, or great market-place, is 700 feet long, and 250 broad. The houſes which ſurround it are uniform, erected with bricks, and the ſhops vaulted. On the ſide towards the palace are ſhops belonging to the lapidaries, goldſmiths, and druggiſts; oppoſite to which are the taverns, eating-houſes, linen-drapers, mercers, woollen-drapers, &c.

A rivulet flows through the *meidan*, the channel of which is of ſtone, by which the water is conveyed to two large reſervoirs, that ſupply the greateſt part of the city with that uſeful article, by the means of pipes. On the banks of this rivulet, and round the market, are planted a great number of evergreen trees, which greatly reſemble box, and being regularly cut, ſo that the ſhops appear between them, they add greatly to the elegance of the place.

Here are two covered muſic galleries oppoſite to each other, where the city muſicians play every night at ſunſet, or whenever the Sophi makes his appearance.

There is an inferior market-place, in which all ſorts of merchandize and proviſions are ſold, and the prices are allowed to be reaſonable. Meat and fuel, indeed, are rather dear.

Several pieces of cannon, without carriages, are planted before the royal palace. This palace conſiſts principally of the feſtival-hall, where the Sophi entertains his nobles on new's-year's day, and the hall of audience, where he receives foreign ambaſſadors, hears cauſes, and diſtributes juſtice. The latter has not only a ſpacious court before it, but is in itſelf exceedingly ſuperb and elegant. At one end of this hall is a kind of alcove, which is ſeparated from the other part by a red callico curtain, which is occaſionally drawn up by ſilk ſtrings, and reſts upon the capitals of the pillars, which, being of wood, are finely carved and gilt, as well as the walls. The floor is covered with a carpet of a gold and ſilver ground. The ſides are adorned with pictures, painted by European maſters. In the center is a beautiful fountain, ſurrounded by a number of gold and ſilver veſſels. In its baſon are ſeen many kinds of fruits and flowers floating upon the ſurface of the water. There are many other ſpacious apartments in the palace, which ſtrangers are not permitted to ſurvey. Beſides the halls, there are many ſmaller chambers, cloſets, and galleries; ſome for the entertainment of the officers of the court, who are exceedingly numerous; others for the women. There are many detached

offices for the menial ſervants; and a ſanctuary, or place of refuge, for debtors and criminals. But it is remarkable that almoſt every apartment hath its peculiar ſubdiviſion of the garden.

Near the palace is a citadel, well garriſoned, but indifferently fortified, which contains the treaſures, ammunition, arms, and ſtores, belonging to the Sophi.

At the ſouth end of the royal meidan is a moſque, built of white marble, in ſo artful a manner, that the eye cannot diſcover where the ſeparate ſtones are cemented together. There is a large court before it, in the center of which is a beautiful fountain. Many of the other moſques are remarkable for their elegance and grandeur.

In the principal parts of the town are handſome taverns and coffee-houſes, where people go for the ſake of converſation, and to hear the poets rehearſe their humorous and ſatirical compoſitions.

There are two convents in Iſpahan, the one Spaniſh and the other Italian, which belong to the Auguſtine and Carmelite friars.

Over the Sophi's ſtables is a high tower, built of earth and the horns of ſtags, in commemoration of a hunting match, in which Shah-Tamar killed 2000 of theſe animals, whoſe horns were employed in the building. There are many warehouſes in different parts of Iſpahan, which are uſually built three ſtories high, with vaults beneath them.

That quarter of the city inhabited by the Armenians is ſuppoſed to contain three thouſand houſes, and twelve churches. There is another quarter inhabited by Georgians, who, as well as the Armenians, are Chriſtians, and merchants. The third quarter is the reſidence of the Gebers, or the deſcendants of the ancient Perſians.

The city of Schamachie, the capital of the province of Schirwan, is divided into the north and ſouth city. The walls of the former are ſtanding, but are too low and weak to be of any ſervice in caſe of a ſiege. Thoſe of the latter were demoliſhed by Shah Abbas. The ſtreets are narrow, the houſes low, and built only of earth. The ſhops, bezar, and two capacious warehouſes, are in the ſouth city. The trade chiefly conſiſts of raw and wrought ſilk, callicos, &c. The Muſcovite merchants deal in Ruſſia leather, furs, copper, and tin. The Circaſſian Tartars trade in horſes, boys, and women, the latter of whom they often ſteal on the Muſcovite frontiers. The Jews likewiſe drive a conſiderable trade here in gold, ſilver, brocade, tapeſtry, woollen, ſilk, and warlike inſtruments. There are many colleges here, in which all the branches of oriental learning are taught. The moſques are large and numerous. The country round Iſpahan is fertile and pleaſant.

The city of Ardebil, though large, has neither wall or fortification. It principally conſiſts of five capital ſtreets. Every houſe has a garden, or rather orchard, full of fruits; and the ſtreets are regularly planted with elms, which render them exceedingly beautiful and pleaſant. The market-place is 300 paces in length, and 150 in breadth. It is ſurrounded with ſhops and warehouſes, every trade having its peculiar quarter. Not far diſtant is a moſque of refuge, where criminals are protected for a limited time. This is a burial place of Iman Sade, a child of their twelve ſaints. When the time is expired, the criminal muſt again ſeek his ſafety in the grand ſanctuary, or ſepulchre of Sefi, which is at a ſmall diſtance. At the entrance of the city, a little river divides itſelf into two branches; the one paſſes through it, and the other ſurrounds it. Theſe ſtreams are ſometimes ſo ſwelled by the melting of the ſnow from the mountains, that the inhabitants are obliged to divert the fury of their currents by means of innumerable artificial trenches, or the whole city would be overwhelmed by the inundation.

There is a handſome ſquare fabric, built upon arches on one ſide of the market place, for the purpoſe of vending all valuable commodities, ſuch as jewels, gold, ſilver, brocades, &c. There are three gates in this building, which lead into three trading ſtreets, that are covered over, and well furniſhed with caravanſeras, ſtore-houſes, and ſhops.

Sulthania, though greatly decayed, was once a noble city. It ſtill retains many magnificent buildings, the moſt remarkable of which is a prodigious large moſque, that contains the ſepulchre of Sultan Mahomet Chodabende, the founder of the city. This moſque hath three gates of fine poliſhed ſteel, which equal, in bigneſs, the gates of any church in Europe. The Perſians *pretend* that twenty ſtrong men cannot open the largeſt of them, without diſtinctly pronouncing *beaſk Ali buſcha*, which ſignifies, *open for the ſake of Ali*; but on the repetition of theſe words, the hinges become ſo pliant, that a child may manage the gate, and ſwing it open with the greateſt eaſe. The roof of the moſque is of blue and white ſtones. The tomb of the before-mentioned Sultan is ſurrounded by a grate of poliſhed Indian ſteel, moſt admirably wrought. Within the braſs rails, which ſeparate it from the reſt of the moſque, there are ſeveral books written in Arabic characters of three inches in length, with alternate lines of black and gold. The books themſelves are near a yard ſquare. The Holſtein ambaſſadors, when in Perſia, procured ſome leaves of them, which are now in the Duke of Holſtein's library, and contain a paraphraſe upon the *koran*. At the entrance of the moſque is a beautiful fountain. The tower, which is of an octagonal form, is ſurrounded by eight other towers. Upon the whole, it is a ſtructure which aſtoniſhes the imagination, and gratifies the curioſity.

There are many other fine moſques in the city, particularly one founded by Shah Iſmael, which has a round tower over the gate; and the court is embelliſhed by a magnificent pyramid, ſurrounded by eight elegant marble pillars. Near the moſque are the ruins of a triumphal arch, built of free-ſtone.

The city of Caſwin, the ancient Arſatia, is the principal city of the province of Erak, which was originally the celebrated Parthia. It contains about 100,000 inhabitants, yet hath neither wall or fortification. Its circumference is about a German league, and its ſituation in a ſandy plain. The houſes are plainly built of brick, but are neat and well furniſhed. The ſtreets are not paved, and conſequently duſty. The inhabitants are ſupplied with water from a neighbouring mountain, by the means of pipes. The people ſhelter themſelves from the exceſſive heats in vaulted cellars, where they likewiſe preſerve ice and ſnow to cool their liquors.

There is a royal palace near the market-place, which was erected by Shah Tamas. He, however, afterwards removed the regal ſeat to Tauris. There is a beautiful garden behind it, and another oppoſite to it. In the common market prodigious quantities of all kinds of commodities are ſold. The horſe-market contains may fine buildings. We cannot omit one ſingular circumſtance which is practiſed here. As ſoon as the ſhops are ſhut, a great number of proſtitutes make their appearance, and ſeat themſelves in rows with their faces veiled. The bawd ſtands behind them with unlighted candles. When a man makes his appearance at any of the rows, the bawd lights her candle, that he may have an opportunity of examining which face he likes; when he has pitched upon one, a bargain is made with the bawd, which being concluded, the couple retire. This, like other large Perſian cities, contains many bagnios, caravanſeras, warehouſes, &c.

The city of Kom, which, by Ptolemy, was called Gurianas, has loſt much of its ancient ſplendour: the walls are in ruins, but indicate its former importance. Its principal trade at preſent is in a much admired earthen ware, and ſword-blades, which are deemed the beſt in the whole empire.

Karſchan, one of the fineſt cities in Perſia, is ſituated in the midſt of a fine fertile plain; the houſes in general being handſome, and the public ſtructures ſuperior to thoſe of any other city. The country about it is ſo fruitful,

fruitful, that the very pooreſt inhabitants live luxuriouſly. The city is exceeding populous, not only from the great number of natives, but from the vaſt influx of foreigners, who flock thither from all parts, particularly from India, to carry on trade. The walls and fortifications are made of a kind of potter's clay. The Sophi has a grand garden here, in the midſt of which, is a ſummer palace, reputed to have a thouſand doors and windows. The greateſt inconveniency in Katſchan, is the want of water, as they have not any but what is ill taſted, thick, and muddy.

The city of Reſched is the capital of the province of Ghilan, which is one of the moſt fertile, rich, and pleaſant provinces in all Perſia: it is large and populous, but has not the leaſt fortification. The ſtreets are agreeable, and planted with trees; but the houſes in general are meaner than thoſe of any other city in the empire; they are all covered with tiles or ſlates. The market place is capacious, and contains many good ſhops; and all the neceſſaries of life are exceedingly cheap.

The city of Derbent is about three miles in length, and near five hundred paces in breadth. The caſtle and wall are five feet thick, and it is ſuppoſed they were built by Alexander the Great. They appear to be built with free-ſtone, but, in reality, are a compoſition of pounded muſcle ſhells, which being moulded into the form of bricks, are ſo excellently cemented together, that the whole compoſition is now harder than any marble. A garriſon of five hundred ſoldiers is kept here.

About two hundred miles to the ſouthward of Iſpahan is Schiras, a place of conſiderable trade. The wines made here are the beſt in Perſia; the fruits and flowers are incomparable; and the ſurrounding country is a perfect paradiſe; but only about four thouſand of the houſes are at preſent inhabited. It is the capital of Pars, the ancient Perſia; and its college for the ſtudy of oriental literature is one of the beſt in Perſia. Tho' the ſtreets are narrow, the buildings in general are ſuperb and elegant, and the moſques are innumerable.

Moſt of the European nations, particularly the Engliſh, have eſtabliſhed factories at Gombroon, by the means of which they carry on a trade with the Perſians, Turks, Tartars, Arabians, Armenians, Banyans, &c.

The Engliſh factory at Gombroon is cloſe to the ſea, at ſome diſtance from the Dutch, which is a convenient and elegant building. Great profits ariſe to both the companies for freightage; for as the natives have no ſhips, their goods are carried in Engliſh and Dutch bottoms, to Surat, and other Indian marts. The principal commodities are a variety of wines, almonds, raiſins, dates, ginger, piſtachio nuts, ſilks, carpets, leather, ammoniac, aſſafœtida, tragacanth, with many other gums, drugs, &c. the principal of which articles being the produce of Carmania, are brought to Gombroon in caravans. The companies pay no cuſtom, but, at certain times, give preſents to the Shahbinder, or principal Perſian officer, to prevent his being troubleſome. The Engliſh have an agent at Iſpahan, who receives one third of the company's profits, the chief at Gombroon one third, and the reſt of the factors the other third. Thre are three iſlands near Gombroon; Ormus, Bahara, and Queſmo. The former is ſituated at the mouth of the Perſian Gulph, is totally barren, devoid of freſh water, but produces excellent white ſalt, and great quantities of black ſhining ſand. The Iſland of Bahara is remarkable for its pearl fiſheries, which are attended with great profits. Queſmo is a fruitful, pleaſant, and populous iſland.

In the Iſland of Weytoy, in the Caſpian Sea, are ſprings of black or dark grey naptha, a kind of unctuous fiery minerals. The ſprings foment and boil higheſt when the weather is thick and hazy. The naptha often takes fire at the furnace, forms a flaming rivulet, and retains its flames till it gets to an aſtoniſhing diſtance from the ſhore. In fine weather the ſprings boil up to about three feet, in doing which it often hardens till it almoſt cloſes the mouth of the ſpring, and ſometimes quite covers it up, forming a hillock upon it. But the ſpring is no ſooner oppoſed and obſtructed in one place, than it works its way under ground to another, where it breaks out with redoubled violence. The mouths of the ſprings are about ten feet in diameter, or more, when they have been long open. The poor people uſe the naptha as oil in their lamps, and often to boil their proviſions, but it gives the food a diſagreeable taſte, and is, indeed, in itſelf, very diſguſting to the ſmell. This occaſions the iſland not to be inhabited at any time, except when the people are gathering naptha.

A peculiar kind of thin white naptha, found in the peninſula of Apcheron, is drank by the Perſians as a cordial, and uſed externally as a medicine. It is purchaſed by the Indian merchants, and, being properly prepared, forms the moſt beautiful and durable varniſh in the univerſe.

The temple of the Cebers, or Gaurs, who are the worſhippers of fire, is about ten miles from Baku, a city on the Caſpian Sea, near which there are mines of ſulphur. The earth, for two miles round, has been long famous for its ſingular qualities; for on paring off the ſurface of the earth in any part of that extent, to the depth of two or three inches, and touching the uncovered part with a red hot coal, it immediately takes fire. Though the flame makes the ſoil hot, it does not conſume it, or injure any thing near it. If a hollow cane, or any other tube, though made of the ſlighteſt materials, be put a few inches into the ground, and the top of it be touched with fire, the flame will inſtantly burſt out, and will burn exceedingly clear, without conſuming the cane or tube. Thus the inhabitants of theſe parts kindle a fire, and dreſs their food, without expence: for their houſes conſiſt only of a ground floor, which is not paved; ſo that when they want to dreſs any food, they run three or four canes into the ground and, having kindled a fire, they put on the pot. The flame may be extinguiſhed in the ſame manner that ſpirits of wine are. This flame ſmells ſulphureouſly, like naptha, but is not quite ſo offenſive; and the more ſtrong the ground, the more ſtrong and clear is the flame.

On the borders of the Caſpian Sea the ſoil is rather unfruitful; but to the ſouthward of Mount Taurus the natural fertility of the ground is aſtoniſhing; the corn, which is brought to perfection with very little trouble, is admirable. They make excellent wine of grapes, which are the ſpontaneous productions of thoſe parts. The other fruits are delicious, and the face of the country teems with all the luxuries of life.

The oil of this country is excellent, as are the drugs, particularly ſenna and rhubarb. The cucumbers, dates, oranges, piſtachio nuts, melons, and all kinds of what Europeans call garden vegetables, are not to be excelled.

Like the Chineſe, the Perſians deem gardening one of the moſt important ſciences, and ſpare neither pains or expence to render their encloſed grounds beautiful, as well as uſeful.

The Perſians do not introduce flowers into their gardens, as the Europeans do; theſe are the ſpontaneous productions of the fields; but the gardens are filled with plantations of the moſt excellent fruit trees. Their walks are curiouſly laid out, and ſet on both ſides with tzinnar trees, a ſpecies of poplar not known in Europe: it grows to the height of a pine, bears a fruit reſembling the cheſnut, and has broad leaves like thoſe of the vine. Of the wood the Perſians make their doors and window ſhutters, as it is brown, ſmooth, finely veined, and much more beautiful than the fineſt walnut-tree. Their fountains are deemed the fineſt ornaments of their gardens.

There is much art diſplayed in the arrangement, culture and ornaments of the emperor's garden near the city of Iſpahan, called Fyarback. It is exactly ſquare, being half a league each way, and is divided at right angles by the river Shenderuth. Towards the ſouth there is a mount finely planted with trees, which form

form ſeveral beautiful walks: on each ſide are precipices made by cutting the rock, and from the top ſeveral ſtreams of water fall into baſons at the bottom, and form a variety of artificial caſcades. There are baſons and fountains in every walk, but they all differ from each other in appearance, and ſpout out the water in various directions.

In the middle of the garden there is a very large baſon, into which all the ſeveral ſtreams diſembogue themſelves, and from which a column of water is thrown up to the height of 40 feet. The baſon is ſquare, and at each corner there is a large pavilion, containing ſeveral fine apartments, adorned with beautiful carving and gilding. This garden is not only planted with all the ſpecies of fruit-trees in Perſia, but with many from Turkey and India, which were procured at a great expence for that purpoſe by Shah Abbas; among which is a peculiar kind of vine, the grapes whereof are as large as a walnut; they contain no ſtone, and taſte moſt deliciouſly. There are 110 gardeners to take care of this garden; that is, ten maſter gardeners, and ten others under each of them. They are ſuffered to let any perſon ſee the garden for four kaſbekies, or twopence a piece, who are allowed to eat what fruit they pleaſe, but to carry none away.

There are ſummer-houſes in moſt gardens, containing four apartments, ſuitable to the four winds; and it frequently happens that the ſummer-houſes are far ſuperior to the dwelling-houſes, both with reſpect to the architecture and furniture.

The ſuperabundant number of mulberry-trees in Perſia enables the natives to feed innumerable quantities of ſilk-worms, which produce ſome of the moſt excellent ſilk in the univerſe.

Wild cheſnut, turpentine and almond trees abound here, as do the willow and fir trees. Many provinces produce trees which bear thoſe gall nuts that are uſed in dying. There are gum, maſtic, and incenſe trees; the latter, which are found in Carmania, reſemble the pear tree. The plantain trees are ſuppoſed to prevent the plague from viſiting places, where they are found in abundance; and it is aſſerted by the Perſians, that at Iſpahan, where the plague was formerly frequent, no contagion hath happened ſince the gardens and public walks of that city were planted with theſe trees. The manna trees are of various ſorts: the beſt yellow is found in Nichapour and part of Bactria.

They have plenty of tobacco about Hammadan and Suſa; and the Perſian poppy is deemed the fineſt in the univerſe. The roots and ſallading are better taſted, and leſs liable to create wind in the ſtomach, than thoſe of any other country.

In Choraſſan they have rhubarb, which is in high eſtimation, though it muſt be confeſſed that it is inferior to that brought from Tartary. Here is plenty of ſena, nux-vomica, caſſia, gum-ammoniac, aſſafœtida, &c. Aſſafœtida is common in all the eaſtern countries, being uſed in ragouts, ſauces, ſoups, &c. It is allowed to have the ſtrongeſt odour of any thing in the univerſe: whatever veſſel it is put in it always retains the ſcent, and all the goods in any ſhip in which aſſafœtida is packed up are more or leſs impregnated with the effluvia.

Here are two kinds of mummy: one is a natural production, which diſtils from a rock, and the other is taken from embalmed bodies. It is an admirable medicine in the cure of wounds, bruiſes, &c.

Galbanum and the cotton tree are very common, but there is another tree which produces a very fine cotton, or rather a ſilk.

European fruits in general abound in great perfection in Perſia, particularly peaches, apricots and nectarines, ſome of which weigh eighteen or twenty ounces.

The pomegranates, apples and pears, which grow in Iberia, are very fine, as are the dates of Carmania, the oranges of Hyrcania, and the onions of Bactria; the wheat and barley are exceeding good, and the rice is univerſally admired: but oats and rye are exceeding ſcarce.

The fruits of Perſia would equal, if not excel, thoſe of Europe, if the natives knew any thing of grafting and inoculation.

Salt, ſulphur, allum and ſalt-petre, are here produced by ſpontaneous nature. There are large quarries of black, white, red and mixed marble.

The Perſian horſes are the moſt beautiful of the Eaſt, though not deemed ſo ſwift as the Arabian. The aſſes are of two ſorts: the native aſſes, which are dull, heavy and ſtupid, and the Arabian breed, which are beautiful, docile, and in high eſtimation for the ſaddle.

They have alſo mules, oxen, buffalos, and three ſorts of camels, viz. the ſmall, large and ſwift: the latter can trot exceeding faſt. The large camels can carry 1200 or 1300 weight: they are not beaten, but managed by the voice, the driver ſinging a kind of ſong, and the camel proceeding faſter or ſlower according to the modulation of the voice.

Oxen are uſed in ploughing, but beef is ſeldom eaten. Hogs are ſcarce: ſheep and deer plenty: and wild beaſts ſuch as lions, leopards, bears, tygers, &c. very numerous, particularly in Hyrcania. The jackals dig graves, and tear up the dead bodies, being exceeding fond of the fleſh.

There is the ſame variety, but not the ſame abundance of fowls in Perſia as in Europe, excepting pigeons, there being above 3000 pigeon-houſes in Iſpahan and its neighbourhood. The reaſon of ſuch a number of pigeons being kept is on account of their dung, which the Perſians deem the beſt manure for their melons, of which they are ſo fond.

Martlets and the noura are taught to ſpeak like parrots. The nightingale is heard all the year round, though it ſings fineſt in ſpring: but the principal bird is the pelican, which has a beak near twenty inches in length, a head too large in proportion to the body, and feathers as ſoft and white as thoſe of a gooſe. It uſually reſts its long beak upon its back: its food is fiſh, in the catching of which it ſhews great dexterity.

There are a great number of birds of prey, which are taught to fly at other game, the Perſians being great lovers of falconry.

Freſh water fiſh are not plenty on account of the great ſcarcity of rivers: but they have ſea fiſh in very great abundance.

In Carminia there is a natural ratity called the wind-poiſoning-flower, which, it is ſaid, infects the air. There is another ſhrub called aſſes poiſon, becauſe when it is eaten by thoſe animals it proves mortal.

The bezaar ſtone is taken from goats both wild and tame, which feed near the Perſian gulph, and is of great value. There are ſwarms of land locuſts, but they are devoured by the water locuſts, which are their natural enemies.

At ſome diſtance from Iſpahan is a river, which falls into a beautiful baſon through a range of rocks, and appears like a lake covered with rocks and mountains.

SECTION II.

Perſons, Dreſs, Cuſtoms, Manners, Diſpoſitions, Diverſions, Arts, Manufactures, Habitations, Language, Marriage and Funeral Ceremonies.

THE Perſians of both ſexes are in general handſome, the men being fond of Circaſſian women. The men ſhave their heads, but ſome allow their beards to reach up to their temples. The religious, however, wear long beards. All the men, except grandees, wear caps, which are pretty high, and gathered at the top; but thoſe of quality wear magnificent turbans. As they make it an univerſal rule to keep their heads exceeding warm, ſo they never take off either caps or turbans even to monarchs.

Their mode of ſalutation is by inclining the head, and putting the right hand to the breaſt.

Their favourite colour is red, which they admire becauſe

cauſe their ſoldiers wear it, who, on that account, are called kiſelbaſhee, or red heads.

They wear callico ſhirts next to the ſkin, that are covered by ſhort coats or veſts, which they girt with a ſaſh: as the veſt reaches only to the knees, a large pair of drawers ſupplies the place of breeches. Cloth ſtockings are joined to the drawers, and ſlippers with high heels are worn inſtead of ſhoes. The materials of their cloathing are, however, expenſive, as they conſiſt of ſilk, furs, cotton, muſlin, &c. plain, or embroidered with gold and ſilver. They often wear looſe boots on their legs, and always daggers in their ſaſhes. The dreſs of the women differs very little from that of the men, and is rather coſtly. They, however, injure what beauty they have by paint and waſhes.

The laws of the Perſians permit them to marry four wives, and to keep as many concubines as they pleaſe. But it is the cuſtom of the country for the men to conſider the women as mere ſlaves. They may, indeed, if they pleaſe, marry for life, or for any determinate time.

The higher rank of women are abſolute priſoners, and the lower abſolute drudges; for they are obliged to till the land, plant the rice, and do every kind of field as well as domeſtic work, while their huſbands go to market, ſaunter about, or ſmoke their pipes.

The Perſians are in general pretty temperate. They uſe coffee in the morning, and dine on milk and fruit, particularly melons, of which they are exceeding fond. Their chief meal is ſupper, which conſiſts of pilau, and boiled rice and fowls or mutton. As they eſteem it an abomination to cut bread, or any kind of meat, after it is dreſſed, their food is ſo prepared, that they can divide or ſeparate it with their fingers, and is ſerved in a variety of ſmall diſhes.

If the lower claſs of people are baſhful and ſhy, the better ſort are polite and hoſpitable. The great number of caravanſeras in this country may be adduced as a proof of the hoſpitality of the people. A caravanſera is a large ſquare building, with a ſpacious court in the middle: the building itſelf contains a great number of chambers for the accommodation of travellers, and ſtables for their horſes. As there are not any inns in the eaſtern countries, caravanſeras are exceedingly convenient, though nothing but ſhelter is to be obtained in them. A poor family uſually reſides in each, to clean the rooms and ſtables, and to give proper directions to travellers.

The Perſians have a variety of diverſions. A late Engliſh traveller mentions, that he ſaw many grey-hounds, and ſeveral hawks, who were trained to fly at, and purſue, antelopes, in this manner: The hawks fly round the head of the antelope, and retard its velocity, till the hound ſeizes it: otherwiſe it could not be taken; for the antelope is much ſwifter than any hound in the univerſe. The method of training hawks to fly at antelopes is thus executed: they ſtuff the ſkins of thoſe animals, and feed the hawks between their horns; hence they are accuſtomed to fly towards, and hover round the heads of thoſe animals. The Tartars train hawks in the ſame manner to fly at wolves and foxes.

In many provinces, during the hot weather, the tarantula drops its venom upon the ſkin, which immediately penetrates, and occaſions the moſt dreadful ſymptoms to appear; to remedy which, the patient is obliged to drink a great quantity of new milk; and afterwards being put into a tray, faſtened by ropes fixed to four pieces of wood, and ſwung about with great vehemence, a nauſea enſues, which carries off the diſorder.

The following amuſement is common in Iſpahan. In ſome ſpacious place a pole is fixed in the ground, on the top of which they put an apple, a melon, or a trencher, containing money; they then ride up and down, and ſhoot at it on full gallop; if any of the money falls, it belongs to the ſervants; and the winner is obliged to give an entertainment to the company preſent.

Another amuſement is cricket on foot and on horſeback. They are fond of baiting wild beaſts, encouraging mimics, jugglers, rope-dancers, &c. With reſpect to hawking, hunting, and horſemanſhip, they equal moſt nations, and exceed all, at preſent, in archery. They throw the javelin with great dexterity, and are tolerably expert in the uſe of fire-arms.

The Perſians are hoſpitable and polite, do all they can to oblige, and always accommodate ſtrangers in the beſt manner. They are, however, taxed with diſſimulation and inſincerity, and not without ſome reaſon.

They are uncommonly fond of tobacco, particularly that from America, which they ſmoke in great quantities. In ſmoking they uſe a glaſs decanter, called a *callaan*, filled about three parts with water. The tobacco is rolled up like a ball, and put into a ſmall ſilver veſſel like a tea-cup, to which a tube is faſtened that reaches almoſt to the bottom of the water; another tube being fixed above the water to the neck of the veſſel, the ſmoak is drawn through the water, by which means it becomes cool and pleaſant.

In Perſia there is a cuſtom which, to an European traveller, may appear exceedingly diſagreeable; that is, if he gives an entertainment to any capital perſon of the country, he is obliged to provide a great quantity of ſweetmeats; not ſo much to entertain the maſter, as to diſtribute among the ſervants.

Superſtition prevails in Perſia to an extreme: the twiſting of the features, the hands laid acroſs, the fingers interchanged, and other particular geſtures of the body, they fancy are full of magic power. Meteors, or what are commonly called falling ſtars, they ſuppoſe to be blows of angels upon the heads of devils. Cats they venerate, but dogs are held in great diſeſteem. Sneezing is a good omen, but yawning a bad one. Nay, a perſon who was ſent for by one of the emperors, fancying his life in danger, aſſured an Engliſh traveller, that his fate depended upon the repetition of a certain prayer, when he came into the preſence of the Shah: "For," ſaid he, "if I repeat it perfectly, I ſhall eſcape with my life: but if I ſhould happen to omit a ſingle ſyllable, or even pronounce a word improperly, I ſhall certainly be a dead man."

The Perſians were once celebrated for their poetic genius. They are ſtill fond of verſe, and their writings upon love are delicate, and the ſentiments they inculcate refined. Their poetry has generally a moral turn; and their elegies and paſtorals uſually inſinuate, that though their law permits them to marry four wives, yet reaſon ſhould confine them to one; that the enjoyment of a beloved woman is a virtue, becauſe natural; but that celibacy is a vice, becauſe it operates againſt the grand active principal of nature, which is to increaſe the human ſpecies. There the poets have more ſenſe than the prieſts, and the lower claſs of people are greater philoſophers than the legiſlators. The Perſians, indeed, think poetry the moſt ſublime ſcience, and ſmoking tobacco the moſt rational amuſement. If they are condemned to die, they chear themſelves with a couplet, and then meet their fate without the leaſt fear: and when the ſmoking of tobacco hath been prohibited by the emperors, many Perſians have left their country, and ſettled in foreign parts, ſooner than be deprived of this ſomniferous pleaſure.

There is ſome fancy in the dances of the Perſians, but their muſic is intolerable, at leaſt to an European ear. After the muſic is finiſhed at an entertainment, the principal muſician preſents an orange to the company, which is a civil indication of his expecting a handſome gratuity for himſelf and band. At theſe entertainments the company uſually drink ſtrong liquors in tea-cups, till they are quite intoxicated, each having a plate of ſweetmeats before them.

They do not embarraſs themſelves with the concerns of futurity, are fond of enjoying the preſent minute, and truſt entirely to Providence for all that is to enſue. Their genius is penetrating, and their fancy lively. Their capacity is great for arts, ſciences, wax, and

mechanical employments; but their profuſeneſs, luxury, and indolence, counteract their natural abilities; and the unfortunate policy of their rulers is a great bar to every thing uſeful and liberal, and militates againſt every propenſity to improvement. Their gold and ſilver laces are admirable, and preſerve their luſtre long. They underſtand pottery tolerably, make good porcelain, and are famed for their ſkill in china rivetting. They are acquainted with the glaſs manufactory, but not ſo well as to be able to make looking-glaſſes.

The principal manufactures of the country are ſilks, ſattins, tabbies, taffaties, brocades, gold and ſilver tiſſues, &c. which are admired all over the world, the workmanſhip being excellent, and the figures lively: but the latter, indeed, are uſually out of proportion, as the Perſians know very little of drawing, and nothing at all of perſpective; the excellency of their colours, therefore, admits of their being admirable dyers, though they are but bad painters. They uſually deſign in profile, as they are very unſucceſsful in drawing full faces, or front figures. They have neither modellers, ſtatuaries, or engravers, which, as well as the inſufficiency of their painters, may be owing to ſome rigid religious tenets, that prohibit the artificial imitation of any living creature. They are perfectly well ſkilled in varniſhing, and their turners and joiners are tolerable; but their carpenters are very indifferent artiſts, which is owing to the great ſcarcity of timber throughout the whole empire.

As they have no lockſmiths, the locks to their fire-arms are purchaſed of the Europeans. The barrels they make exceeding ſtrong, but the ſtocks are ill contrived. They uſe neither braſs, iron, or pewter, in their kitchens, all their culinary utenſils being copper, well tinned; their braziers and tinmen being very good workmen.

As they cannot make looking-glaſſes, their cutlers, who are excellent mechanics, make ſteel mirrors, which ſupply the deficiency. Their ſword and ſabre blades cannot be excelled. Their knives, razors, ſciſſars, &c. merit commendation.

As the Perſians value themſelves upon uſing the bow, the bow-makers take infinite pains in making that weapon as ſtrong and as elegant as poſſible. The materials are wood or horn, bound round with ſinews, and ſtrung with twiſted ſilk. The quivers are made of leather, finely embroidered with ſilk, gold and ſilver twiſt, &c. The leather is exactly the ſame as that which in Europe is called Turkey leather.

The taylors fit their cloaths as well, and ſew much neater than the European taylors. Many of them work flowers upon garments, carpets, cuſhions, and curtains, in an admirable manner. The excellency of the Perſian garments conſiſts in their being light, airy, and ſhort: their dreſs conſequently does not impede their natural activity, nor give them that air of indolence and effeminacy, of which the long flowing robe of the Turks are productive.

They underſtand embroidery on cloth, ſilk, or leather; ſo that their ſaddles are not only ſuperior to any in the univerſe, with reſpect to the workmanſhip in general, but the embroidery and ſtitching in particular. The ſtirrups are ſhort, but very beautiful.

They are exceedingly fond of all kinds of ornaments made of jewels, ſuch as little coronets, plumes in imitation of feathers, and knots reſembling flowers for the heads. In ſome provinces they wear a ring through the noſtrils, ſet with a variety of ſtones: and many young ladies adorn themſelves with a ſplendid necklace, of diamonds and rubies, which is ſuſpended by two gold rings that are run through the ears. Their arms are decorated with bracelets of jewels or pearls, or with little manacles ſet with precious ſtones where they ſhut. Their necklaces fall into the boſom, and have a little gold box, containing muſk or amber, hanging to them. All, who are able, load their fingers with rings. The lapidaries poliſh the ſtones in a tolerable manner, but the jewellers ſet them very aukwardly: nor are the gold and ſilverſmiths better workmen.

The Perſians, in general, conſider the matter more than the manner of every article, and value it for its intrinſic worth more than for the beauty of the workmanſhip, which renders their artiſts very careleſs about making improvements. They are fond of watches, but not one of their mechanics know how to make, or even to mend a watch. They admire printing, yet never attempt to introduce that art into their country, though they confeſs its utility as often as they mention it. Few work in a ſhop, or have a ſhop-board: but the generality of artificers and tradeſmen go to the houſes of thoſe who have occaſion to employ them, and ſit upon the ground, or do their work in any other poſture which is moſt ſuitable to the buſineſs they are upon.

Their gold wire-drawers are good artiſts; and the tanners excellent, not only at tanning leather, but ſhagreen, which is made of the rump of an aſs. Salt and gall ſerves them for all the purpoſes of tanning, bark being unneceſſary on account of the dryneſs of the air.

The brick-makers mix the clay with chopped ſtraw, and then make the bricks in wooden moulds, of eight inches long, ſix broad, and two and a half thick. They then dry them ſingly for three hours, and afterwards together for a much longer ſpace. Theſe bricks are dried in the ſun; but thoſe which they dry with fire are much larger, and are likewiſe made in moulds, the compoſition being two parts clay, and one of aſhes; and the kiln in which they are dried is uſually about twenty-ſeven cubits in height.

Mechanics are reſpected in Perſia, but merchants are placed on a footing with perſons of rank.

From the great ſcarcity of timber in Perſia, it is not to be wondered that, in their buildings, ſcarce any thing is made of wood, except the doors and ſaſhes.

The houſes in general conſiſt only of a ground floor, the bottom being earth or cement, though ſome are paved, and the roofs flat, as they are exceedingly fond of enjoying the ſerenity of the evening on the tops of their houſes, which are uſually ſituated in the midſt of pleaſant gardens, and excluded from public view by high walls. If the maſter has occaſion to tranſact any buſineſs, he does not introduce a ſtranger into his houſe, but ſettles the affair in hand under the piazza in the front of it; for no Perſian houſe is without ſuch a piazza.

In moſt houſes is a hall of entertainment, which is always arched or vaulted, and conſequently forms a dome; and, indeed, no country in the world has ſo many ſtately domes, belonging both to public and private buildings, as Perſia. Several doors open into this hall, which, in hot weather, are all ſet open, in order, as much as poſſible, to draw the air, and increaſe the velocity of its circulation. The walls are built with bricks; the roofs are ſurrounded either with a wall or baluſtrades; and the Perſians not only take the air on them when the evenings are fine, but frequently carry up mattraſſes, and lie there all night. The kitchens and offices are detached from the habitations. The fire-place conſiſts of a hole in the earth, where a charcoal fire being kindled, a kind of table covered with a carpet, is put over it: beneath this the Perſians ſometimes put their legs to warm them. The ſmoak is carried away under ground through pipes, as there are very few chimnies in the whole country. The doors are ſmall and inconvenient, and are hung on without hinges, being faſtened either by wooden bolts, a kind of wooden locks, or real locks, which are purchaſed of the Europeans.

The Perſians go early to reſt. Their beds, which conſiſt only of a couple of cotton quilts, are placed in the day-time in niches. At night one of theſe quilts is folded double, and laid upon the carpet (for no perſon in Perſia is without a carpet) and the other is uſed for a covering. They are likewiſe accommodated with a little ſquare pillow. They only throw off their upper garment, ſo that they are ſoon dreſſed and undreſſed. They have little beſides in their apartments, except ſophas or cuſhions to ſit upon, and pillows to lean upon.

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The Turkiſh language is the polite or court language, and the Arabic is the learned language, in which all the books on ſublime ſubjects are written: but the Perſic is ſpoken in common throughout the empire. In whatever language they write, they always make uſe of Arabic characters. They write from the right hand to the left, like the Hebrews; and, inſtead of quills, the uſe reeds to make pens of.

The Perſians make their paper of cotton and ſilk rags, and, after it is manufactured, ſet a gloſs upon it with a ſmooth ſtone or ſhell. Their letters of correſpondence are nicely rolled up, for the paper being very thin will not bear folding as the European paper does: they are then faſtened with gum, and ſealed with a cypher, or ſome verſes of the koran, which are uſually engraved on the Perſian rings: the impreſſion is made with a thickiſh ink, compoſed of galls, gum and burnt rice.

As they are unacquainted with the art of printing, their books are all manuſcripts; but the writing is beyond deſcription beautiful and correct; they write eight different hands, but eſteem that moſt in which the koran is written; and this hand is called the Neſky.

The Perſians are very fond of aſtrology, which they term the key of futurity. They place an implicit confidence in their aſtrologers, who are all natives of Choraſſan, and pretend to be deſcended from the ancient Magi. They uſe an aſtrolade to find the ſituations of the ſtars, and can name the ſigns of the zodiac; but they know little of either the terreſtrial or celeſtial globe; and underſtand nothing more of arithmetic than the four fundamental rules.

They obſerve pretty juſtly the eclipſes of the ſun and moon, but dread the thoughts of comets. Their almanacks are an abſurd mixture of aſtronomy and judicial aſtrology, fatality and predictions.

The grand epocha by which they date all events is the Hegira, or flight of Mahomet from Mecca, which took place in July, A. D. 622. They reckon twenty-four hours to their day, but do not ſubdivide it into day and night as we do. As they begin their week on Saturday, Friday is their ſabbath, whch they call the Day of Aſſembly. Their year begins at the vernal equinox: their ſolar and lunar years differ in the ſpace of twelve days, becauſe they reckon but twelve moons to their lunar year.

There is no country in the eaſt where phyſicians are more eſteemed, or that produces a greater variety of phyſical drugs, than Perſia. They are at perpetual variance with the aſtrologers; for when a phyſician preſcribes a medicine, the patient will not take it till an aſtrologer has conſulted the ſtars, to fix preciſely the proper time. If the medicine fails of ſucceſs, the phyſician blames the aſtrologer for making a miſtake in his calculation; and the aſtrologer retorts by accuſing the phyſician of adminiſtering what was improper.

The Perſians are very ignorant of ſurgery; barbers being the only ſurgeons, and few of them underſtand any thing more than letting blood. As bodies are never diſſected in Perſia, they can have but little idea of the animal œconomy. The plague ſeldom viſits Perſia, and the people are generally free from the gout, ſciatica, ſmall-pox, conſumptions, and apoplexy. The diſeaſes to which they are moſt ſubject are fevers, dropſies, dyſenteries, cholics, pleuriſies, and the venereal. The common diſtemper near the Caſpian Sea is the yellow jaundice.

The bagnios of Perſia, and particularly thoſe of Iſpahan, are magnificent and elegant. They are uſually round, though ſome few are ſquare. The roofs are covered with painted tiles; the walls are of a beautiful kind of white ſtone; each is covered with a dome. In the centre of the building is a large hall, floored with marble, and a capacious baſon to bathe, round which are the apartments to dreſs and undreſs in. When the baths are ready in the morning, a ſervant goes to the terrace on the top of the building, and blows a horn, to give public notice of the ſame. The men bathe in the morning, and the women in the afternoon. When the men have done bathing, the male attendants all withdraw, and are ſucceeded by the females, who are appointed to attend the women. No people of any very great conſideration, however, go to the public baths, as they generally have baths in their own houſes.

Beſides being well rubbed by the attendants at the bagnios, the barbers ſhave the men with incredible diſpatch and eaſe, and there cut the nails of their hands and feet, chafe the fleſh, and give them a very rough pull of both the arms, in order to ſtretch the nerves. Bathing is not only enjoined the Perſians by their religion, but is particularly conducive to their health.

In Perſia they have neither wheel carriages or palanquins. The men convey themſelves and their goods by the means of camels, horſes, and aſſes: and when the women travel, they are put into a kind of ſquare boxes, covered over with cloth, which is ſuſpended by hoops at the top. Theſe boxes are hung like panniers on each ſide of the camels.

The Perſians are allowed by law to have four wives, and as many concubines as they pleaſe, but they ſeldom marry any more than one: and it is impoſſible that they ſhould ever marry for love, becauſe they never ſee their wives till after the contract is ſo firmly made by the parents, or friends, that they cannot recede from the agreement. The children of concubines and ſlaves inherit equally with the children of wives: therefore there is no ſuch thing as baſtardy in Perſia.

The firſt preliminary of marriage is the regiſtering the contract before the civil magiſtrates. The bridegroom then ſends a rich preſent to the bride. On the enſuing evening, he proceeds in grand proceſſion to the houſe where the bride reſides, mounted upon a fine horſe, richly capariſoned, and attended by a band of muſic. By the way the bride meets him attended by her friends: ſhe is mounted upon a horſe or camel, and veiled ſo as not to be ſeen. The cavalcades having joined each other return together to the houſe of the bridegroom. The bride being led to the apartments deſigned for her, the bridegroom ſoon follows, and, for the firſt time in his life, is permitted to ſee her. But the Perſians are not under the neceſſity of taking a wife for life, as they are allowed, by law, to marry for any limited time.

If a man wants to part from his wife through mere whim, and chooſes to be divorced from her, though ſhe hath not committed any fault, he is obliged to pay the dowry contracted for at the marriage. Divorces are eaſily obtained, and both are permitted to marry again. Boys are of age at thirteen, and conſequently become their own maſters, and are legally authoriſed to contract matrimony. Girls are marriageable when nine years old. The eldeſt children are the guardians of the reſt; and the eſtates of minors cannot be ſeized for the debts of parents. The effects of thoſe who die inteſtate are diſtributed by the civil magiſtrate among the relations of the deceaſed, according to his diſcretion.

We ſhall now give ſome account of their treatment of the dying and the dead, and particularly of their funeral rites.

When a perſon is on the point of expiring, the Perſians kindle fires on the tops of their houſes, which ſerve as beacons or ſignals to the neighbours and travelling ſtrangers, to offer up their prayers for the patient. The *mollah*, or prieſt, being ſent for, he exhorts the ſick perſon to repentance, who uſually ſay, *taube*, or, I do repent. The breath is no ſooner out of the body, than the ſurviving relations and friends ſet up a terrible ſcreaming, and, like the Iriſh, make uſe of many affectionate expreſſions to the deceaſed, bewailing his fate, and declaring their affliction to be paſt remedy.

After the corpſe is waſhed, it is wrapped in a kind of winding ſheet, on which many paſſages of the Koran are ſtamped or written. The coffin is filled with perfumes, ſalt, and lime.

At the interment of perſons of diſtinction the horſes, turban, and arms of the deceaſed, precede the corpſe.

There

There are no appointed bearers to carry a coffin to the grave in Perſia, as every one, from religious motives, makes a point of aſſiſting at funerals. Even the people of quality, when they perceive the appearance of a burial, will alight from their horſes, and help to carry the corpſe to the ground. The face of the dead perſon is laid towards Mecca, and an arch is built on that ſide near the grave.

The relations of the deceaſed carry proviſions to the grave for ſeveral days after the burial, and very ſeriouſly expoſtulate with the defunct on his leaving them.

They mourn in ragged cloaths, but not in black, which is a colour they hate; but their mourning laſts only forty days. Widows appear inconſoleable, as they ſeldom marry after they have loſt a huſband by death.

The Armenians of Julpha mourn annually at the graves of their deceaſed relations and friends. Early in the evening the women proceed to the burial places, cloathed in white. They kindle fires with wood and coals, which they carry thither for the purpoſe, place lighted torches, and burn incenſe on the graves, and paſs the night in ſad lamentations. A multitude of prieſts, dreſſed in black, attend, who repeat a ſet of prayers for ſtated gratuities.

SECTION III.

Inſtitutions, Civil, Religious, Political, Military, &c.

THE foundation of the civil power in Perſia ſeems to be involved in ambiguity. It is ſaid, that after the death of Mahomet the impoſtor, two competitors appeared, and claimed the privilege of ſucceeding him, not only in ſpiritual matters, but in temporalities: theſe were Hali, the huſband of his daughter Fatima, and Abubekar, his wife's father. That ſeveral engagements enſued between the contending parties with various ſucceſs. That the death of Abubekar ſeemed to promiſe a ceſſation of hoſtilities, when Omar, one of Mahomet's generals, ſtarted up, and revived the pretenſions of Abubekar, and had great ſucceſs. Upon his death, one of his kinſmen, named Oſman, ſucceeded him, but dying in the 34th year of the Hegria, Hali became acknowledged by all parties as the ſucceſſor of Mahomet; but, upon his death, the officers of the army declared the throne to be void, and the crown elective, which militated againſt the intereſt of Hoſſein, the ſon of Hali. It is added, that Hoſſein raiſed an army to oppoſe Mehiviah, another of Mahomet's generals, whom the officers had elected: that Hoſſein was defeated and ſlain, and eleven of his ſons put to death, but the twelfth ſon made his eſcape, from whom many of the ſucceeding Perſian monarchs have aſſerted that they were deſcended.

With reſpect to religion, the Perſian ſect of Mahometans adopt the principles and follow the doctrines of Hali, as the Turkiſh do the commentaries of Abubekar, Omar and Oſman, whom the Ottomans deem the genuine ſucceſſors of Mahomet.

Theſe ſects are at perpetual variance with, and even anathematize, each other in their prayers. The Mahometans term themſelves Muſſelmen, which ſignifies faithful: their tenets are, to believe there is but one God, and that Mahomet is his prophet; and they are ſtrictly enjoined to obſerve corporal purifications, prayers five times a day, alms, faſting and pilgrimage: to the above articles the Perſians add, that it is abſolutely neceſſary to believe that Hali is the vicar of God.

The generality of the Mahometans believe in tranſmigration, and many, that no puniſhment can be eternal. Their paradiſe is certainly ſenſual, though many of their doctors of a ſuperior underſtanding are aſhamed of that ſenſuality, and aſſert, that it is only allegorically ſo, and that the prophets ſpoke to the paſſions of men, in order to awaken their reaſon.

They are obliged to waſh their hands as often as they offer up their prayers; for it is one of their principal maxims that prayers are not accepted in heaven if the ſupplicant's hands are not waſhed before he begins his ejaculations.

The general purification, or waſhing of the whole body, is performed previous to a pilgrimage, a faſt, or ſome extraordinary act of devotion.

They are taught that they muſt obſerve the following particulars: attention and application, fervency, faith, modeſty, reverential love, hope, purity of mind and purity of body.

In the performance of their devotions they have ſeveral ceremonies which muſt not be omitted. The ſupplicant muſt turn his face towards Mecca, diveſt himſelf of ſhoes or ſlippers, and all ornaments, the ſkins or furs of unclean animals, &c. lift up his hands, and proſtrate himſelf to the earth. He muſt likewiſe never offer up a prayer in any place where there are ſtatues, images, pictures, &c.

Every perſon has a carpet on purpoſe: upon this he kneels down, and ſpreads an alcoran, a bead-roll, a comb, a pocket glaſs and an earthen diſh; then taking the glaſs and comb he combs his whiſkers. Their beads are thirty-nine in number; the little diſh contains holy earth, and is the ſame kind of mould of which the beads are made: but when they pray they are not permitted to have ſabre, ſword, piſtol, or even money about them; as offenſive weapons and worldly pelf they imagine would render their prayers fruitleſs.

In the Perſian moſques the prieſts rather acts as maſter of the ceremonies than a paſtor, for his buſineſs is neither to preach or pray, but to keep order. All the prayers which are ſaid in the moſques are taken from the general Mahometan liturgy: but every one begins where he thinks proper, and chuſes out what prayer he pleaſes, without regarding the reſt of the congregation; but then the Perſians repeat their prayers ſo low, that they cannot diſturb each other.

Great as the ſuperſtition of the Perſians may be in many reſpects, they worſhip God only, and pray that he would increaſe their worldly happineſs, as well as immortal felicity, without having recourſe to any ſaint as mediator: they do not even requeſt the interceſſion either of Mahomet or Hali, though they ſo highly reverence them.

There are two kinds of alms-giving among them, viz. legal and voluntary. The legal are tithes, which are not given to the prieſts, but applied to charitable uſes; the clergy having ſufficient revenues applied to their ſole uſe. The voluntary charities are uſually given to the faquirs, or mendicant friars, to be appropriated to relieve inſolvent debtors, diſtreſſed ſtrangers, and to erect and eſtabliſh works of a public nature, ſuch as caravanſeras, bridges, &c.

The Perſians have ſeveral faſts: the moſt remarkable is that called Ramezan, from the name of the month in which it is held. When the moon firſt appears the cryers every where proclaim it as a ſignal happineſs, and a general hymn is ſung to welcome its appearance. The ſtreets are illuminated, horns ſounded, and a general joy diffuſes itſelf through the whole country. The baths being ready, the people waſh and purify themſelves, in order to enter upon their devotion. The concluſion of the Ramezan is celebrated in the ſame manner as the commencement.

During this grand faſt the people are permitted to eat every evening, but they muſt not taſte any thing till the public cryer proclaims the order for them ſo to do: they are then allowed to eat ſweetmeats, fruit, and other light foods. In a few hours after they go to ſupper, but eat ſlowly and abſtemiouſly, as they deem it very dangerous to eat eagerly after faſting.

They obſerve three grand feſtivals, viz. the new year, the commemoration of Abraham's ſacrificing his ſon, and the martyrdom of Hoſſein.

Thoſe who intend to celebrate the feaſt of the ſacrifice ride out early in the morning, and ſacrifice a ſheep or a goat; then returning home they order many more

ſheep

ſheep and goats to be killed, cut up, and diſtributed among the poor. But the principal ſacrifice is that of a camel, at which the emperor himſelf is preſent. On the firſt day of the feaſt the devoted Camel is led through the city, adorned with flowers, and preceded by muſic, which ceremony is repeated till the twelfth day, when he is brought to the houſes of all the great people, who give money and proviſions to the poor: the animal being then led to an adjacent field, the emperor, with his imperial crown upon his head, and his whole court attend. The day of ſacrifice being arrived, the camel is led to a field near the city, and there made to kneel with his face towards Mecca: the prieſt repeats ſome prayers, and the governor, or chief magiſtrate of the city, wounds him. The head is then cut off and preſented to the king; the four quarters and the trunk are given to the five wards of the city of Iſpahan, where they are ſalted by certain families who have that privilege, and preſerved till the next year, when they are diſtributed in morſels to the populace. The reaſon for uſing a camel upon this occaſion is the ſuppoſition of the Perſians, who fancy that Abraham did not ſacrifice a ſheep, but a camel.

The next feſtival, which, in many reſpects, reſembles a faſt, is in commemoration of the death, or martyrdom, as they term it, of Hoſſein and Haſſen. It laſts twelve days, when altars are erected at the corners of the ſtreets, and a variety of trophies laid upon them. At night the ſtreets are illuminated, pageants are carried about, and the prieſts repeat the legends of Hoſſein and Haſſen, who were two celebrated Perſian patriarchs, or imans, who periſhed in the wars with the Saracens, in the 61ſt year of the Hegira.

There is a religious ſect in Perſia called Guars, or Gebers. Their religion was founded by Zoroaſter, who lived about the year of the world 2860. This great philoſopher taught the worſhip of the true God, but under the form of fire, conſidering the brightneſs, purity, activity, and incorruptibility of that element, as the moſt perfect reſemblance of the nature of the Deity.

The Gaurs, in general, wear hats, which, in a great meaſure, reſemble thoſe worn in Europe. Their principal garment is a ſhort cloſe veſt; and they ſuffer their hair and beards to grow long. They think little or nothing of human learning, and deſpiſe traffic. Agriculture and gardening they deem the moſt honourable, as they were the primitive employments of mankind. Nevertheleſs, ſome of the Gaurs are tolerable mechanics, and, in general, are deemed a quiet, inoffenſive people, and have been hitherto permitted, by the Perſian government, to have their own magiſtrates, and to be regulated by their own peculiar laws, as far as they do not claſh with the general welfare of the ſtate.

They drink wine, and eat every kind of meat, beef excepted; but never intermarry with any other ſet of people. This, indeed, is of perſonal diſadvantage to them; for they are neither ſo fair, ſo finely featured, or ſo well made as the Mahometan Perſians, who will not, if poſſible, either marry or cohabit with any women, but the beauties of Georgia and Circaſſia; great numbers of theſe lovely females being annually bought by the rich, and ſtolen by the poor Perſians. And it is proper to obſerve, that ſince the commencement of the cuſtom of procuring wives and concubines from thoſe places, many of the Mahometan Perſians are much improved both in features and perſons, and, at preſent, are very near as beautiful as the Georgians and Circaſſians themſelves.

The Gaurs ſuffer a man to take only one wife, and prohibit the cohabiting with concubines, and divorces, unleſs a woman continues barren for the ſpace of nine years, when they are permitted to take another.

The Armenians are numerous in Perſia, and their religion comes neareſt to that of the Greek church of any other. They are tolerated in Perſia, and even their patriarchs, archbiſhops, biſhops, &c. are appointed by the Perſian government.

It is worthy of obſervation, that the Armenian children are all married while they are infants, which is a political precaution in the prieſts, to prevent their daughters from being ſent to the ſeraglios or harams of the grandees; for the Perſians are very particular in never committing adultery, or depriving any man of his wife: but though the contract is made in infancy, the cohabitation is not permitted till a ſuitable age. However, after the juvenile marriage, till the young couple are permitted by their parents, or other relations, to come together, the bridegroom annually makes a preſent to the bride at Eaſter, of a fine ſilk garment, and other articles, ſuitable to her quality and condition. When the time appointed for the celebration of the nuptials arrives, the bridegroom, richly dreſſed, and mounted upon a fine horſe, proceeds to the houſe of the bride, attended by his friends and relations. The bride then mounts a horſe, and being entirely covered with a veil, attends the company to the Armenian church, where the marriage is confirmed, and the biſhop gives the young couple his bleſſing. They then retire to the bridegroom's houſe, preceded by torches, muſic, &c. A grand entertainment is given, and a few days after the bride's portion is paid.

On the death of an Armenian, the corpſe is dreſſed in linen, but not put in a coffin. Prayers are read over it in the church, where, lamps and candles being lighted, it is left all night. The next morning it is carried to the gate of the principal clergyman of the place, who prays for the repoſe of the ſoul of the deceaſed, after which the corpſe is taken to the grave and interred.

There is a ſect in Perſia termed St. John's Chriſtians, and ſometimes Sabean Chriſtians, whoſe religion ſeems to be a mixture of Chriſtianity, Judaiſm, and Mahometaniſm. The Jewiſh religion is tolerated, and a great number of Jews are ſpread over the whole empire.

With reſpect to government, Perſia is an abſolute monarchy in the utmoſt extent of the word, as the properties, and even the lives of the people, are at the abſolute diſpoſal of the prince. There is no eſtabliſhed council, but the Shah takes the advice of whom he pleaſes. The crown is hereditary in the male line, females being excluded from the government, though the ſons of a daughter are admitted to reign. The Perſian laws will not permit a blind perſon to ſit upon the throne, which is the reaſon why the reigning monarch uſually puts out the eyes of all his male relations. It is death for any man to look at any of the Shah's wives even by accident.

The prime miniſter is called *attamaet doulet*, or the director of the empire; and his chief buſineſs is to ingratiate himſelf into his maſter's favour, and adminiſter to all his caprices; to keep from his knowledge all manner of diſagreeable news; to perſuade him that he is the moſt powerful prince upon earth; and that all his affairs are in a proſperous ſituation, though at the ſame time, perhaps, he is on the point of ruin. In the ſame manner as the prime miniſter depends upon the Shah, the inferior officers, and governors of provinces, depend upon him. Thus, there is a gradation of deſpotiſm throughout the whole empire.

Next in rank to the prime miniſter is the *nadir*, or grand maſter of the houſehold: then the *mehter*, or groom of the chambers, who is always a white eunuch. Beſides the above, there are a maſter of the horſe, a grand huntſman or falconer, a chief juſtice, from whoſe ſentence there is no appeal, a lieutenant of the police in every city and town, a ſecretary of ſtate, a financier, a royal phyſician, an inſpector of the palace, a maſter of the ceremonies, and many khans or governors of provinces. The ſpiritual offices are the *zedder*, or grand pontiff; ſubordinate to whom are the *ſheik-el*, *ſelom*, and *cadi*, who determine all religious diſputes, and act likewiſe as juſtices and attornies. Next to theſe are the *picknamas*, or ſuperintendants of prayer, and the *moulabs*, or doctors of the law.

In Perſia there is no hereditary nobility, for the honors of thoſe in great poſts terminate with their office;

and their lives and fortunes are in perpetual danger from the weakneſs and cruelty of the prince.

The arms of Perſia are a lion couchant looking at the ſun as he riſes over his back. The emperor's title of Shah ſignifies, "diſpoſer of kingdoms." The Perſian monarch does not ſubſcribe his name to public inſtruments, but the deed runs in this ſtile, viz. "This edict or act is given by him whom the univerſe obeys."

The troops of Perſia are diſtinguiſhed into two bodies, called kortſkies, and goulans; theſe are cavalry, and upon a peace eſtabliſhment the former amount to about twenty-two, and the latter to about eight thouſand men; they are generally well kept, and regularly paid.

The kortſkies are the deſcendants of foreigners, and the goulans are made up of Georgian renegadoes and ſlaves of all nations.

The tangtchies, or infantry, are compoſed of the moſt hardy peaſants, and amount to about fifty thouſand men. The fortified places are in general deſpicable; and they had no great naval power till the time of Kouli Khan, who built a royal fleet, in which was a man of war of eighty guns. But after the death of that uſurper they were laid up in the ports, and, for want of attention, fell to decay.

The principal book of the laws as well as religion of Perſia is the koran, to which they have recourſe in the deciſion made by the courts. But there is very little occaſion to conſult that, where any of the great officers ſit in judgement, as their determinations are entirely arbitrary. No diſputes ever ariſe between the ſpiritual and temporal courts, each of them having a diſtinct branch of buſineſs aſſigned them. Marriages, divorces, deeds and contracts, the ſucceſſions of eſtates, and other litigious matters come under the cognizance of the ſpiritual courts; criminal matters, or ſuch as are plain and obvious, under that of the temporal. As the former proceed in an arbitrary and ſummary way, they generally finiſh the cauſe at one hearing, but as the others proceed according to written laws, they are more tedious and expenſive. The debtor, on refuſal of payment, is delivered up to the creditor, who may impriſon him in his own houſe, ſet him to work, beat him, and treat him as he pleaſes, ſo he does not kill or maim him. He may alſo ſell the debtor's eſtates and goods, and even his perſon, wife and children towards the payment of the debt; but they ſeldom proceed to ſuch extremities.

The Mahometans ſwear by the koran. When a perſon of a different religion is to take an oath, the judge ſends an officer with him to a prieſt of the ſame religion: a Chriſtian ſwears upon the Goſpels, and a Jew on the Old Teſtment. The reaſon they do not ſwear an unbeliever on the koran is not only becauſe he does not regard it as a ſacred book, but leſt he ſhould prophane it. Contending parties plead their own cauſes, and frequently with much noiſe and clamour, ſo that the judge is ſometimes obliged to render them more orderly, by cauſing them to be cudgelled. When the parties have offered what they have to ſay, the judge proceeds to give ſentence.

The women likewiſe plead for themſelves as well as the men, but with much more clamour; but as they are ſet in a part of the court by themſelves and veiled, it gives them greater aſſurance. Their general buſineſs is, to ſue for a divorce, and they uſually plead the impotence of the huſband, and make ſuch a crying and howling as in a manner to deafen the judge, who muſt not order them to be beaten, as he does the men upon ſuch occaſions.

As there are no public priſons, there are neither ſheriffs or jailors, but every magiſtrate confines the criminal in ſome part of his own houſe till he is brought to his trial, which is generally within twenty-four hours after he is taken, and ſentence is no ſooner paſſed than it is executed, the judge's ſervants performing the offices both of jailors and executioners.

The proceedings in the criminal courts are nearly the ſame as in the civil. The condemnation of a malefactor is conducted with very little ceremony, nor is the execution attended with any parade. He is generally led to a field or open place, near the reſidence of the judge, and the executioner cauſing him to kneel, the delinquent pronounces his creed, and then if he is to be beheaded his head is taken off with the ſtroke of a ſabre in a thruſting cut, which, in drawing it back, compleats the execution.

In caſes of rebellion the puniſhment is very rigorous; thoſe who are even taken in arms loſe their eyes or their heads. Criminals of ſtate are alſo ſentenced to wear, for a determinate time, a heavy wooden collar about their necks, to which one of their hands is ſometimes faſtened. Ordinary crimes, where the parties are men of ſubſtance, are uſually puniſhed with fines; but where they are poor, they baſtinado them on the ſoles of the feet, giving them a certain number of blows, not leſs than thirty, nor more than three hundred.

Pickpockets and pilferers are marked with a hot iron in the forehead, and houſebreakers have their right hand cut off. The ſame puniſhment is inflicted on thoſe who counterfeit the coin for the firſt offence, but for the ſecond their bellies are ripped open. This puniſhment is inflicted in the following manner: the criminal's feet are tied to a camel, with his head hanging down to the ground; his belly is then ripped open, and his bowels falling over his face, he is dragged through the principal ſtreets, an officer marching before him, and with a loud voice informing the people of the nature of his crime. Afterwards he is hung up by the heels upon ſome tree, and there left to the prey of birds. They have other puniſhments for capital crimes, as impaling, ſetting them up to the chin in the earth, precipitating a criminal from an high tower, cutting off the hands and feet, and leaving the poor wretch in that condition till he expires. They ſometimes uſe tortures to extort confeſſion, as tearing off the fleſh with red hot pincers; but the uſual way of examining offenders is, while they are beating the ſoles of their feet. Bakers and victuallers have been ſometimes baked and roaſted alive, for cheating in their weights and raiſing proviſions to an exorbitant price; but this is only in times of great ſcarcity: the uſual puniſhment in theſe caſes is a fine, or the baſtinado.

This may ſuffice for the government, laws, &c. of the extenſive empire of Perſia.

SECTION IV.

Antiquities, &c. of Perſia.

ABOUT thirty Engliſh miles from the city of Schiras are the remains of the ancient palace of Perſopolis, which was wantonly burnt by Alexander the Great at the inſtance of the famed Grecian courtezan known by the name of Thais.

The ruins are ſituated in a fine plain, which is about 120 miles in length, and only ſix or ſeven in breadth. This plain is overflowed with water ſeveral months in the year, which occaſions it to be ſo very fertile, particularly in rice, that it is covered with little villages or hamlets, to the number of about 880, including thoſe which are ſituated in the adjacent mountains.

Theſe ruins appear like an amphitheatre, and are ſituated in a kind of ſemicircle formed by the mountains.

This ancient palace of the Perſian monarchs, which was formerly called the Houſe of Darius, and which the moderns term Chil-minar, or the Palace of Forty Pillars, is ſituated at the foot of a mountain, which has, from time immemorial, been known by the name of the Royal Mountain.

The palace was a ſtructure in magnificence that ſurpaſſed conception, and comprized every thing which could excite both admiration and aſtoniſhment.

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The walls of three of the ſides are ſtill ſtanding: the front extends from north to ſouth, 3000 feet, and from eaſt to weſt, 1995 feet, to the mountain itſelf, where an aſcent is formed between ſome ſcattered rocks, beyond which the rocks ſeem to indicate that there were formerly ſome other buildings, as many of the ſtones appear to have been poliſhed.

Within each of the two grand portals, there is the figure of a ſphinx, upon a pilaſter, in baſſo relievo. Both theſe figures are fourteen feet and a half high, and twenty-two in length, from the fore to the hinder legs; but they are much damaged, and the faces broken. That in the firſt portal faces the ſtair-caſe, and that in the ſecond the mountain.

There are ſome characters on the upper part of the pilaſters, which, from their minuteneſs and height, cannot be diſtinguiſhed. The height of one portal is thirty-nine feet, and of the other twenty-eight. The baſe of both is five feet two inches.

Southward from theſe there are two large flights of ſteps, the one towards the eaſt, the other to the weſt. The upper part of the wall, beſides foliages, and ſome ſmall figures, is ornamented with the repreſentation of a lion tearing a bull to pieces. The figures are larger than the life, and done in baſſo relievo. This ſtaircaſe is half buried under the earth.

On the ſummit of the ſtaircaſe there is an entrance into an open court, paved with large ſtones, the breadth of which is equal to the diſtance from the ſtaircaſe to the firſt columns, compriſing the ſpace of twenty-two feet two inches. There are two rows of theſe columns, each conſiſting of ſix pillars, all of which are damaged. Beſides theſe there are eight baſes, and the ruins of ſeveral others.

Towards the eaſt, a variety of ruins preſent themſelves to view, conſiſting of windows, portals, avenues, paſſages, &c. The inſide of the portals are ornamented with figures in baſſo relievo. Theſe ruins, from eaſt to weſt, are about 450 feet; from north to ſouth, about 725 feet: and 300 from the columns and mountains. In the midſt the earth is covered with the fragments of ſeventy-ſix columns.

To the ſouth there is a portal, and four open windows, the width of each being five feet nine inches, and the height eleven feet. On each ſide of the gate there is the figure of a man, with a kind of tiara upon his head, attended by two women, one of which holds an umbrella over him. Three niches on the inſide are covered with characters of the ancient Perſian language. One of the inſcriptions ſignifies, "Strength is the gift of God alone."

To the weſtward there are two gates, which are not covered. One of theſe is ornamented within, with the figures of a man fighting with a bull. The other gate is embelliſhed with the figures of a man and a winged deer, from whoſe forehead a horn projects. Behind this building are the ruins of another, which, in length, exceeds the former by thirty-eight feet. It has niches cut out of ſingle ſtones and windows, a double flight of ſteps finely embelliſhed with foliages, and ſmall figures appear to the ſouth.

There are ſome ſubterraneous paſſages ſtill farther to the ſouthward, into which the natives will upon no account enter, though they are ſuppoſed to contain immenſe treaſures; the only reaſon for which is an abſurd notion, that no light can poſſibly be made to burn in them. However, two European travellers entered with lights, which were not extinguiſhed, as the ſuperſtitious natives ſuppoſed they would be, and, after ranging about a conſiderable time, they both agree to their reſpective accounts, that theſe paſſages terminate in a ſmall kind of aqueduct, which is too narrow to enter.

Near theſe ſubterraneous paſſages are the ruins of another edifice, extending, from north to ſouth, 160 feet, and from eaſt to weſt, 191 feet. Ten portals of this building ſtill remain, with forty incloſures, which were formerly rooms, and ſeven windows. In the center are the pedeſtals of thirty-ſix columns in ſix ranges. Beneath the ground, which is covered with ſeveral large ſtones, there are the remains of ſome aqueducts.

Another ſtructure formerly ſtood to the weſtward of the laſt mentioned building. On the ruins of the wall, which is ſtill elevated about two feet above the pavement, are the figures, in baſſo relievo, of ſeveral men with lances in their hands. Within the incloſure of the wall there are the remains of ſeveral pedeſtals of pillars. On the eaſt ſide of theſe ruins are the remains of an elegant ſtaircaſe, of ſixty feet in length, the ſteps of which are in general deſtroyed. The wall is ſtill eight feet in height, and the figures which adorn it are near as big as the life. On the front are the figures of a lion and a bull fighting; and on the wings of the ſtaircaſe are the repreſentations of ſeveral lions, and other figures, with explanatory characters. Between this and the laſt mentioned edifice are the ruins of ſeveral columns, and the remains of four portals, with the figure of a man, and two women holding an umbrella over his head, on the inſide of each.

In another quarter appear two portals with pilaſters, on one of which are the figures of a man and two women, one of the latter holding an umbrella over the head of the former. Above the women is a ſmall figure with wings, which expand to each ſide of the portico. Over the other portal is the repreſentation of a man ſitting in a chair with a ſtaff in his hand, behind whom ſtands another with his right hand upon the chair: above is a ſmall figure holding a circle in his left hand, and pointing to ſomething in his right. Beneath this portal are three ranges of figures, which have all uplifted hands: above the third pilaſter, which is entire, are women holding an umbrella over the head of a man. The ground is covered with a variety of antique fragments.

It is obſervable, that the drapery of all the human figures is ſingular, and bears no affinity to that of the ancient Greeks and Romans, but their military habits reſemble thoſe of the Medes and Perſians, now ſtanding amidſt theſe ruins.

At a place called Noxi Ruſtan, there are four tombs cut high in the rock. The place receives its name from one Ruſtan, a ſuppoſed gigantic prince, whoſe ſtatue is there carved, and whom the natives moſt *ignorantly* aſſert to have been 40 cubits high, and 1113 years of age when he died.

Beneath each tomb there is a ſeparate table filled with large figures in baſſo relievo. On two of the tables are the repreſentations of men fighting on horſeback, but the figures are almoſt obliterated. Between the tombs are three other tables covered with figures, among which is a man on horſeback, proceeded by two others, and followed by a third which is almoſt defaced.

The tomb of Noxi Ruſtan is ſuppoſed to be that made for Darius Hyſtaſpes, as it exactly correſponds with the deſcriptions of Herodotus, Diodorus Siculus, and Creſius in his Perſian hiſtory.

At Pyrmaraas, near the city of Scamachie, are the tombs of two Perſian ſaints. The firſt is the ſepulchre of Seid Ibrahim, which is ſurrounded with walls, and has two courts like a caſtle, within which are many arched apartments. In the firſt is a tomb incloſed within an iron gate.

At a ſmall diſtance from the above is the ſumptuous ſepulchre of another Perſian ſaint, called Tiribabba, of whom Seid Ibrahim was a diſciple. It contains ſeveral niches, chambers, and holes, where the pilgrims take up their abode, and perform their devotions.

The ſepulchre of Shah Sefi, near the city of Ardebil, is viſited with great pomp by the Perſians on Whitſun-Monday. The entrance is through a ſpacious court, paved with broad ſtones, and furniſhed on both ſides with vaulted ſhops. The gate is large, and croſſed by a ſilver chain, fromwhich another of the ſame metal hangs perpendicularly. The next gate has likewiſe a ſilver chain to it; and no perſon muſt paſs it with any offenſive

offenſive weapons about them, not even a knife. The threſholds of this and ſeveral other gates are round, and of white marble. The tomb itſelf is three feet in height, nine in length, and four in breadth, made of white marble, and covered with crimſon velvet. From the roof a variety of gold and ſilver lamps hang down; and on each ſide are two very large candleſticks of maſſy gold, containing wax candles. On the left hand is a vault, wherein are the tombs of Shah Sefi's conſort, and ſome other empreſſes of Perſia, and of Shah Iſmael. Near this is a ſpacious arched gallery finely gilt, which is uſed as a library, and contains a great number of manuſcripts in the Arabic, Perſian and Turkiſh tongues; ſome written upon parchment, and others upon paper; but all ſuperbly bound, beautifully painted, and elegantly covered with plates of gold and ſilver. In various niches, on the ſides of the library, are above four hundred porcelain veſſels, many of them ſufficiently capacious to hold ten gallons.

SECTION V.

Concise History of Persia.

ANCIENT hiſtorians in general admit of the antiquity and priſtine grandeur of the Perſian empire, and the variety of revolutions it has undergone. The hiſtory of Perſia is little to be depended on till A. M. 2083, when Abram fought a battle with ſome Perſian princes, and defeated them with only 318 of his own family. The hiſtory of the Aſſyrian empire, from the time of Nimrod, to the reign of Sardanapalus, is vague, uncertain, and mutilated.

Sardanapalus, an effeminate, luxurious prince, was oppoſed by Arbaces, governor of Media, and other. Being defeated, and purſued to Ninevah, in a fit of deſpair, he ordered a vaſt pile of wood to be raiſed, and upon it burnt his treaſures, his eunuchs, his women, and himſelf. After the death of the emperor, his dominions devolved to Arbaces, and others who had joined him to effect his deſpotiſm. Arbaces took Media and Perſia: Belochus, one of theſe, aſſumed the government of Babylonia and Chaldea; and the reſt ſhared the other provinces, which had helped to conſtitute the empire. Belochus, who began his reign A. M. 3257, was followed by ſeveral kings of Babylon, of whom there are authentic records. Ninus, who reigned in Nineveh, conquered Syria, and annexed not only that kingdom, but all Iſrael beyond Jordan, or Galilee, to his own dominions. Salmanazar, his ſucceſſor, to puniſh Hoſea, king of Samaria, who was deſirous of ſhaking off the Aſſyrian yoke, marched againſt him with a powerful army, plundered and laid waſte his country, loaded him with chains and impriſoned him.

Salmanazar was ſucceeded by his ſon Sennacherib, an impious prince, who, on King Hezekiah's refuſing to pay the uſual tribute, invaded Judea, was guilty of flagrant extortions, as well as violation of oaths and promiſes, and afterwards undertook the ſiege of Jeruſalem, where by a providential interpoſition, 185,000 of his men were deſtroyed in one night, and he was compelled to retreat with the wretched remains of his forces. At length he became odious to his own relations, and was murdered by two of his ſons in his principal temple, as he was proſtrating himſelf before an idol. The parricides fled to Armenia, ſo that his throne was filled by Eſarhaddon their younger brother, who reigned proſperouſly 39 years, annexed Babylon to his dominions, conquered Syria and Paleſtine, and added them to the Aſſyrian empire. He was ſucceeded by his ſon Saoſduchinus or Nebuchadnezzar the Firſt, who aſcended the throne A. M. 3335. One of his generals raiſed a rebellion againſt him, made himſelf maſter of Babylon, reigned there 21 years, and then having entered into a treaty with Cyaxares, king of Media, they, in conjunction, laid ſiege to Nineveh, took it by ſtorm, and entirely deſtroyed it. Saracus being ſlain in the ſiege, the ſucceſsful general Nabopolaſſar transferred the ſeat of the Aſſyrian empire to Babylon, and was acknowledged as ſovereign by all ranks of people.

The neighbouring monarchs, alarmed at the growing power, and envious of the riſing greatneſs of Nabopolaſſar, united their forces againſt him and his colleague Cyaxares, recovered Syria and Paleſtine, and advanced as far as the Euphrates.

Nebopolaſſar being grown old ſent his ſon Nebuchadnezzar at the head of a powerful army againſt them, who defeated the confederate armies, retook the city of Carchemiſh, and recovered Syria and Paleſtine.

He then penetrated into Judea, laid ſiege to Jeruſalem, and took it in the year of the world 3398.

He put Jehoiakim, king of Judea, into irons, deſigning to carry him to Babylon in order to grace his triumph. But being at length moved to compaſſion by the ſeverity of that king's affliction, he relented, and reſtored him again to his throne: he, however, carried a great number of Jews with him into captivity, particularly ſeveral of the royal family, plundered the king's treaſury, and even the temple, from whence he removed the moſt valuable veſſels. From this æra we are to date the Jewiſh captivity at Babylon, which happened in the fourth year of Jehoiakim king of Judea; among the reſt Daniel the prophet, being then only eighteen years of age, was carried into captivity, as was Ezekiel a ſhort time after.

Nabopolaſſar dying A. M. 5399, his ſon Nebuchadnezzar, who, for ſome time, had ſhared the government with him, now aſcended the throne of Babylon, and by the name and title of Nebuchadnezzar the Second.

His dominions included Chaldea, Aſſyria, part of Arabia, Paleſtine and Syria, over which he reigned 43 years.

In the fourth year of his reign he had a dream, which greatly oppreſſed his ſpirits, though he could not recollect the particulars.

In conſequence of this the ſoothſayers, diviners and magicians of the empire were called together. When they were aſſembled Nebuchadnezzar demanded of them the particular circumſtances of the dream. They replied, that it exceeded their ſkill to tell what any perſon had dreamed, their art extending only to the interpretation of thoſe dreams which were told them. This ſo greatly enraged the king, that he ordered all the magicians and wiſe men to be put to death. In this bloody order Daniel and three of his companions were included, they being deemed to poſſeſs all the learning and ſkill of the Egyptians and Arabians. Daniel, however, deſired to have an audience of the king, when, being admitted into his preſence, he, to the king's great aſtoniſhment, told him the ſubſtance of his dream. The king being now convinced that the God of Iſrael was the true God, advanced Daniel to the higheſt offices of the ſtate, and his friends were likewiſe promoted to great truſt and honours.

About this time the king of Judea revolted, but was killed in a battle with the troops of Babylon, under the command of one of Nebuchadnezzar's generals. Jechoniah his ſon was ſhut up and cloſely beſieged in Jeruſalem by the Aſſyrian army till the arrival of Nebuchadnezzar, who ſoon made himſelf maſter of, and plundered the city, ſending away every valuable article to Babylon.

Nebuchadnezzar placed his own uncle Zedekiah on the throne, and carried Jechoniah, his wives, officers, and even his mother, into captivity, excluſive of a vaſt multitude of the common people.

Zedekiah, however, ſoon revolted, and Nebuchadnezzar again laid ſiege to Jeruſalem, which after having been inveſted more than twelve months, was taken by ſtorm. Zedekiah was carried to Babylon into captivity, after having had his eyes put out; but his two ſons, his nobles, and all his principal officers of ſtate, were put to the ſword.

Nebuchadnezzar

Nebuchadnezzar was now ſo elated with pride, that he ordered a ſtatue of gold to be made of ſixty feet in height. The idol being completed, he convened together all the principal people of the empire, in order to dedicate it with the utmoſt ſolemnity, and publiſhed a decree, that all ſhould be thrown into a fiery furnace, who refuſed to acknowledge it as a deity, and to pay it adoration. Three Hebrew youths, however, named Ananias, Miſael, and Azarius, or, as they are termed in ſcripture, Shadrach, Meſhach, and Abednego, abſolutely refuſed to comply with the royal mandate. Being, therefore, in conſequence of the king's order, thrown into the fiery furnace, they were miraculouſly preſerved from the flames by the intervention of Providence. This ſo affected the king, that he publiſhed another ordinance, enjoining, upon pain of death, that nothing ſhould be ſaid againſt the God of the Hebrews.

Nebuchadnezzar then laid ſiege to Tyre, but was thirteen years before he took it. The principal Tyrians, however, eſcaped in their veſſels to a neighbouring iſland, where they erected another city, which ſoon ſurpaſſed the former in magnificence and wealth. After the conqueſt of Tyre he ſubdued Egypt, and having attained the pinnacle of glory, he determined to complete the buildings and embelliſhments of Babylon.

Nebuchadnezzar now fell a ſacrifice to his own pride, and, by pretending to be equal to God, became inferior to man; for the Almighty deprived him of his ſenſes. He was excluded from the ſociety of men, grazed in the fields like the oxen, had nails like the claws of birds, and hairs like the feathers of eagles. In ſeven years time, however, his ſenſes were reſtored to him; he re-aſſumed the government, and being ſenſible of the enormity of human vanity, and of the immenſe power of the Almighty, he publiſhed an edict againſt idolatry, and died the enſuing year.

He was ſucceeded by his ſon Evil Merodoch, who immediately releaſed Jechoniah from the priſon where he had been confined thirty ſeven-years. He was, however, of ſo vicious a nature, that his own relations conſpired to put him to death, when his ſiſter's huſband, Nezigleſſar, who was one of the conſpirators, mounted the throne.

In the year of the world 3444 he entered into an alliance with the Lydians againſt the Medes, when Cyaxares, king of Media, called in the aſſiſtance of the Perſians; but before the war began, the king of Babylon died, and his ſon Leboroſoarchod, one of the moſt infamous monarchs that ever exiſted, reigned but nine months, being put to death by his own ſubjects, on account of his exceſſive wickedneſs.

He was ſucceeded by a ſon of Evil Merodoch, named Labynit, or, as the ſcripture terms him, Belſhazzar, A. M. 3449.

In his reign Babylon was taken by Cyaxares, king of Media, and Cyrus, king of Perſia, and an end put to the Babyloniſh empire, after a duration of 210 years. Some ſucceeding Perſian kings not only deſtroyed great part of Babylon, but choſe their reſidence at Perſepolis, Shuſhan, Ecbatana, &c. in order that it might fall to decay as ſoon as poſſible, by ceaſing to be a royal ſeat.

Cyrus and Cyaxares reigned jointly over the dominions of thoſe they had ſubdued for the ſpace of two years, when Cyaxares dying, Cyrus became ſole monarch of Media and Perſia by birth, and of the Aſſyrian empire by conqueſt, and the whole acquired the name of the PERSIAN EMPIRE, of which he was deemed the firſt founder. Cyrus divided the whole of his dominions into one hundred and twenty provinces, each of which had its governor, who was obliged to give an account of his adminiſtration to three great officers of ſtate, of which Daniel the prophet was principal. The ſeventieth year of the Babyloniſh captivity expired in the firſt year of Cyrus, when he publiſhed an ordinance, by the perſuaſion of Daniel, permitting the Jews to return to Jeruſalem, reſtoring, at the ſame time, the veſſels Nebuchadnezzar had plundered from the temple.

Peace being formally eſtabliſhed throughout the empire, Cyrus made it his practice to reſide yearly ſeven months at Babylon, three at Suſa, and two at Tauris. After a reign of infinite glory, he died in the ſeventieth year of his age; the ſeventh after his reigning ſole monarch of the Perſian empire, the ninth after the caption of Babylon, and the thirtieth after his being appointed to the command of the Perſian forces. His eldeſt ſon Cambyſes ſucceeded him on the throne, though he left ſeveral provinces to his younger ſon Tanaoxares.

Cambyſes, in A. M. 3479, invaded Egypt, and made himſelf maſter of Peluſium, or Damietta, as it is at preſent called, by a ſingular ſtratagem; for he drove a great number of thoſe animals which the Egyptians adored before the van of his army: theſe were oxen, cats, &c. The Egyptians perceiving ſuch a number of thoſe animals whom they venerated would not ſhoot a ſingle arrow, leſt they ſhould wound a god.

Amaſis died during the war, and his ſon Pſamaticus ventured a general battle with the Perſians, but was defeated, and made priſoner. Cambyſes, however, treated him with great humanity, and reſtored him to his throne; but Pſamaticus afterwards revolted, which ſo enraged the Perſian monarch that he put him to death.

A. M. 3480. Cambyſes invaded Ethiopia, in which expedition he loſt a great part of his army by a variety of accidents, and at length was compelled to retire. He was ſo chagrined at his diſappointment, that on his return through Egypt, he deſtroyed the city of Thebes out of mere vexation. To add to his affliction, he received intelligence, that an army which he had ſent to invade Lybia, was deſtroyed by a hurricane of ſands in the deſerts, which was ſo terrible, that it had overwhelmed and ſuffocated all his troops. This news rendered him almoſt frantic; when arriving at Memphis, during the paroxyſm of his rage, he found the people celebrating a certain feſtival. This appearance of mirth redoubled his fury, for he fancied that they were rejoicing at his ill ſucceſſes: giving way, therefore, to the dictates of his anger, he wounded the ſacred ox with his ſword, and ordered all the prieſts to be inſtantly put to death. In fact, his misfortunes had ſo far impaired his underſtanding, and ſoured his temper, that he exerciſed the utmoſt cruelties upon his neareſt relations and beſt friends.

In paſſing through Syria towards Babylon, he received advice that his brother Smerdis had uſurped his throne. Cambyſes, however, well knew that Smerdis was actually dead, and that this muſt be ſome impoſtor, who pretended to be his deceaſed brother, in order to impoſe upon the people. He therefore determined to haſten his march towards Babylon, to undeceive his deluded ſubjects; but, in mounting his horſe, he, by accident, wounded himſelf with his own ſword in the thigh, of which wound he ſpeedily died, A. M. 3482.

The uſurper Smerdis, who greatly reſembled the real Smerdis in perſon, features, and age, was the ſon of the governor of Babylon, who was one of the magi. The people were eaſily impoſed upon, and recognized him as their king upon the death of Cambyſes.

As ſoon as he was ſeated upon the throne, he ſequeſtered himſelf as much as poſſible from the people, and particularly concealed himſelf from the nobles. This myſterious conduct occaſioned the principal people to ſurmiſe that he really was not the prince he pretended to be.

A Perſian nobleman, whoſe daughter was one of the uſurper's concubines, gave her orders to obſerve if Smerdis had any ears. She aſſured him he had not: for Cyrus had ordered his ears to be cut off, for ſome offence he had committed againſt him during his reign. This diſcovery being made known, a number of the nobility entered the palace, and having put him to death, cut off his head, and expoſed it to the people, who were ſo exaſperated at the magi for aſſiſting in the impoſition, that they murdered the greateſt part of them, and inſtituted a feſtival in commemoration of the event.

Darius Hyſtaſpes, who was the perſon that gave the uſurper his mortal wound, was unanimouſly choſen emperor A. M. 3483. He immediately married Atoſſa, the widow of Cambyſes, and Ariſtona, another daughter of Cyrus. He had many other wives, who brought him a numerous iſſue.

It was this monarch who was the Ahaſuerus of the ſacred writings, and, at the requeſt of queen Eſther, cauſed the celebrated edict againſt Haman, in favour of the Jews, to be publiſhed.

Darius removed the regal ſeat to Suſa, when ſome intereſted perſons taking the advantage of his abſence from Babylon, perſuaded the people to revolt. Darius accordingly marched againſt Babylon, and beſieged it for eighteen months, without being able to take it; when one of his generals, named Zopyrus, pretended to deſert the enemy, and, by means of an artful tale, contrived to inſinuate himſelf ſo far into the good graces of the Babylonians, that they were weak enough to entruſt him with the command of their forces. This power he ſoon uſed in favour of Darius, to whom he betrayed the city. The Perſian monarch ordered the walls to be demoliſhed, and put to death a great number of citizens who had been moſt active in the revolt.

He afterwards made two unſucceſsful expeditions; the one into Scythia, and the other into India: and in the year of the world 3514, he invaded Greece; but Miltiades, the Athenian general, gained a complete victory over the Perſian army at the paſs of Marathon; though the Perſian emperor had ten times the number of men under his command.

Darius then made preparations to invade Egypt, which had revolted, but dying before his army was completed, his ſon Xerxes ſucceeded him in the year of the world 3519. Xerxes determined to purſue his late father's meaſures vigorouſly. He accordingly marched into Egypt, and ſubdued that kingdom.

Three years afterwards he invaded Greece with a conſiderable army, conſiſting of near 3,000,000 men. The Carthaginians at the ſame time had engaged to invade the Grecian territories in Sicily and Italy by ſea. Xerxes laid a bridge of boats over the Helleſpont, that his vaſt army might paſs with the greater facility, but a ſtorm deſtroyed the bridge. He then cauſed a ſtronger bridge to be made, and the army ſecretly paſſed over it. However, he was unſucceſsful in his expedition; no part of Greece, except Thrace, ſubmitting to his arms: and Leonidas, a Spartan prince, diſputed his paſſage ſo bravely at the paſs of Thermopylæ, between Sicily and Phocis, that 20,000 Perſians were ſlain in various aſſaults, though Leonidas had only 4000 men under his command.

At length a treacherous native ſhewed the Perſians a way up the mountain which commanded the Strait. Leonidas, perceiving this, judged it would be impoſſible to defend the paſs, and therefore determined to die upon the ſpot. He accordingly diſmiſſed all his troops, except 300, who choſe to ſhare his fate. Before the attack began, he invited them to dine with him, telling them at the ſame time, that they muſt ſup with Pluto. The attack was then begun. Leonidas, and his Spartans, ſold their lives at a dear rate, all being killed except one, who eſcaped and carried the news to Sparta, where he was puniſhed for cowardice, in not ſtaying and dying with his companions. This action, however it may have been admired, appears to have bordered more upon raſhneſs than real courage, and to have been founded rather upon abſurdity than true heroiſm.

On the ſame day that the above action happened, the Grecian fleet, conſiſting of 400 ſail, defeated the fleet of the Perſians, which conſiſted of full 1000 ſail.

Xerxes, however, proceeded to Athens, when the Athenians ſent their wives and children to Peloponneſus, abandoned their city, and retired to their ſhipping. Xerxes entered Athens, which he firſt plundered, and then burnt. The Grecians, however, obtained another ſignal victory over his fleet at Salamis; and a report at the ſame time prevailing, that they intended to cut off his retreat, by deſtroying the bridge over the Helleſpont, he therefore haſted back, and found the bridge deſtroyed, not by his enemies, but by a ſtorm. He, however, contrived to paſs with part of his army leaving 300,000 men behind to continue the war, who were defeated the enſuing campaign by Ariſtides and Pauſanias, and their general Mardonius was ſlain. In theſe various expeditions Xerxes had above two thirds of his vaſt army deſtroyed, and was ſo chagrined by his repeated diſappointments, that he burnt all the Grecian temples in Aſia, the temple of Diana at Epheſus excepted.

Soon after Mithridates, an eunuch, and Artabanus, a captain of the Perſian guards, formed a conſpiracy, and murdered this unhappy monarch, who was ſucceeded (A. M. 3532) by his third ſon Artaxerxes, the two elder having been deſtroyed by the above-mentioned regicides, whom Artaxerxes put to death ſoon after his aſcending the throne.

This monarch ſubdued Egypt, which had revolted, and aſſiſted the Jews in rebuilding the walls of Jeruſalem. The Grecians, however, continued the war, and carried it into Aſia with ſucceſs, when Artaxerxes thought proper to conclude a peace with them; and thus terminated a war which had raged for the ſpace of fifty years.

Artaxerxes died in the forty-ninth year of his reign. His ſons, who were numerous, diſputed each their title to the throne. At length Ochus, or Darius, prevailed; but dying ſoon, he was ſucceeded by his ſon Arſaces, A. M. 3600, who ruled the whole empire, except Leſſer Aſia, which was bequeathed to a younger brother.

Arſaces was born before his father was king, but his brother Cyrus after: the younger prince, therefore, imagined that he had the greater right to the whole empire. To ſupport this claim, he raiſed a numerous army of Perſians in his government of Leſſer Aſia, and having procured the aſſiſtance of a body of auxiliary Grecians, he began his march to diſpoſſeſs his brother of his crown. Arſaces met him with an army of 1,000,000 Perſians, at the diſtance of about ſeventy miles from Babylon, when the army of Cyrus was defeated, and himſelf ſlain. The Grecian auxiliaries, however, made an admirable retreat, under the conduct of their able and learned general Xenophon, whoſe narrative of that celebrated tranſaction is one of the fineſt pieces of ancient hiſtory that the moderns are acquainted with.

Arſaces was ſucceeded by his ſon Ochus, A. M. 3642. This prince ſubdued the Egyptians and Phœnicians, who had revolted, deſtroyed all the fortified places and temples, and carried many of the people into captivity. Among the reſt was an Egyptian eunuch, called Bagoas, of whom Ochus ſoon grew exceedingly fond, and heaped innumerable favours on him. This, however, did not prevent Bagoas from conſpiring againſt him, and poiſoning him in the 23d year of his reign. Not content with this treachery, he, in a very ſhort time, poiſoned his ſon Ochus, who ſucceeded him, and contrived to place another Ochus upon the throne, who, it is imagined, was not in the leaſt related to the royal family. It was not long, however, before he was diſpleaſed with this monarch alſo, and, as uſual, had prepared a cup of poiſon for him; but the king diſcovered his intentions, and obliged him to drink the poiſon himſelf. Thus was his repeated treachery puniſhed, and the law of retaliation properly exerciſed.

Ochus then aſſumed the name of Darius Codomanus, and (A. M. 3668) was invaded by the Grecians under the conduct of Philip, king of Macedon, who was choſen generaliſſimo of the confederate armies of Greece; but being murdered, his ſon Alexander, afterwards known by the name of Alexander the Great, ſucceeded him. This prince, though only twenty years of age, paſſed the Helleſpont, at the head of 30,000 foot and 5000 horſe, and defeated Darius on the banks of the Granicus,

Granicus, though his army conſiſted of 100,000 Perſians and 10,000 auxiliary Greeks; when Sardis and many other cities ſubmitted to the conqueror.

During the enſuing winter Alexander viſited the temple of Gordian, where he cut with his ſword the celebrated Gordian knot, which ſo many had in vain attempted to untie, on account of the tradition, that whoever could untie it ſhould conquer Aſia. As ſoon as the ſeaſon permitted, Alexander marched to the ſtreights of Iſſus in Cilicia, when Darius very imprudently attacked him at a time the ſituation of his army was admirable. The Perſians were again defeated, and Darius's mother, wife, ſeveral of his children, and 300 of his concubines, were taken priſoners. All the cities of Paleſtine and Phœnicia now ſubmitted to the conqueror, excepr Tyre, which ſuſtained a long ſiege; but being at length taken by ſtorm, all the inhabitants were put to the ſword, except 2000, who were left for crucifixion; which cruel ſentence they afterwards ſuffered upon croſſes erected for the purpoſe along the ſea coaſt, for no other reaſon than having bravely defended their lives and properties, and performed the parts of worthy citizens and heroic ſolders. This deteſtable affair will be a laſting ſtigma upon the character of Alexander, and blaſt his laurels with infamy: Syria and Egypt ſubmitted to the conqueror.

Alexander now viſited the temple of Jupiter Ammon, whoſe ſon he pretended to be. After having built the city of Alexandria, he penetrated into Paleſtine, paſſed the Euphrates and Tigris, and in the plains of Arbela again gave the Perſians a total defeat; the conſequence of which was, Babylon, Suſa, and Perſopolis opened their gates to the conqueror: the latter of theſe, which was then the fineſt city in the univerſe, he reduced to aſhes.

Alexander then continued to purſue Darius; but that unhappy prince was murdered by one of his own generals named Beſſus, whom Alexander afterwards put to death for his treachery. Thus ended the Perſian monarchy after a continuance of 209 years.

Alexander then carried his arms into India, ſubdued Porus, a powerful monarch of that country, and, indeed, conquered the greateſt part of the then known world. He afterwards married Statira, the eldeſt daughter of the unfortunate Darius; and at the ſame time obliged the officers to intermarry with Perſian ladies. Returning to Babylon, elated by vanity, and intoxicated by ſucceſs, he gave himſelf up to all manner of debaucheries, and at length fell a martyr to exceſs, A. M. 3681.

As Alexander had not named a ſucceſſor, his generals ſhared his dominions among them. To Ptolemy fell Egypt; Seleucus, the ſon of Antiochus, poſſeſſed Babylonia and Syria; and Caſſander had the ſovereignty of Greece.

In the year of Chriſt 630 the Saracens, who ſucceeded Mahomet, made a conqueſt of Perſia. The Turks conquered it in the year 1000; and Tamerlane the Great, Cham of Tartary, ſubdued Peaſia and the greateſt part of Turkey in Aſia, in the year 1400: after the race of the Tartar monarch Sophy or Sefi obtained the regal dominion to Perſia, ſome of whoſe deſcendants were for a long time contending for the empire. He was ſucceeded by his ſon Shah Thomas, an inhuman prince, who was depoſed by his ſubjects. His brother Codabundi reigned after him. This monarch was ſucceeded by Shah Abbas, a powerful prince, who greatly enlarged the Perſian monarchy by his conqueſts. Having reigned glorioufly for the ſpace of 40 years, he was ſucceeded by his grandſon Shah Sefi, who was a tyrant and a drunkard. He deſtroyed his queen in a fit of inebriation, and at length fell a martyr to repeated exceſſes.

After this prince Shah Abbas the Second, his ſon, reigned 21 years, and, like his father, deſtroyed himſelf by drinking. He was ſucceeded by his ſon Shah Sefi the Second, in whoſe reign the country was greatly diſtreſſed by war and famine. He died July 29, 1694.

Sultan Hoſſein, his ſon, was his ſucceſſor, a weak indolent prince, who, by his vices and ſupineneſs, gave great offence not only to his own ſubjects, but to the neighbouring Tartar chiefs; one of whom, named Mereweis, ſurpriſed Candahor, penetrated a conſiderable way into Perſia, determined to march to Iſpahan, and even aſpired to the throne of Perſia itſelf. He died, however, before he could carry his deſigned plans into execution.

Mahamood, the ſon of Hoſſein, ſucceeded his father, and purſued his meaſures. He made alliances with the Grand Signior and Great Mogul, and prevailed on the baſſa of Bagdad to invade the Perſian frontiers, and the Ruſſians to attack the provinces towards the Caſpian Sea.

The Perſian miniſters were now in the utmoſt conſternation: Mahamood was, by haſty marches, approaching towards the capital, where the puſillanimous monarch offered to reſign his crown in favour of his eldeſt ſon; but the ſon having been educated in effeminacy, and never out of the ſeraglio in his life, was more frightened than his father, and declined either accepting the crown or commanding the army. Prince Thomas, however, a younger brother, having more ſpirit than the reſt of the family, determined to put himſelf at the head of the forces, and to oppoſe the rebels; but when he came to take a review of the Perſian troops, he found them ſo effeminate, undiſciplined, and diſpirited, that he was ſenſible he could not repoſe any truſt in them. He therefore withdrew himſelf from the army, and retired towards the Caſpian Sea.

Mahamood ſhortly after entered Iſpahan without oppoſition, and impriſoned the king and all the royal family, moſt of whom he afterwards deſtroyed. He beheaded the prime miniſter with moſt of his adherents, and ſeized upon the eſtates and properties of all who were obnoxious to him; the whole conqueſt being effected with only 5000 horſe.

In the mean time Shah Thomas, the young ſultan, aſſembled a body of troops, and being daily joined by a great number of royaliſts, he determined firſt of all to repel the Turks, who were ravaging the frontiers; when intelligence was brought him, that the uſurper Mahamood was aſſaſſinated by one of his officers named Eſriff, who had ſucceeded him. Upon this information the prince gave an invitation to Kouli Khan, who had been ſtrongly recommended to him to join his forces.

Kouli Khan, at the head of ſome Uſbec Tartars, accordingly joined the army of Shah Thomas, and marching immediately againſt Eſriff, he defeated his troops, took him priſoner, and put him to a very cruel death. He then turned his arms againſt the Turks, and wreſted from them all the places they had taken from the Perſians during the late troubles; and afterwards compelled the Ruſſians to evacuate thoſe provinces, towards the Caſpian Sea, of which they had poſſeſſed themſelves. Elated with repeated ſucceſs, he aſpired at the Imperial dignity, and, ſtimulated by his ambition, he not only depoſed, but murdered the unfortunate Shah Thomas: for that monarch was never heard of after having been deprived of his throne.

As Kouli Khan's actions have been the ſubject of general converſation, and the conſequences of which they were productive are the moſt recent particulars on which we can with certainty depend, relative to the affairs in Perſia, we ſhall be rather circumſtantial in what concerns that uſurper.

Among the mountains in the neighbourhood of Meſhed there is a petty principality called Chalat, which is ruled by a chief who is always a native; this chief acknowledges the emperor of Perſia as his ſovereign; that monarch, however, has not the leaſt real power over the abovementioned little ſtate, but the court of Perſia winks at the nominal ſubjection and real independance of the Chalatites, in order to preſerve their friendſhip, otherwiſe they would prove very troubleſome neigbours; for ſecure in their mountainous retreat, they could, at pleaſure, make excurſions into the adjacent

adjacent provinces, and plunder the Perſians with impunity.

Kouli Khan, or Nadir Shah, was born at Chalat in the year 1687, and was heir to that little principality. His father died when he was only nine years old, and an uncle to Nadir was inveſted with the government till he ſhould become of age. The uncle acted with ſuch prudence and moderation, than he became very popular, and the people unanimouſly confirmed to him the government during his life: for young Nadir gave ſuch early proofs of a haughty, turbulent and tyrannical ſpirit, that the Chalatites in general preſaged the moſt fatal conſequences when he ſhould be inveſted with uncontrouled power.

As this treatment was very diſguſting to young Nadir, he left the place of his nativity, repaired to Choraſſan, and entered into the Perſian army in 1712 as a private ſoldier.

His ſtrength, courage, and military capacity, of which he gave frequent proofs, occaſioned him to be promoted to the rank of colonel in 1719.

The Uſbec Tartars having invaded Choraſſan, the governor of that province thought proper to appoint Nadir to the command of the Perſian troops, though, by ſo doing, he diſguſted many ſenior officers.

Nadir's conduct tended to heighten the great opinion which the governor of Choraſſan had entertained of his military talents. He acted with great courage, and profound policy, and not only defeated the Uſbecs, but took many thouſands of them priſoners, with all their tents, baggage, cattle, and the plunder which they had taken from the inhabitants of Choraſſan.

The governor greatly careſſed Nadir, loaded him with favours, and promiſed to recommend him ſo ſtrongly to Shah Thomas, as to engage that prince to make him a general. A vacancy, however, falling ſoon after, a young nobleman, related to the governor, was promoted. This ſo exaſperated Kouli Khan, that he upbraided the governor in the moſt inſolent terms, and grew ſo exceedingly ſcurrilous, that the governor was under the neceſſity of ordering him to be baſtinadoed.

Kouli Khan now meditated nothing but miſchief; and, as ſoon as he recovered from the effects of the chaſtiſement, he fled to the mountains. Having put himſelf at the head of a band of robbers, he continually ravaged the country, and plundered the caravans.

His uncle hearing of his conduct, wrote a letter to him, ſtrenuouſly exhorting him to refrain from ſuch a way of life, and that he would undertake to procure a pardon from Shah Thomas, for all he had hitherto committed. Nadir aſſented to his uncle's propoſals, and a pardon was procured. Nadir, under a pretence of returning his grateful thanks to his uncle, repaired to Chalat, with a few of his followers, where he was cordially received by that gentleman. He had previouſly, however, ordered ſome hundreds of his men to advance privately towards the place, and to be ready to attend at a certain ſignal, when they were to ruſh in at the only gate belonging to the fortreſs. Early the enſuing morning Nadir murdered his uncle, while his followers within ſeized the gate with little or no reſiſtance, and ſoon admitted their companions. Thus did Nadir, with very little trouble, become poſſeſſed of a place hitherto deemed impregnable, and which had frequently withſtood the whole power of Perſia; for within the perpendicular and inacceſſible rocks which ſurrounded it, there is land ſufficient to feed their cattle, and produce all kinds of proviſion for the maintenance of 12,000 men. Thus they are in no fear of famine, and the place being acceſſible at only one ſmall avenue, which is ſtrongly fortified by art as well as nature, they are able to put all the troops in the univerſe at defiance. After Nadir became emperor of Perſia, he always depoſited his treaſures in Chalat, as the ſtrongeſt and moſt ſecure place in his whole extenſive dominions.

Being now poſſeſſed of his native patrimony, with the addition of 6000 well diſciplined, bold, and hardy troops, he became exceedingly formidable.

He then took it into his head to recover the city of Nechabar, which the Afgans had taken from the Perſians, and ſucceeded by the following ſingular ſtratagem. He ſent ſome of his men to the mountains, who having ſeized a large body of ſtraggling Afgans, they were immediately put to death. Nadir's men having then dreſſed themſelves in the habits of the deceaſed Afgans, pretended to drive a great number of their companions before them, as if they had taken them priſoners. The centinels threw open the gates to let in the ſuppoſed captives, when the Afgans were all put to the ſword, and the ancient capital of Choraſſan was recovered.

It was after the above exploit that the unhappy Shah Thomas courted his aſſiſtance, when he joined that monarch at the head of 6000 men. In the year 1728 he was appointed commander in chief of the Shah's forces, ſoon after which he received the title of Tachmas, or Thomas Kouli Khan, or Kau, the higheſt title the emperor could confer. He then made a very rapid progreſs in the recovery of that part of the empire, which had been conquered by the Turks, and, by his great ſucceſſes became at once the admiration and terror not only of the Perſians, but all the ſurrounding nations.

After the removal of the unfortunate Shah Thomas from the throne, Kouli Khan did not preſume to mount it, but to ſave appearances, had Abbas Myrza, an infant of ſix months old, and ſon of the above monarch, declared emperor. He, however, took care to keep all the power, as well as the treaſures of the empire, in his own hands, and to fill all the great offices of ſtate with his own creatures.

Young Abbas now being conſidered as emperor, Kouli Khan determined, in his name, to carry on the war againſt the Turks vigorouſly; but firſt married an aunt of the late emperor's. Then thinking of his own family, he appointed his eldeſt ſon governor of Choraſſan, and his youngeſt governor of Herat.

The war againſt the Turks was ſucceſsfully begun; Kouli Khan drove them all before him, and laid ſiege to Bagdad. However, Topal Oſman, an able Turkiſh general, marched to the relief of it at the head of 100,000 men. Kouli Khan drew up his army, which conſiſted of 70,000 men, and, on the 18th of July, 1733, a moſt bloody battle enſued, and Kouli Khan, for the firſt time in his life, was defeated.

Kouli Khan being joined by one of his ſons with a conſiderable army, again marched againſt the Turks. The Perſian army was in this engagement repulſed, and loſt 4000 men. But on the 26th of October another bloody battle was fought, in which the Turks were totally defeated, loſing 40,000 men, all their artillery, tents, ammunition, ſtores, &c. and the gallant Topal Oſman was ſlain in the action. To the credit of Kouli Khan we muſt not omit to mention, that he ordered that great general to be buried with the utmoſt pomp and magnificence, and with all the military honour due to ſo great a character.

Kouli Khan now marched to Scharias, to ſubjugate that city, and cruſh a powerful rebellion which happened in thoſe parts. This he ſoon effected, and ſpent the enſuing winter in recruiting his army, and making preparations for carrying on the war againſt the Turks in the following ſpring. For it was impoſſible for his enterpriſing ſpirit ever to be ſtill; nor could his ambitious ſoul entertain any idea but that of war.

In the year 1734 Kouli Khan was very ſucceſsful both againſt the Turks and Tartars, who attempted to join them, and before the end of the year conquered all the open country of Georgia and Armenia. In 1735 Kouli Khan deſtroyed great part of the Turkiſh army at Arpa Kavi. In 1736 the young Shah Abbas died, when Kouli Khan convened the Perſian chiefs and nobility, and told them that they were at liberty to chuſe an emperor. They therefore unanimouſly begged him to accept the crown, being, indeed, afraid to do otherwiſe.

Having mounted the throne, he ruled the Perſians with a rod of iron, deſtroying many of the royal fa-

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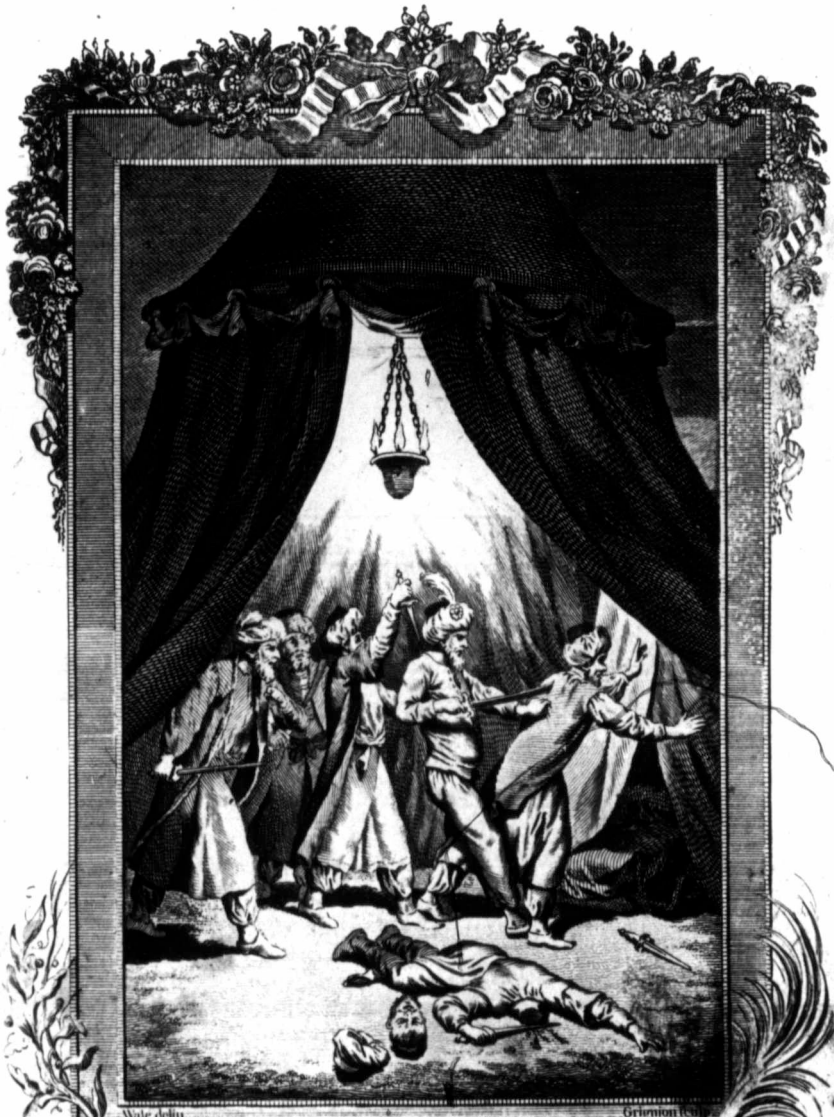

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THOMAS KOULI KAN, EMPEROR of PERSIA,
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of whom he Killed, before they could diſpatch him.

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mily, and putting to death all the nobility, except thoſe who were deemed ideots, or whoſe underſtanding he deſpiſed. He then ſeized many eſtates, particularly the church lands, and having concluded a peace with the Turks and Ruſſians, he compelled the revolted Afgans to ſubmit to his own terms. Then marching into the territories of the Great Mogul, he defeated the armies of that monarch, made himſelf maſter of Delhi, the capital of Hindoſtan, took the Great Mogul himſelf priſoner, put multitudes to the ſword, and plundered the empire of jewels, gold, and other valuables, to the amount of 87,500,000l. ſterling; a greater treaſure than any other monarch, in any age or nation, ever before poſſeſſed. Among other articles of immenſe value was the imperial throne, commonly called the peacock throne, entirely ſet with the fineſt jewels. Independent of the above, he took 300 elephants, 10,000 horſes, as many camels, a great number of cannon, and a variety of other warlike ſtores. Theſe immenſe treaſures he lodged in his hereditary principality of Chalat; but did not truſt the guarding of them either to Turks or Perſians, but to 12,000 Georgians, all of whom were Chriſtians.

He beat the Uſbec Tartars in ſeveral engagements, and made them tributary to Perſia; after which he returned to Iſpahan, and ſeverely reprimanded his ſon for the mal-adminiſtration of affairs during his abſence. The year 1741 he ſpent in quelling ſeveral inſurrections. In all theſe expeditions he committed unheard-of cruelties. Among other rebels his eldeſt ſon proved one; for he attempted to murder him, but eſcaped till the year 1742, when he was brought as a priſoner to his father, and had his eyes put out by order of that monarch.

The cruelties that Nadir Shah now exerciſed both on friends and enemies, the armed and unarmed, are almoſt incredible, and too ſhocking to be recited. In ſhort, he demoliſhed cities and towns, laid waſte fertile provinces, plundered all ranks of people, and murdered ſeveral millions of the inhabitants of Perſia, and the neighbouring nations.

The Turks having, in the year 1744, ſet up a pretender to the throne of Perſia, who gave out that he was a younger ſon of the late emperor Shah Thomas, Nadir Shah ſent one of his ſons at the head of an army againſt him. The pretended prince was defeated, and taken priſoner. Nadir Shah being informed of this, in a temporary fit of humanity, gave orders that he might be permitted to eſcape. Nevertheleſs, he directed that 282 of his followers ſhould be beheaded. In the year 1745 he again marched againſt the Turks, and defeated them: but in 1746 and 1747, he was entirely employed in quelling domeſtic broils, and inteſtine rebellions.

Nadir Shah was now generally looked upon to be in a ſtate of inſanity. His actions were uſually abſurd, and always unaccountable. Sometimes a gleam of generoſity and humanity would ſeem to direct his intentions; but avarice, and the moſt horrid cruelty, at moſt times predominated. He was, however, on the 2d of July, 1747, aſſaſſinated by five of the principal officers of his guards. This event happened thus: The conſpirators entered his tent about one o'clock in the morning, when one of them ſtumbling over ſome of the cords that faſtened it, the Shah waked, ſtarted up, ſeized his ſabre, and with one blow cut off the head of him who was next to him. He then ſtruck the next on the left ſhoulder with ſuch force, that the ſabre lodged in the ſpine or back bone, and ſtuck ſo faſt, that, before he could withdraw it, the remaining aſſaſſins diſpatched him, and cut off his head, which they took with them, and having buried their companions, they retired.

When the people heard of his death they were greatly rejoiced. They immediately put to death his blind ſon and his grandſon, and even all his women, leſt any of them ſhould be pregnant by him; ſo much did they deteſt the breed of this cruel and bloody tyrant, who ſeemed to have thrown Nero, and all the inhuman monſters of antiquity, at a diſtance.

After the death of the tyrant, all was anarchy and confuſion in that unhappy country. Several of his own family, as well as others, had many bloody conteſts for the imperial dignity; but the fortunate candidate was Kerim-Khan, who, triumphing over his rivals, was crowned in the year 1763.

CHAP. VIII.

TURKEY IN ASIA.

SECTION I.

Turkey in general; its Situation, Extent, Diviſions, Mountains, Rivers, &c.

THIS country contains ſome of the fineſt provinces in the whole world, though the inhabitants are ſo fettered with the chains of deſpotiſm, as well as ſo naturally addicted to idleneſs and luxury, that they do not avail themſelves, as they might do, of the redundant bleſſings of Providence.

Turkey in Aſia forms a grand diviſion of the Turkiſh empire, and extends about 2000 miles from eaſt to weſt, and about 800 in breadth, from north to ſouth. It abounds not only with the neceſſaries, but with all the luxuries of life, and contains ſome of the moſt fertile and delightful provinces in the univerſe.

Turkey in Aſia, of which only we ſhall at preſent treat, is ſituated between 28 and 45 deg. north latitude, and 27 and 46 deg. of eaſt longitude. The grand diviſions compriſe the following provinces. On the eaſt are Eyraca Arabic or Chaldea, Diarbec or Meſopotamia, a part of Curdiſtan or Aſſyria, Turcomania, the ancient Armenia Major, Georgia, Syria, and Paleſtine. On the weſt are Anatolia, which is divided into Anatolia Proper, Amaſia, Aladulia, and Carmania.

This country is, perhaps, the beſt ſituated for navigation of any in the univerſe; but the natives do not know how to make uſe of the uncommon natural advantages with which Providence hath bleſſed them. The ſeas which border on it are the Euxine, or Black Sea; the Boſphorus, or Sea of Conſtantinople; the Propontis, or Sea of Marmora; the Helleſpont, and the Ægean Sea, or Archipelago, which divide Aſia from Europe; the Levant, or White Sea, and the Perſian Gulph. The Red Sea likewiſe divides it from Aſia, which occaſions the Grand Seignior, among his other titles, to ſtile himſelf "*Lord of the Black, White, and Red Seas.*"

The mountains, which are many, have been the moſt celebrated in ſacred and profane hiſtory, of any in the univerſe. The principal, which are ſituated in Leſſer Aſia, are Olympus, Ida, Tauris, Anti-Tauris, and the Carmanian mountains. Beſides theſe are mount Caucaſus, or the Dagheſtan mountains; mount Arrarat, where the ark reſted, and the other Armenian mountains; the mountains of Curdiſtan and Paleſtine, particularly mount Hermon and mount Lebanon.

The principal rivers are the Euphrates, Tigris, Meander, Orontes, Sarabat, Jordan, Haly, and Kara. The Tigris and Euphrates riſe in the north, and flowing towards the ſouth-eaſt, encloſe and fertilize that delightfu

delightful part of Diarbec, the ancient Meſopotamia, which is ſuppoſed to have been the ſeat of Paradiſe. The Orontes riſes in mount Hermon, and running north-weſt, empties itſelf into the Levant Sea. The Meander, which riſes in mount Taurus, flows weſterly till it falls into the Archipelago. From this river all winding or ſerpentine ſtreams are called Meanders. The Sarabat riſes in Natolia, and diſcharges itſelf likewiſe into the Archipelago. Haly riſes in Cappadocia, and runs into the Euxine Sea. Kara takes its riſe in Natolia Proper, and falls into the Euphrates. Jordan is formed by the union of two ſtreams, named Jor and Dan, which riſe at the foot of Anti-Libanus. It empties itſelf into the Dead Sea, but is only a ſmall river. It forms two lakes: the one, called Merom, is very ſmall, and dry in the ſummer; the other, called the Sea of Galilee, or Lake of Tiberias, is near thirteen miles in length, and five in breadth. It was in the Sea of Galilee that St. Peter, Andrew, John, and James, exerciſed their profeſſions as fiſhermen.

As ſeveral of the provinces enumerated have been ſeparate kingdoms, and have advantages and diſadvantages peculiar to themſelves, we ſhall treat of them ſeparately, and not attempt to give a general diſcription of the whole, that can only be true in part, and muſt be liable to many exceptions.

SECTION II.

GEORGIA.

Situation, Climate, Produce, Perſons, Dreſſes, Manners, and Religion of the Inhabitants. Deſcription of Teflis, the Capital of Georgia.

THIS country, called Georgia, or Gurgiſtan, (for the termination of Tan is a Celtic word, and ſignifies country,) is bounded on the north by Circaſſia, on the ſouth by Armenia, on the eaſt by Dagheſtan, and on the weſt by the Euxine or Black Sea. It includes Colchis, Iberia, and Albania.

Georgia, which is partly ſubject to the Turks, and partly to the Perſians, abounds with mountains and woods, which are interſperſed with a variety of beautiful vales, and fertile plains.

Georgia has a dry air, cold in winter, and hot in ſummer. It produces all kinds of fruits, which are excellent, and the bread is hardly to be paralleled. There is plenty of fine cattle. The pork is admirable; the wild and tame fowl incomparable; and the fiſh, both ſea and river, equal to any in the univerſe. The country likewiſe produces great quantities of excellent ſilk.

A late traveller ſays, that the Georgians are robuſt, valiant, and of a ſociable temper; great lovers of wine, and very truſty and faithful; endowed with good natural parts, but, for want of education, vicious. That the women are in general ſo fair and comely, that the wives and concubines of the king of Perſia, and his court, are for the moſt part Georgian women.

Georgia formerly contained many large cities, as hiſtory informs us, and their ruins evince: but at preſent there are but few cities and towns, in proportion to the uncommon fertility, and great extent of the country, and thoſe few are but thinly inhabited, which is, perhaps, owing to the barbarous cuſtom of ſelling the juvenile inhabitants for ſlaves: for the lords ſell their tenants and vaſſals, parents their children, and maſters their ſervants, as they think proper. The principal factors in this unnatural buſineſs are Jews, who purchaſe the boys and girls when very young, give them a ſuitable education, and, when they arrive at a proper age, diſpoſe of them to the Turks and Perſians, by whom they are employed in their armies and ſeraglios, as concubines, ſlaves, mutes, eunuchs, and ſoldiers, and many have been raiſed to the rank of ſtateſmen.

In defence of the above-mentioned cuſtom, the Georgians plead, that it is for the benefit of their children; for if they ſtay in their native country, they are ſure of being hard-working ſlaves: but when they are ſold, they are more careſſed, live better, do leſs, and have a greater chance of advancement than they could have at home. Many of both ſexes, indeed, who have obtained the favour of the great, both in the Ottoman and Perſian courts, have had intereſt ſufficient to ſend for their parents and relations, and get them promoted to places of great truſt and importance.

The Georgians are, in general, implacable in their hatred, and unforgiving to thoſe who have offended them. They do not deem drunkenneſs, luxury, or libertiniſm, crimes, or even follies. The women hurt their beauty with paint, and their minds by the moſt licentious behaviour. They are uſurers, and affect a grave deportment. All religions are tolerated in Georgia, every one being at liberty to think, pray, and ſpeak, as he pleaſes. Many individuals of the ſurrounding nations reſide here; and the Armenians in particular, are more numerous than the Georgians themſelves. They are likewiſe richer, and occupy the principal places of truſt and power.

All the public edifices, and the houſes of the great, are built after the model of the Perſian houſes. They likewiſe imitate them in eating, ſitting, and lying. They have buttons and loops to their veſts, and wear them open at their breaſts. The habits of the women are entirely Perſian. The mens covering for the legs and feet is in the Perſian faſhion; but their bonnets or hats reſemble thoſe of the Polanders.

The Georgian nobles are all tyrants, and exerciſe the moſt deſpotic cruelty over their vaſſals and dependents.

The ſovereignty of the Turks and Perſians over Georgia is rather nominal than real; for as they are a hardy, warlike people, and can eaſily retire to and defend the paſſes of their mountains, it is rather dangerous to quarrel with them, as no army can ſubdue them; and, from the nature of their country, they might become exceeding troubleſome, by making incurſions into the neighbouring Turkiſh and Perſian provinces.

Though the Prince of Georgia is a Mahometan, the generality of the people are Chriſtians, or at leaſt pretend to be ſo; for they are ſo extremely ignorant, that they ſcarce underſtand the meaning of what they profeſs. A late traveller mentions an abſurd cuſtom which prevails in this country, the reaſon of which he could never find out, that is, the building their churches upon high and almoſt inacceſſible places, where they are abandoned to the injuries of the weather, and ſuffered to be the habitations of birds. From their ſituation, the Georgians can ſee them at a great diſtance, when they never fail to ſalute them with great reſpect, but take care ſeldom to enter them. In ſome of the towns, however, the churches are kept pretty decently. Beſides the patriarch, there are ſeveral biſhops, and a great number of inferior clergy.

Some Georgians, who have more decency and conſcience than their neighbours, follow the Armenian cuſtom of marrying their daughters when infants, to prevent their being ſold for ſlaves, or taken away by the great lords as concubines.

The only conſiderable and fortified towns in Georgia are five in number, viz. Teflis, Gory-Caket, Zagan, Suram, and Aly: and the principal rivers are the Kur, or Cyrus, and the Aragus. The firſt riſes in the Moſchian mountains, and diſcharges itſelf into the Caſpian Sea; the latter ſprings from the mountains which ſeparate Iberia from Colchis, and falls into the Cyrus.

Teflis, the capital of Georgia, is one of the beſt cities in the oriental regions. It is watered by the river Kur. The walls are ſtrong and handſome. It contains fourteen churches; ſix belong to the Georgians, and eight to the Armenians. The cathedral, called Sion, is a ſtone church, built near the river. A large dome, ſupported by four maſſy pillars, riſes in the middle; and adjoining to it is the biſhop's palace.

On

On the declivity of the mountain there is a large fortreſs, containing an arſenal, a market, and a public ſquare.

The Georgians uſe bells in their churches, ſell pork in the markets, and vend wine in the ſtreets. The bezars, caravanſeras, and ſome other of the houſes, are built of ſtone, but the generality are only erected of mud and bricks, and are low and dark. The ſtreets are very badly paved, and conſequently diſagreeable either in wet or dry weather. The palace of the prince is a ſuperb building. It is adorned with extenſive and beautiful gardens, aviaries, falconries, &c. and before it there is a large ſquare ſurrounded with ſhops.

Teflis is ſituated in 42 deg. 47 min. north latitude; and 47 deg. 5 min. eaſt longitude. It is very populous. The ſtaple commodity is furs; but great quantities of raw ſilk are ſent to various places, as the Georgians know nothing of weaving. The inhabitants of the city are thought to amount to about 20,000. Many tolerable houſes, and fine gardens, render the environs very pleaſant for ſeveral miles round.

The principal amuſement of the inhabitants of Teflis is bathing. The baths are agreeable places, and contain fine ſprings, ſome hot, others cold, and others lukewarm. The Grand Vizir's houſe is the fineſt in the city, and the Capuchins' monaſtery is pleaſant. Theſe Italian fathers receive from Rome annually but 25 Roman crowns each to maintain them; but they are permitted to practiſe phyſic, of which they know very little. If the patient dies they receive no pay: if he recovers, ſlaves, wine, cows, ſheep, &c. are ſent to the convent by way of gratuity. The Georgians make but little uſe of money, rather chuſing to deal by way of barter. Travellers have, therefore, an opportunity of procuring the moſt excellent proviſions in great quantities, in exchange for trifles, ſuch as necklaces, rings, bracelets, knives, pins, needles, &c. They uſe neither weights or meaſures; and are ſuch bad arithmeticians that they cannot count an hundred.

In Georgia a merchant is leſs reſpected than a mechanic, and a mechanic leſs than a huſbandman. The principal merchants and traders are Armenians, whom the Georgians naturally hate, and look upon in the ſame deſpicable light as Jews are conſidered in Europe. One of the moſt reſpectable employments in Georgia is that of a public executioner. The profeſſion is deemed reſpectable and honourable, and the profeſſors are all rich. If a man can trace a hangman amongſt his anceſtors, he is extremely proud of it, and never fails to mention it frequently with exultation; at the ſame time obſerving, that nothing is ſo noble as executing juſtice, and that the ſafety of the ſtate depends on the extirmination of criminals.

With reſpect to Turkey and Perſia, Georgia is in much the ſame predicament as Flanders is in Europe; for when a war happens between thoſe empires, this country is uſually the ſeat of it.

The Prince of Georgia, beſides what is uſually allowed him by the Emperor, has the cuſtoms of Teflis, the duties upon brandy and melons, and one ſheep for every fire-hearth in the whole country, which amounts to 40,000 ſheep. The crown eſtates ſupply him with wine, butter, wax, grain of all kinds, vegetables, fruits, &c. A great deal of gunpowder is made in Georgia, particularly at Teflis, the mountains near that city producing large quantities of nitre. The people eat and burn a great deal of linſeed oil, which they have in great plenty, but they value only the ſeed, as they have no idea of beating the ſtalk for ſpinning.

When a Georgian dies, a biſhop ſays maſs over the corpſe, for which he receives an hundred crowns. If the defunct has not left money ſufficient to diſcharge this exorbitant demand, ſome of his quondam friends very obligingly ſell his wife and children for ſlaves, to raiſe the money; for the clergy muſt not go unpaid. The biſhop then ſays maſs, and afterwards lays a letter upon the breaſt of the corpſe, which is only a complimentary card to St. Peter, to inform him that the funeral expences have been honeſtly paid, and to entreat him, therefore, to be ſo obliging as to open the gates of paradiſe to the deceaſed. The body is then wrapt up in linen and buried. The Mahometans here have the ſame abſurd cuſtom of ſending a note by the dead to Mahomet.

The Georgian men are uſually more ignorant than the women; for the girls are, in general, brought up in monaſteries, where they learn to read and write. If any of the girls chuſe to become profeſſed nuns, they are authoriſed to baptize, and apply holy oil.

The language of the Georgians is remarkable for its beautiful ſimplicity.

SECTION III.

MINGRELIA, AND THE TWO PRINCIPALITIES OF IMMERETTA AND ABASCIA.

MINGRELIA, known to the ancients by the appellation of Colchis, is bounded on the eaſt by Georgia, properly ſo called; on the weſt by the Euxine Sea; on the north by mount Caucaſus; and on the ſouth by Armenia, and part of Pontus.

Mingrelia is watered by many rivers, viz. the Corax, Hippus-Cyaneus, Chariſtus, Abſarus, Ciſſa, Ophis, and Phaſis, where the Argonauts landed. All the above rivers empty themſelves into the Euxine Sea; but none of them are conſiderable except the Phaſis, which riſes in mount Caucaſus. The inhabitants of this celebrated mountain are ſaid, by the moſt authentic writers, to have little, beſides ſpeech, which can entitle them to humanity. They are tall and well made; but their looks are fierce, and indicate the ſavage diſpoſition of their minds. They are, in fact, the moſt daring, ferocious, and determined robbers in the world.

The country is, in general, extremely woody, very uneven, full of hills, and but little cultivated. The ſoil is bad and ſterile; and the fruits are all ill taſted and unwholeſome, except the grapes, which might be converted into ſome of the beſt wine in the univerſe, if the natives did but know how to make it. Rains almoſt continually fall, which occaſion ſuch a quantity of humid vapours to mingle with the hot exhalations natural to the climate, that peſtilences, and a variety of other diſeaſes, afflict the natives almoſt continually. The earth is ſo moiſt, that the few who turn their thoughts to agriculture ſow their wheat and barley without ploughing: and, for their other ſeeds, they turn up the land with little wooden ploughs, which are ſufficiently ſtrong to make furrows in ſo ſoft a ſoil. Colchis was ſaid, by the ancients, to be exceedingly pleaſant and fertile, and even to abound in mines of gold, which gave riſe to the celebrated fable of the golden fleece, and the Argonautic expedition; for the inhabitants uſed to catch the gold duſt, which was brought down by the torrents from mount Caucaſus, by ſetting fleeces of wool acroſs ſome of the narrow paſſages of thoſe torrents.

The country abounds in beeves, hogs, wild boars, ſtags, partridges, pheaſants, quails, &c. On mount Caucaſus, falcons, eagles, pelicans, tygers, lions, leopards, wolves, and jackals breed.

Their bread is made of a ſmall grain, called *gomn*: it is agreeable to the taſte, ſalubrious, cooling, and laxative. The people of quality, however, eat wheaten bread; not that they like it better, but becauſe it is more ſcarce. Their principal food is beef and pork, the latter being excellent. The nobility ſpend a great deal of their time in catching and killing game, ſuch as pheaſants, water fowl, &c. But their favourite diverſion is flying the falcon at the heron, which is no ſooner taken, than they cut the beautiful tuft of feathers from its head, and let it go again. They have a great number of excellent horſes, which are never ſhod, or fed with corn.

The

The country is every where interſperſed with houſes. The caſtles there are about ten in number; in the principal of which, named Rues, the prince keeps his court, and depoſits his treaſures; though the garriſon conſiſts only of about ſixty perſons. Near the caſtle are ſeveral magazines for proviſions, which ſerve for places of retreat upon emergencies. They have many huts made of the branches of trees, canes, and reeds; and are ſo ſecure in theſe retreats, that none can come at them, but by one winding narrow paſſage, which is always ſtopt up when they apprehend an attack.

As the Mingrelians have great plenty of timber, they build their houſes of wood, but never raiſe them above two ſtories. They have neither windows nor chimnies, but are furniſhed with beds and couches. At night, not only the whole family, but the cattle all lie in one room.

The men are well proportioned, and the women pretty; but they paint their faces and eye-brows. They wear their hair in curled ringlets; are witty and polite; but vain, luxurious, treacherous, and ferocious; dextrous thieves, and glory in theft. They think it prudent, as well as lawful, to have many wives, becauſe they bring them many children, whom they can ſell for money, or barter for neceſſaries. When children, however, come too quick, they do not heſitate to murder them. They likewiſe murder the ſick and aged, and pretend they do it with the benevolent deſign of putting them out of their miſery. Adultery is thought but a trifle: for when a man catches another in familarity with his wife, he obliges him to pay a hog, which is immediately dreſſed, and all three ſit down very lovingly to feaſt upon it.

The lords are the umpires in all diſputes between their vaſſals: but when there is a quarrel between any of the great lords, they have recourſe to arms.

The eccleſiaſtics have long beards; but the laity ſuffer very little of their beards to grow. They ſhave the head, leaving only a little hair upon the forehead and round the ears. Their bonnet is made of felt, and in winter is lined with fur, but is not of much uſe to them, for when it rains they put it in their pockets, and go bareheaded to ſave it. They are ſo poor that the common people go almoſt naked, and have only a covering of a triangular form, which they turn againſt wind or rain. They wear a ſhirt, but have ſeldom more than one at a time, and that they only waſh three times in a year. The ſhirt is tucked into a pair of breeches; and on the feet they wear ſandals made of the untanned hide of a buffalo, which are faſtened with thongs of the ſame. In winter they wear ſnow ſhoes.

The whole of every family of both ſexes eat together. On holidays they eat veniſon, beef, and pork; but at other times the maſters have fiſh and pulſe, and the inferiors nothing but *gomms*. If the weather will permit, they dine in the open court. Both ſexes uſually get drunk at their entertainments, when the men boaſt of their thefts, and the women of their debaucheries.

The continual ſale of the Mingrelians to the Turks and Perſians, and their perpetual ſquabbles among themſelves, have greatly depopulated the country. The revenues of the prince are eſtimated at about 20,000 crowns per annum, which are raiſed by fines, impoſitions, the ſale of ſlaves, and duties on all imports and exports. Of this money he ſpends very little; for his crown lands are more than ſufficient to maintain him, and the people are obliged to work for him for nothing. His forces are principally cavalry, and do not amount to above 4000 effective men. Every lord leads his own people to battle, but they are ſo badly diſciplined, that they march, charge, and retreat without order. All commerce is carried on by barter; though they have money which bears the Perſian ſtamp, but is coined in Georgia, the value of which is always fluctuating.

The Mingrelians profeſs themſelves Chriſtians, but are exceedingly ignorant in all religious matters. Few of the clergy can either read or write, but they greatly impoſe upon the laity, by pretending to divination. Moſt eccleſiaſtical writers ſay, that a Chriſtian converted theſe people in the reign of Conſtantine the Great: but the Mingrelians themſelves attribute that work to St. Andrew, who, they affirm, came and preached among them, at a place called Piguitas, where there is at preſent a church. The head of their religion is called Catholicos, who is obliged to go once in his life to the above-mentioned church, to make holy oil.

When a Mingrelian is ſick, a prieſt is ſent for, not to pray by him, but to predict whether he will live or die. Having opened a book he looks gravely in it; then ſhutting the book ſuddenly, he declares that the patient will inevitably die, unleſs a very handſome preſent is made to himſelf. The ſick perſon being greatly terrified, entreats the prieſt to take what he pleaſes.

The cathedral is a tolerable building, and the images within are finely adorned with gold and jewels. The ſuperior clergy wear long beards, black bonnets, and robes of ſcarlet and velvet; but thoſe of the inferior claſs make but a deſpicable appearance, and are obliged to work for their great lords as hard as the laity. The generality of their other churches are very naſty, and their images filthy, though their worſhip of them is exceeding idolatrous. Having no bells, when they call the people to church, which is but ſeldom, they ſtrike againſt a board with a great ſtick. They pay the greateſt reſpect, and make the largeſt preſents to thoſe ſaints who have the character of being the moſt cruel and ſavage. St. Giobas is the greateſt favourite, becauſe they think he would kill all who came near him; they therefore only peep at him at a diſtance, and lay down their preſents. Their maſs is after the Greek manner, with this difference, the Greek prieſts repeat the whole perfectly, but the Mingrelians only mumble the ceremony. For their chalice they have a wooden bowl, and a wooden diſh for their patten. They conſecrate both leavened and unleavened bread, and drink the wine without its being mixed with water.

They baptize by immerſion; and as ſoon as the child is chriſtened, the prieſt, parents, godfathers and gueſts, indulge themſelves to the greateſt exceſs. When a man wants a wife he muſt buy her: a tolerable good price is given for a virgin, leſs for a widow, and leaſt of all for a woman who has been divorced. When the nuptial contract is made, the couple may cohabit together previous to the payment of the money. They may alſo divorce their wives, either for barrenneſs or ill-nature.

They keep their dead forty days above ground, during which time they mourn. At firſt they make a terrible howling and ſcreaming, tearing their cloaths all into tatters, beating their breaſts, ſcratching their faces and tearing off their hair; but their lamentations gradually diminiſh till the fortieth day, when the body is buried; an entertainment is made, the moſt extravagant mirth is encouraged, and the mourners get drunk in order to forget the deceaſed. Whenever any of the laity die, a biſhop always performs the funeral ſervice, and then lays claim to all that belonged to the deceaſed; but when a biſhop dies, the prince himſelf ſays maſs, in order to have the privilege of plundering his houſe. Thus a burial is generally the ruin of a whole family.

The Mingrelians, when they eat pork, or drink wine, make the ſign of the croſs, for which none of them can give the leaſt reaſon. All their prayers are addreſſed to their ſaints, to whom they ſacrifice; and their greateſt feſtivals are when theſe images are carried about in proceſſion, in order to get money from the people. At Chriſtmas and Eaſter they do not work, but labour all the reſt of the year. They keep four great lents, viz. 48 days before Eaſter, 40 days before Chriſtmas, St. Peter's faſt, which holds a month, and the faſt of the Virgin Mary, which laſts 15 days.

In Mingrelia are ſome monks of the order of St. Baſil. They obſerve the faſts with great punctuality, but are very little ſolicitous about any other points of religion.

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They ſuffer their hair to grow, eat no fleſh, and wear black bonnets. There are nuns of the ſame order, who are neither confined to any particular place of reſidence, nor reſtricted by any vows, but become ſeculars when they pleaſe, and reſemble nuns in nothing but wearing black veils.

In ancient times there were ſome cities of note in this country, particularly Pityus, Dioſcurias, and Aea on the Phaſis, ſo named from the river in which it ſtood. Cyta, at the mouth of the river Cyaneus, the birth place of the famous Medea, called from thence by the poets, Cytæis, Saracæ, Zadnis, Surinum, Media, and Zaliffa.

On the confines of Mingrelia lie the principalities of Immaretta and Abaſcia.

Immaretta is about 120 miles in length, and 60 in breadth. It contains many hills and woods, but the plains produce corn, cattle, pulſe, &c. It is, upon the whole, more fertile and plentiful than Mingrelia. They have ſome excellent iron mines, carry on a great deal of commerce, and coin money. The principal towns are Cotatis and Akalziki.

Cotatis was the reſidence of the prince or king of Immaretta, but is now only the reſidence of a Turkiſh baſhaw. It is ſituated at the foot of a mountain, on the top of which there is a ſtrong caſtle to command and defend it. It is watered by the Phaſis. The town has no walls, and contains only about 200 houſes. It lies open on all ſides, except where the rivers and mountains ſurround it. On the oppoſite ſide of the river there is a citadel on an eminence, which has a double wall, and is flanked with high towers. It lies in 42 deg. 23 min. north latitude; and 43 deg. 54 min. eaſt longitude.

Akalziki is likewiſe the reſidence of a Turkiſh baſhaw. It is ſituated in a hole, ſurrounded by about twenty hills, in 41 deg. 55 min. north latitude; and 44 deg. 55 min. eaſt longitude. The river Kur flows very near it. The town contains about 400 houſes. The inhabitants are a mixture of Georgians, Armenians, Jews, Turks, Greeks, &c. who have ſeveral churches, and a ſynagogue. The houſes are built of wood, and the walls and fortifications are old and ruinous.

Abaſcia is the northermoſt of theſe countries, having the Euxine Sea to the ſouth, Circaſſia on the weſt, and mount Caucaſus on the north and eaſt. The principal traffick is in ſlaves. The inhabitants, however, deal in the ſkins of tygers, deer, &c. box-wood, honey, wax, and thread, which they exchange with the merchants who come upon the coaſt, for many things which they have occaſion for. They were once Chriſtians, but at preſent are exceedingly ignorant, and little better than ſavages. They go almoſt naked, and live in little, mean, low huts.

Moſt geographers include Comania in Georgia which is bounded by the Caſpian Sea to the eaſt; by a ridge of mountains, which part it from Circaſſia, to the weſt; by Aſiatic Muſcovy to the north; and by Georgia on the ſouth. The country is thinly inhabited, and badly cultivated; but the ſoil is flat, low, and fertile. It is watered by ſeveral rivers, which deſcend from the mountains about Caucaſus. The climate is rather cold, and pretty much ſubject to rains. The inhabitants, who are called Comani, or Kamouche, live principally by plunder. They wear Perſian linens and ſilks, but dreſs like the natives of Little Tartary. The men wear ſhort jackets and drawers, and the women long looſe gowns, which reſemble ſhifts. They have no place that can be called a town, but their little hamlets conſiſt of about ſixty huts. Their food is milk, game, the fleſh of their cattle, honey, ſuch fruits as their country ſpontaneouſly produces, and rice, which they have from Perſia.

Guril, a ſmall diſtrict, which appertains to Mingrelia, is too little known to admit of a deſcription. The manners of the people, ſo far as we have been given to underſtand, however, are, in general, much the ſame with thoſe of their near neighbours the Mingrelians.

SECTION IV.

Of the Dagestan or Daghestan Mountains, Mount Caucasus, the Euxine or Black Sea, &c.

THE province of Dageſtan, Dagheſtan, or Dagheſtan, is bounded on the eaſt by the Caſpian Sea, on the weſt by mount Caucaſus, on the ſouth by part of Perſia, and on the north by Circaſſia. The appellation itſelf ſignifies mountaineers; for *dag* implies a mountain, and *ſtan* a country. The people call themſelves Dageſtan Tartars, or Tartars of the mountain. They are uſually accounted ſome of the moſt ferocious of all the Aſiatics, and are deemed the deſcendants of the ancient Parthians. Theſe people extend themſelves from the capital of Circaſſia, for about forty leagues along the coaſt of the Caſpian Sea.

They circumciſe their children, and uſe ſome other Mahometan ceremonials, but are ſtupidly ignorant with reſpect to religion in general. They wear coats of mail, carry helmets and bucklers, and uſe bows, arrows, darts, lances, and broad ſwords. Their faces are very ugly and tawny, and their hair black and diſhevelled. Their dreſs is a long looſe gown, made of dark coarſe cloth; and over this they throw a cloak made of the ſkins of ſheep, or ſome other animal. Their caps, which hang down to their eye-brows, are made of various ſlips of cloth or fur. Their ſhoes are made of only one piece of ſkin, and are ſewed about the ancles in a clumſy manner. Their food is the fleſh of their numerous herds, and milk. They ſpare neither age, ſex, or condition, but rob all alike, and even plunder their very neareſt relations, whoſe children they ſell without the leaſt remorſe. They oblige all merchants to pay them tribute, and, if ſtrong enough, rob them of every thing, which occaſions the caravans always to have a powerful eſcort. There are as many petty lords, called *Myrzas*, as towns. From among theſe a chief is ſelected, called *Shamkal*. On the death of the *Shamkal*, the manner of election is thus: The *Myrzas* aſſemble in a ring, in the middle of which ſtands the prieſt, who throws a golden ball among them at random, and he that firſt touches it is duly elected. His power, however, is limited by the others, nor is he much reſpected. Theſe Tartars are ſometimes confounded with Leſgee, who are a different people, though near neighbours. Tarchu, the capital of this country, is ſituated on the weſtern coaſt of the Caſpian Sea, about forty miles north of Derbent. It conſiſts of about 1000 wooden houſes, built after the Perſian manner, but in a more humble ſtile.

Mount Caucaſus, which lies between the Euxine and Caſpian Seas, is one of the higheſt mountains, or rather chain of mountains, in the univerſe. Innumerable fir trees are found upon it. It is full of terrible rocks, hideous precipices, diſmal caves, &c. Paths have been cut through it with immenſe labour, for the convenience of paſſengers, but by reaſon of the ſteepneſs, they are difficult to paſs even in ſummer; but in winter much more ſo, on account of the vaſt quantities of ice and ſnow. The higheſt parts are covered with ſnow all the year, which makes the paſſage exceedingly dangerous in windy weather; for the clouds of ſnow, when driven by hurricanes, have been known to overwhelm whole companies of men and horſes. The paſſage quite acroſs the mountain is 120 miles in extent. By the way are ſeveral villages, well ſupplied with proviſions: for the ſoil of theſe aſtoniſhing mountains is fruitful, and produces plenty of corn, wine, fruits, honey, cattle, &c. which is principally attributed to the richneſs of the manure yielded by the ſnow. The inhabitants have ſtore of poultry, eggs, pulſe, bread, &c. They breed hogs, whoſe fleſh is very fat and delicious. Though ſubject to the Ottoman Porte, they call themſelves Chriſtians, but are, in reality, little entitled to that epithet.

The Euxine Sea was only deemed a lake by the ancients. It is by the moderns uſually called the Black

Sea; though Tournefort, a French writer, obſerves, that it has nothing black but the name. It extends about 900 miles from eaſt to weſt, and about 380 from north to ſouth, in ſome parts, but leſs in breadth in others. It is encompaſſed by Crim Tartary and Circaſſia on the north; Anatolia, or Aſia Minor, on the ſouth; Turkey in Europe on the weſt; and Georgia on the eaſt.

None but the Turks are permitted to navigate this ſea, though infinite advantages would redound to the Porte, if it was open to the Franks, as the Ottomans are very unſkilful mariners, know little of navigation, are without charts, and do not underſtand the compaſs.

As this ſea hath no communication with the Mediterranean, and receives many larger rivers into its boſom, its waters are freſher and clearer than thoſe of moſt other ſeas. The principal rivers which fall into it are the Danube, the Don or Tanais, the Nieper, the Paſis, and the Neiſter. The Euxine Sea joins the Paulus Mœotis, or Sea of Azoph, by the Straits of Caffa, which the ancients termed Boſphorus Cimmerius.

SECTION V.

TURCOMANIA, OR ARMENIA MAJOR; AND ARMENIA MINOR.

Situation. Climate. Deſcription of the Cities of Arzerum, Cars, Irvan, and Zulpha.

TURCOMANIA is bounded on the north by Georgia, on the ſouth by Meſopotamia, on the eaſt by Perſia, and on the weſt by Cappadocia and the Leſſer Armenia, from which it is ſeparated by the Euphrates. It is about 300 miles in length, and 200 in breadth, extending from 38 deg. 20 min. to 42 deg. north latitude; and from 39 to almoſt 42 deg. eaſt longitude.

This country is, in general, exceedingly mountainous, not but ſome fine dales and pleaſant vallies are interſperſed among the hills. The country, however, produces nothing, without the moſt indefatigable induſtry. The inhabitants are forced to cut trenches, in order to water it; and even many ſpots are watered by hand, in manner of gardens. But after all, every kind of grain is but indifferent. The wine is likewiſe bad. The cold is very intenſe here, and the fruit extremely backward. Snow ſometimes falls in June; but the hills are covered with it all the year round. We are informed by authentic ancient writers, that Lucullus, who commanded the Roman army in Armenia, was aſtoniſhed to find the whole country covered with ſnow at the autumnal equinox. Indeed, the ſeverity of the weather was ſuch, that he loſt abundance of his troops by the cold.

Modern travellers likewiſe tell us, that, in the middle of July, ice is found every morning about the ſprings; yet while the ſun is up the weather is very warm.

They have a ſingular method of ploughing the land. Ten or a dozen oxen are put to one plough. The furrows are made exceeding deep, to preſerve the ſeed from the intenſe cold, and to intermingle the ſoil of the ſurface, which is ſandy and dry, with the more humid earth that lies beneath. Yet the land is ſo impregnated with ſalt and nitre, that the roots of every thing would be burnt up, if a profuſion of water was not every where uſed to meliorate the heat.

The rivers which water this country are the Cyrus, Lycus, Phaſis, Araxis, Tigris, and Euphrates. The mountains are Ararat, the Paryadræ, Maruſius, Anti-Tauris, Abus, Niphates, Moſchick, and Gordyæan mountains.

Having, under the head of Perſia, given an account of the religion, cuſtoms, and ceremonials of the Armenians, we ſhall therefore only obſerve, that they ſpeak two languages, which are diſtinguiſhed by the appellations of vulgar and learned. The former is underſtood by the Armenians in general; but to be well verſed in the latter is deemed a great accompliſhment, as it is only found in their ancient manuſcripts, and uſed in the performance of divine ſervice. They pretend that it bears no affinity to any other oriental language, but is ſuperior to them all, being more energetic, expreſſive, and elegant, and compriſing not only all the common, but all the technical terms of theology, and the various arts and ſciences. If what they aſſert is true, it only evinces that the Armenians were formerly much more learned and poliſhed than they are at preſent.

The Armenian merchants are, in general, men of probity and politeneſs. They manage all the trade of the Levant, and are, in fact, the greateſt merchants in the univerſe. They ſpread themſelves over the principal parts of the world, as many are to be found in Italy, France, Germany, Holland, England, &c. and in the dominions of the Great Mogul, all over the Turkiſh and Perſian territories, in Siam, Java, the Philippine Iſlands, and all parts of the eaſt, China excepted. The Armenians ſtrike their bargains in the following ſingular manner: Several pieces of money are put upon a table, or any convenient place; the buyer and ſeller then diſpute with great ſeeming earneſtneſs about the price of the commodity, the buyer offering the money to the ſeller, who puſhes it away apparently with much indignation, and the ſquabble has ſuch an appearance of ill humour, that a ſtranger would be led to imagine, it certainly muſt terminate in blows. The whole, however, is a cuſtomary affectation, and when the broker, who is always preſent at this farce, thinks that an equitable price is offered, he ſqueezes the ſeller's hand till he roars out, which is a token that he accepts the buyer's terms.

The capital city of Turcomania is called Arzerum, or Erzeron. It is ſituated on the northern extremity of the province, about ten days journey from the frontiers of Perſia, and five from the Black Sea. It is the reſidence of a Turkiſh baſhaw, is defended by a good caſtle, and has a ſtrong garriſon of janiſſaries, commanded by an aga. It contains about 18,000 Turks, who, in general, purchaſe of the baſhaw the name and privileges of janiſſaries, or a diſpenſation for committing all kinds of diſorders with impunity. The pay of a janiſſary from the government is from about two-pence half-penny to ten-pence per day. In this city about 8000 Armenians, and 500 Greeks, reſide. The Armenians have two churches, ſeveral monaſteries, and a biſhop.

Arzerum is a place of great trade, which principally conſiſts of copper and braſs wares, the ore of which is found in the neighbouring mountains; printed callicos, red and yellow leather, ſilk, madder, caviare, gall nuts, and beautiful furs, particularly ſables. It is likewiſe a repoſitory for vaſt quantities of merchandize, which come from the Eaſt Indies, and a great thoroughfare. All who go from hence to Perſia, except Turks, pay a capitation tax of five crowns, and five per cent. for all ſpecie which they carry with them. Every ſtranger who enters the town is obliged to pay five crowns, and all merchandize is taxed at nine per cent. ſix of which goes to the Grand Seignior, and three to the beglerberg.

Fuel is very ſcarce, which is a great inconvenience in a place where the winters are ſo ſevere. In lieu of wood, they are under the neceſſity of ſubſtituting cow-dung to burn. The ſummers are ſhort and hot; and the country near Arzerum is tolerably fertile, but produces no good wine. The wheat is ripe in about two months after it is ſown, and the barley in about four weeks. In the neighbourhood of this city a vaſt quantity of poppies grow, out of which the Turks extract their opium. The caviare is made of the ſpawn of ſturgeons brought from the Caſpian Sea, where theſe fiſh are remarkably fine; yet it is inferior to that made near the Baltic.

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The piles of cow-dung, which is made into turfs, and the perpetual burning of that excrement, occaſion a ſcent throughout the city which is very offenſive to ſtrangers. Every thing you eat or drink, even the very cream is tainted with this vapour; yet travellers aſſert that there are coals in the neighbouring hills, but the inhabitants neither underſtand their nature, or how to dig for them. The water is excellent, rivulets of which run through moſt of the ſtreets, but the wine and brandy are difficult to be got at, though they are abominably bad when procured, for the ſale of them is ſtrictly prohibited. The Greeks are obliged to inhabit the ſuburbs, becauſe, being tinkers, they make ſuch a perpetual clattering with the hammer, that it would diſturb the tranquillity of the Turks, who are ſo very delicate and indolent, that they cannot bear the thoughts of a noiſy trade. This city lies in 40 deg. of north lat. and 41 deg. 15 min. eaſt longitude.

About ſix miles from the above city there is a ſmall village called Elija, which contains only a few houſes built with mud, but is famous for an excellent bath, which is a neat octagonal building. The baſon is alſo of an octagonal form, and throws out two guſhes of water as thick as a man's body. The Turks are continually flocking hither from Arzerum to bathe.

On the lake Van, or Wan, which is one of the largeſt in Aſia, there is a city of the ſame name, ſituated in 38 deg. 12 min. north latitude, and 44 deg. 55 min. eaſt longitude. It is large, and ſtands at the foot of a high craggy mountain, on which there is a fortreſs deemed impregnable, that commands the town and country, and has a ſtrong Turkiſh garriſon. The lake produces a variety of fine fiſh, particularly one of the pilchard kind, great quantities of which are exported to many diſtant places, as well as conſumed at home, being uſed in ſauces, and eaten in the ſame manner as anchovies. The lake is 150 miles in circumference, receives many rivers into its boſom, and contains ſeveral iſlands: two of theſe iſlands, viz. Limdaſi and Adareton, are conſiderable, each having little villages and a monaſtery of Armenian monks.

Cars, or Kars, or, as the Turks call it, Azem, is in 40 deg. north latitude, and 43 deg. 20 min. eaſt longitude, about 105 miles north of Arzerum. Being the laſt Turkiſh town towards the Perſian frontiers, it is defended by a ſtrong caſtle built upon a ſteep rock. Behind is a valley watered by a river, which diſcharges itſelf into the Arpagl, and theſe two rivers unite in dividing the two empires. The city is almoſt ſquare, and about half as big as Arzerum, but is neither populous or handſome. All ſtrangers have two things to dread, viz. the extortions of the Turkiſh officers, and the depredations of robbers. The houſes are mean and in a ruinous condition. The baſſa of Car is ſubject to the governor of Arzerum. The country about it, though naturally fertile, is but very little cultivated. The Turks here have all private wells or ciſterns, from a ſuperſtitious notion, that the Chriſtians, who are much more numerous than the Mahometans, pollute the public waters, and render them unfit for a true Muſſulman to uſe.

Irvan, Erivan, or Chirvan, is ſituated in 40 deg. 10 min. north lat. and 45 deg. 30 min. eaſt long. It is about 180 miles eaſt of Arzerum, and has been alternately poſſeſſed by the Turks and Perſians. It is a ſpacious place, but ill built and very dirty. The town is watered by two rivers, and the neighbouring country is very fertile in corn, wine, rice, cotton, &c. The caſtle is of no importance, and the fortifications are made of mud, ſo that heavy rains frequently damage it as much as artillery would. Over one of the rivers called Zengeric is a fine bridge of four arches. The governor is obliged to tranſmit to Conſtantinople an account of all caravans, ambaſſadors, ſtrangers, &c. who paſs through the city. Here proviſions are cheap, particularly game, and the fruits and wine are admirable. The public ſquare, or piazza, is handſome, and the bazar, or market, capacious. The baths and caravanſeras, as well as the governor's palace, are elegant and capacious buildings. The river Zengeric iſſues from the lake of Erivan, which is about 25 miles in circumference, and contains an iſland, with an Armenian monaſtery, the monks of which lead a life uncommonly auſtere, never ſpeaking to each other but four times a year. Though the lake which ſurrounds them is plentifully ſupplied with moſt excellent fiſh, and their little iſland abounds with a variety of delicious fruits, they muſt not touch either, except on the four times when they are permitted to ſpeak to each other. All the reſt of the year they are obliged to live upon herbs and roots, and even thoſe muſt not be obtained by cultivation, but ſuch as are the ſpontaneous produce of nature are to be ſelected. Near Erivan is another famous monaſtery called the Three Churches, which is the reſidence of the great patriarch of the Armenians, under whom are ſeveral archbiſhops, who have each four or five ſuffragans. The archbiſhops, as well as the ſuffragans, uſually reſide in ſome monaſtery, over which they have a juriſdiction. Every Armenian, above the age of fifteen, is obliged to pay five-pence annually to the great patriarch, whoſe revenue amounts to about 600,000 crowns: he is, however, out of this ſum, obliged to pay a conſiderable tribute to the Porte, and to give alms to many poor Armenians.

Nackſivan ſtands about ſeven leagues from the Araxes. It was formerly called Artaxata, and was the reſidence of the ancient Armenian kings. It is built upon a plain which Hannibal gave to king Artaras, who then made it the capital of all Armenia. The celebrated battle between Lucullus and Mithridates was fought near it. This city contains many public baths, coffee-houſes, handſome ſtreets, &c. It is in 39 deg. north latitude, 75 deg. 55 min. eaſt longitude, and ſtands about 63 miles ſouth of Erivan.

Zulpha, or Old Zulpha, to diſtinguiſh it from New Zulpha, in Perſia, ſtands on the Araxes, which begins to be navigable about ſix miles below the town. It was from this province that the famous Shah Abbas carried 70,000 families to help to re-people ſome of the depopulated parts of his own kingdom. He ſettled part of them in the province of Ghilan, and the reſt at Iſpahan, but many of the former died by means of the ſeverity of the climate. Shah Abbas enjoined theſe captivated Armenians to apply themſelves to traffick, and gave them great privileges and encouragement; ſo that their poſterity are not only ſome of the richeſt people in Perſia, but are the moſt diſtinguiſhed merchants in thoſe parts, trading to the Levant, and many other parts of Aſia, and correſponding with the merchants of moſt commercial nations. About Zulpha are ſeveral Armenian monaſteries, the monks of which are Roman Catholics of the dominical order. Many young Armenians are ſent to Rome to be educated, who, on their return, fill the vacancies that may have happened in the monaſteries. The diſtrict of Zulpha contains about 6000 people, who are chiefly Roman Catholics, and do not in the leaſt differ in their worſhip from thoſe of Europe, except that maſs is celebrated in the Armenian inſtead of the Latin tongue. Their archbiſhop is choſen by themſelves, but he is obliged to go to Rome to be confirmed by the pope before he can officiate. The monks of one of the monaſteries pretend that St. Matthew and St. Bartholomew ſuffered martyrdom there, which induces great numbers both of Chriſtians and Mahometans to reſort thither. At the foot of a high mountain near Zulpha are ſome medicinal ſprings, which are celebrated for many virtues, but more particularly for curing thoſe that are bit by any venemous creatures.

Armenia Minor is at preſent of no great importance, though it was formerly very conſiderable, being bounded on the eaſt by the Euphrates, which parted it from Armenia Major; on the ſouth by mount Taurus, and on the weſt and north by a long chain of mountains, called Anti-Taurus, Amanus, &c. It is in general a

mountainous

mountainous country; but in ſome places there are fruitful vales, abounding with olives, vines, &c. This country was a part of Cappadocia till the reign of Antiochus the Great, when Zadriades and Artaxias ſeizing on Armenia, and adding it to ſome of the neighbouring provinces, introduced the diſtinction of Armenia the Greater and Leſſer. In the Roman times it was divided into four provinces, viz. Laviana, Mariana, Aravena, and Melitene, which contained the following cities, Melitene, Nicopolis, Garnace, Arabyſſus, Daſcuſa, Zimara, and Ladana. The manners, cuſtoms, &c. of the people, always were, and ſtill are, the ſame as thoſe of Armenia Major.

It is imagined that Armenia was firſt peopled by the immediate deſcendants of Noah. It then became a kingdom, and remained ſo till it was ſubdued by the Perſians. It was afterwards poſſeſſed by the immediate ſucceſſors of Alexander the Great. Then conquered by the Romans. About the year 687 the Saracens made themſelves maſters of it, and held it till they were deprived of it by the Tartars and Turks, from whom it had the name of Turcomania..

It was on mount Ararat, in Armenia, that the ark of Noah reſted; but on what particular part geographers and hiſtorians are not agreed. The Armenian monks tell many fabulous ſtories, which are not worth repeating, concerning it. M. Tournefort tells us that the aſcent is not only difficult and tedious, but even dangerous, through the ruggedneſs of ſome parts, and deep ſands of others; not to mention the danger from the beaſts of prey. The horrid precipices are beheld with terror, even by the guides themſelves. The ſituation of Ararat was, however, very convenient for the ſons of Noah to proceed to the land of Shinaar, as the diſtance is but trifling.

SECTION VI.

DIARBEC IN GENERAL.

THIS diviſion of Turkey in Aſia, in its largeſt extent, comprehends the provinces anciently called Chaldea, Babylonia, Aſſyria, and now termed Diarbec, properly ſo called, Yerach, Irac Arabic, or Eyrace Arabic, and Curdiſtan. It extends about 600 miles along the banks of the Euphrates and Tigris, from mount Taurus on the north, to the Perſian Gulph on the ſouth. The breadth in ſome places is 300, and in others 150 miles. The air is exceedingly temperate and ſerene, unſcorched by exceſſive heats, and not incommoded by ſevere froſts. The country produces ſilk, and is fertile, with very little cultivation, being rich in grain, fruits, and paſturage. Numerous flocks, and abundance of cattle, feed on the latter. Indeed, in ſome parts there are conſiderable uninhabited deſerts.

The celebrated rivers Euphrates and Tigris flow through this country, and not only ſupply it with excellent fiſh, but contribute exceedingly to its beauty and fertility. The Tigris riſes in the Armenian mountains, and acquired its name from its rapidity; for that word in the Median language implies a dart or arrow. It paſſes through the lake Arethuſa, and afterwards ſinking into the earth, riſes again on the other ſide of mount Taurus. That it is the ſame river hath been evinced by a variety of experiments; for things thrown in on one ſide are brought up on the other. It proceeds from thence to the lake Theſpites, but often ſinks under ground by the way, particularly in one place, where it hides itſelf for the ſpace of twenty-five miles, and then breaking up to the ſurface of the earth, it proceeds with great rapidity. Between Aſſyria and Meſopotamia it receives ſeveral rivers into its boſom; and below Bagdad it branches into two channels, which both diſembogue themſelves into the Euphrates, and by that means form an iſland.

The Euphrates, which is the moſt conſiderable river in Aſia, hath its ſource in mount Taurus; proceeding weſterly, it croſſes Turcomania; then turning ſouthward, it divides Syria from Diarbec. Afterwards running along the weſtern limits of Arabia Deſerta, it waters a great number of towns, and then flows ſmoothly to the city of Aria, where the reflux or tides of the Perſian Gulph diſturb its ſtream, and diſcolour its waters, though ninety miles diſtant from it. At about ſixty miles from the Perſian Gulph it unites with the Tigris. In general it flows gently, and waters a great number of fertile and delightful plains. Its banks are embelliſhed with perpetual verdure, and adorned by many trees, particularly palms. It is neither deep nor wide, except when the melting of the ſnows on the Armenian mountains occaſion it to ſwell. The waters are deemed exceedingly ſalubrious.

Diarbec, as a frontier province towards Perſia, is always well guarded: yet ſuch is the tyranny of the Turkiſh government, and the indolence of the people, that the country is very little cultivated, and not populous. The diviſions of this province, as well as of all the others belonging to the Turkiſh empire, are into beglerbergates and baſhawſhips. Theſe are ſubdivided into ſangiacſhips, inferior to which are the ziamets and timaroits.

SECTION VII.

DIARBEC PROPER, OR MESOPOTAMIA.

Deſcription of its ſeveral Cities.

DIARBEC Proper, or, as the Arabs call it, the Iſland, from its being ſituated between two rivers, is governed by a beglerberg, under whoſe juriſdiction twelve ſangiacs act.

The capital of this province is the city of Diarbec, ſituated in 37 deg. 35 min. north latitude; and 40 deg. 50 min. eaſt longitude. It is encompaſſed by two walls, the outermoſt of which is defended by 72 towers. There are but three gates. Over that towards the weſt ſome Latin and Greek inſcriptions are ſeen, though many of the letters are almoſt obliterated. The name, however, of Conſtantine is viſible, and frequently repeated, which gives occaſion to ſurmiſe, that it was either originally built, or greatly repaired and improved, by that emperor. The Tigris forms a half moon about it; and from its wall to the water ſide there is a ſteep precipice. It contains about 20,000 inhabitants, and, upon the whole, is one of the moſt commercial, ſtrong, opulent, and populous cities of all Aſiatic Turkey. It is ſupplied with water from the Tigris, by means of an artificial canal, and embelliſhed with many noble piazzas or market places, and other elegant buildings, particularly a ſpacious grand moſque, which was once a Chriſtian church. On the ſides of the river are ſeveral caravanſeras or inns: and near the town is a chapel, in which the Turks affirm that Job lies buried. About a league from the city the Tigris is fordable: nevertheleſs there is a ſtone bridge over this very part, on account of the floods, which are occaſioned by the exceſſive rains and melted ſnows, and which often render the ford impaſſable. The neighbouring country is pleaſant and fertile. The pigeons are larger and more delicate than any in Europe. The meat, bread and wine are admirable, and the fruits delicious.

The men are more affable here, and the women are treated with much more politeneſs, and have greater indulgence granted them, than in any other part of the Turkiſh empire. The chief manufactories carried on here are dying, dreſſing, and tanning, particularly goats ſkin, which is commonly known by the name of Turkey leather, of which immenſe quantities are vended in all parts of Aſia and Europe: they likewiſe dye linen and cotton to great perfection. The waters of the Tigris are ſaid to be admirably adapted to dyeing, and give the

the leather a finer grain, and linen and cotton a livelier colour than any other waters.

The baſhaw who is governor of this city is exceedingly powerful, and uſually has a body of 20,000 cavalry under his command, that he may be the better enabled to repel the incurſions of the Curdes and Tartars, who, in great companies of horſe, attack and rob the caravans.

The city of Moſul, or Mouſſul, ſtands on the banks of the Tigris, and is ſituated in 36 deg. 59 min. north latitude, and 43° deg. eaſt longitude, oppoſite to the ruins of the ancient city of Nineveh. It is ſurrounded by handſome ſtone walls, and is very ſpacious, being about a league in circumference; but the number of inhabitants are not proportionable to the extent. The people have great commercial connections with the inhabitants of Bagdad, and the merchants of Curdeſtan. Caravans likewiſe paſs through it to and from Perſia. The baſhaw, whoſe reſidence is in the caſtle, has always 3000 men under his command. It is ſingular that the ſoil on the city ſide of the river is exceedingly barren, but on the oppoſite it is very fertile. The heat is ſo exceſſive in ſummer, that none go out of doors from two hours after ſun riſe, till an hour after ſun ſet. There is likewiſe a malignant and dangerous wind called *ſamiel*, which often blows from hence to Surat, and is ſuppoſed to be the ſame wind mentioned in Job. It is impregnated with little ſtreaks of fire as ſmall as hairs, which immediately kill thoſe who breathe or inhale them, and turn them as black as a coal. When the people perceive them coming, they fall flat on their faces, and ſometimes eſcape. This wind is felt chiefly on the banks of the river, but not on the water, and is deemed to proceed from ſulphurous vapours, which are kindled by agitation. Independent of this wind, the hot air is often dangerous, and injures the lungs, inflames the blood, and parches the ſkin, or raiſes it into bliſters, and occaſions it to peel off. On this account travellers wear a kind of maſk, made of ſoft black crape, to preſerve their eyes. But if, after all their precaution, they become inflamed, the afflicted perſon anoints them with a mixture of ſugar and long pepper ſifted very fine, and made into a ſalve.

Rika, or Racha, ſtands on the Euphrates, in 35 deg. 58 min. north latitude, and 39 deg. 50 min. eaſt longitude, about 105 miles ſouth-weſt of Diarbec. The baſhaw, who reſides in the caſtle, has a garriſon of 12,000 ſpahis. It is, however, but a mean town, and contains nothing to merit deſcription.

Orpha, or Orſa, lies in 37 deg. 16 min. north latitude, and 39 deg. 15 min. eaſt longitude; and is ſituated at the head of the river Scirtas, on the eaſt ſide of river Euphrates, and about ſixty miles from it. The inhabitants affirm that it was the place where the city Edeſſe ſtood, and where Abraham dwelt. The city is ſurrounded by a good ſtone wall, and is about two leagues in compaſs; but the houſes in general are deſerted, and in a ruinous condition; and thoſe that are inhabited are but low and ill built. Upon the whole, the place reſembles more a wilderneſs than a metropolis; though Tavernier is inclined to deem it the capital of Meſopotamia. The inhabitants carry on a great trade in ſome excellent tapeſtries and yellow leather. The neighbouring country is exceedingly rich in corn, wine, fruits, &c. The city is governed by a beglerberg, who has 140 janiſſaries, and 600 ſpahis, under his command, to awe the Arabian freebooters. Several pleaſant gardens ſurround the walls of the city, and are watered by ſmall artificial canals, which flow through cuts from one that is pretty large. In the time of our Saviour, this city and territory had a prince of its own, named Agbarus.

Bir, or Beer, is in 37 deg. 15 min. north latitude, and 38 deg. 15 min. eaſt longitude. It is ſituated on the ſide of a hill to the eaſt of the Euphrates, and defended by two old caſtles, the one on the land ſide, and the other on the banks of the river. The garriſon conſiſts of about 200 janiſſaries, and 400 ſpahis, commanded by a ſangiac. The houſes extend from the river ſide to the top of the hill, where the caſtle is placed, the walls of which are in a ruinous condition. On the oppoſite ſide is a noble, capacious, ſtrong, and well guarded caravanſera. The Euphrates is here about a mile broad, and its current ſmooth, ſo that it is a kind of ferry from Syria. Caravans are not allowed to enter the city, but are obliged to paſs through a difficult road by the ſide of it, in order to gain a caravanſera on the top of a hill. At night the officers come to receive the cuſtoms from all, except thoſe who have ſaddle horſes. Here are all kinds of proviſions in plenty, particularly bread, wine, and fiſh. The neighbouring territory is pleaſant, fertile, and well cultivated, except to the eaſtward, where it is rough, hilly, and rather ſterile.

In Diarbec are a few other leſs conſiderable cities and towns, namely, Geriza, in 37 deg. 30 min. north lat. and 39 deg. 10 min. eaſt longitude. It is ſituated on an iſland of the Tigris; the word Geriza ſignifying an iſland in the Arabic language. It is a ſmall but rich commercial city, where a great number of merchants meet to carry on a trade in tobacco and gall-nut, which are plentifully produced in the mountains of Taurus. They make no wine, but dry all their grapes for raiſins. The city is governed by a bey.

Amadia, or Amad, is about ſeventy-two miles eaſt from Geriza, and the ſame weſt from Moſul. Zibin, in the midway between Orpha and Moſul, is a tolerable town, ſituated on an aſcent. It is ſurrounded with good walls and ditches, well ſupplied with ſprings and fountains, and furniſhed with good ſtore of proviſions.

Niſbin, or Naſbin, about thirty-five miles from the Tigris, is the reſidence of a Turkiſh ſangiac. The city is divided into two wards, each on an eminence, with a large track of ploughed land between. This gives it a pretty appearance at a diſtance; though both wards, in reality, are ſcarce worthy of the name of a ſmall village. However, arches, gates, and the remains of a noble church, are ſtill viſible, which evince that its ancient ſituation was far ſuperior to its preſent. The ſoil is fertile; and, as the chief buſineſs of the inhabitants is agriculture, the land is well cultivated, and the inhabitants plentifully ſupplied with corn, wine, fruits, &c.

Merdin, or Mardin, is ſituated on the weſt ſide of the Tigris, between Moſul and Bagdad, and about twenty-five miles from Diarbec, in 37 deg. 15 min. north latitude, and 40 deg. eaſt longitude. It is about five miles in circumference, ſurrounded by a ſtrong wall, and defended by an excellent caſtle of about a mile in compaſs, which is ſituated upon an almoſt inacceſſible rock. The caſtle abounds in fine ſprings, and even contains corn-fields. It is the reſidence of a ſangiac, and a garriſon of 400 janiſſaries, and 200 ſpahis. Its ſtrength is ſuch, that Tamerlane the Great was obliged to abandon it, after having inveſted it for near three years. The Turks have the following proverb concerning its impregnability: "To attempt to take Merdin is like making ſigns to the blind." The city is well built, adorned with many noble houſes, and a fine fountain, the waters of which come from the citadel. The manufactures are ſilk, cotton, and gold and ſilver ſtuffs. The air is temperate and ſerene; the territory rich and fruitful. Many Chriſtians inhabit the city, and have an archbiſhop ſubject to the patriarch of Antioch.

SECTION VIII.

EYRACA-ARABIC, OR IRACK-ARNBI, THE ANCIENT CHALDÆA.

THE province called by the Turks Eyraca-Arabic, Yerack, or Irack-Arabi, and antiently termed Shinaar, Babylonia, and Chaldæa, lies between 30 and 40 deg. north latitude; and is bounded on the north by Diarbec; on the weſt by the deſerts of Sham; on the ſouth partly by the ſame deſerts, and thoſe of Arabia; and on the eaſt by Suſiana, and the Median and Aſſyrian mountains.

The name of Chaldæa is derived from the Chaldæans, and that of Babylonia originates from the tower of Babel. The air of this country is, in general, very ſerene and temperate; but, at certain times, it is ſo extremely dangerous, and the heats ſo exceſſive, that formerly many of the inhabitants uſed to ſleep in ciſterns of water; and this pernicious practice is at preſent not entirely diſcontinued. The inhabitants are ſometimes viſited by the peſtilential wind already mentioned in our deſcription of Moſul, and which has ſo much excited the attention of modern travellers and philoſophers. As they have no rain for eight months in the year, the land is watered from the Euphrates and other rivers, by means of a great number of engines, admirably conſtructed for that purpoſe. Sometimes it hath not rained for the ſpace of two years and a half; and the inhabitants are thoroughly ſatisfied if it only rains thrice annually, as that is ſufficient to anſwer all their purpoſes.

Herodotus informs us, that in the land of the Aſſyrians it very ſeldom rained, and that, though the country bore great reſemblance to Egypt, yet it was not watered by the inundation of a river, but by the induſtry and ingenuity of the inhabitants, which have rendered it one of the fineſt and moſt fertile countries upon the face of the earth. It certainly yields, in general, grain two hundred fold, and frequently three hundred: and its fertility is ſuch, that it would aſtoniſh a traveller who had ſeen all the reſt of the known world. The palms, particularly thoſe of the date kind, afford the inhabitants meat, wine, and honey. The millet and ſeſame ſhoot up to the ſize of trees; and the barley and wheat have leaves of four fingers in breadth. They have neither olives or grapes; but the ſeſame is an excellent ſubſtitute to furniſh oil where olives are wanting, and the palm ſupplies them with wine in lieu of grapes.

Formerly the Tigris and Euphrates uſed to overflow in the months of June, July, and Auguſt, and cover the whole country with water, and the inundations were uſually increaſed by torrents of melted ſnow, which poured down from the Armenian mountains; but thoſe floods proving very detrimental in various caſes, the inhabitants guarded againſt them, by cutting a great number of artificial canals, rivers, and rivulets, which they effected with infinite aſſiduity and labour. Thus the waters were properly diſtributed, an eaſy communication made between every part of the country, and the inhabitants univerſally benefitted. The paſture being exceedingly rich, great numbers of cattle are fed, which not only plentifully ſupply the inhabitants with meat, but with milk, butter, &c.

This country is famous for the great plain of Shinaar, where the whole race of mankind were collected together after the flood, and from thence diſperſed themſelves over the face of the earth; for being the ſeat of the terreſtrial paradiſe, as ſome authors affirm, but that opinion is denied by others; and for being the place where the tower of Babel was built, and the renowned city of Babylon, of which the veſtiges, or what are ſhewn for ſuch, are at preſent very trifling.

The firſt foundation of Babylon is, by ſome authors, aſcribed to Semiramis, and by others to Belus. Who was the founder is not material; but it is certain that Nebuchadnezzar was the perſon who raiſed it to that pinnacle of glory, as to become the principal wonder of the world. The moſt remarkable works therein were five, viz. the walls of the city, the temple of Belus, the palace and the hanging gardens in it, the banks of the river, and the artificial lakes and canals made to drain the river.

The walls were 60 miles in circumference, 350 feet high, and 87 feet thick. The city was in the form of a ſquare, 15 miles each way. The walls were built of large bricks, cemented together with a kind of glutinous ſlime found in the country, which is ſuperior to any lime, and grows much harder than the bricks themſelves. They were encompaſſed by a large ditch lined with brick, cemented by the ſame kind of bitumen, and filled with water. The earth which was dug from the ditch ſerved to make the bricks for the walls. We may, therefore, from the aſtoniſhing magnitude of the walls, conceive the greatneſs of the ditch. An hundred gates, made of ſolid braſs, ſerved as entrances to the city; that is, 25 on each ſide. Between every two of theſe gates were three towers, and four more at the angles; and three between each of the angles and the next gate on either ſide. The towers were all ten feet higher than the walls. From the 25 gates on each ſide of this great ſquare, 25 ſtreets went in right lines to the oppoſite gates; ſo that the whole number of ſtreets were 53, each being 15 miles long, cutting each other at right angles. Thus was the city divided into 676 ſquares. The houſes were noble edifices; and a branch of the Euphrates ran acroſs the city from north to ſouth. In the middle there was a bridge. At each end of the bridge was a palace; the old palace on the eaſt, and the new palace on the weſt ſide of the river. The former took up four of the ſquares, and the other nine. The temple of Belus, which ſtood near the old palace, took up another of theſe ſquares. The old palace was four miles in circumference, and the new palace eight. The latter had three walls, one within another, and was ſtrongly fortified. In the latter, the hanging gardens were the greateſt curioſity: they contained a ſquare of 400 feet, and were carried to the height of the wall of the city, by ſeveral large terraces; and the aſcent was from terrace to terrace, by ſtairs of ten feet wide. This vaſt pile was ſuſtained by arches built upon arches, and ſtrengthened by a wall of 22 feet in thickneſs, which ſurrounded it on every ſide. The gardens contained all kinds of flowers, plants, and even large trees. On the upper terrace was an aqueduct, which ſerved to water the whole.

To prevent the overflowing of the Euphrates, which did great damage, not only to the country, but to Babylon itſelf, Nebuchadnezzar embanked the river with prodigious banks of bitumen and bricks, and cut two canals to drain off the overflowings into the Tigris, before they ſhould reach Babylon.

Babylon is repreſented by all the ancient authors as the largeſt, the moſt magnificent, and the moſt populous city, that ever was erected: but the prophecies mentioned in the Old Teſtament, relating to this city, once the wonder of the whole earth, are literally fulfilled: "Babylon is fallen, and become the den of wild beaſts."

The ancient Chaldæan language differed from the Hebrew, which was ſpoken in Meſopotamia: but both tongues were blended together by means of the Jews, and mutually corrupting each other, their intermixture formed the preſent Syriac.

The principal city of Eyraca-Arabic is Bagdad, or Baghdad, delightfully ſituated in a fine plain, on the eaſtern bank of the Tigris, and lies in 33 deg. 20 min. north latitude, and 43 deg. eaſt longitude. It was founded in the 145th year of the Hegira, by the Caliph Almanſur, and is built upon the ſame ſpot where the ancient Seleucia ſtood. It was the ſeat of moſt of the caliphs of the race of Al-Abbas. In the year of the Hegira 656 it was taken by the Tartars, in whoſe hands it remained till 1392, when Tamerlane the Great ſubdued it. Uſun Caſſan, a Turkuman prince, conquered it A. D. 1470. Shah Iſmael, emperor of Perſia, poſſeſſed himſelf of it A. D. 1508. The ſovereignty of it was then conteſted for above 100 years, between the Perſians and Turks. At length, A. D. 1638, it was totally ſubdued by the Turks, under the command of Amurath the 2d, and has remained in their hands ever ſince. This city was formerly embelliſhed by many ſuperb palaces, and other magnificent edifices, beſides a variety of colleges, and other ſeminaries of learning. It was populous, opulent, and well fortified. The language was the moſt pure and elegant Arabic, and the manners of the people the moſt polite, as this city contained more learned men and noble families, than any other in the eaſt.

Though

Though Bagdad at preſent groans under the tyranny of the Turkiſh yoke, it is ſtill the grand emporium of the Ottoman empire towards the Perſian ſide. It is frequented by innumerable merchants and paſſengers travelling to and from Perſia into Syria, Paleſtine, Egypt, Natolia, &c. A baſſa hath his reſidence here, to whom every paſſenger pays tribute, which annually produces a very capital ſum. Beſides Mahometans here are many Chriſtians, who are publicly tolerated, and Jews, ſome of whom reſide conſtantly in the place, but many others only come annually, in order to viſit the ſepulchre of the prophet Ezekiel, which is about a day and a half's journey from the city.

The pacha of Bagdad is uſually a vizir. The garriſon amounts to about 3000 men, and the city is near a mile and a half in length, and about half the ſame in breadth. The walls are of brick ſtrengthened with towers, upon which are mounted 60 pieces of cannon, the largeſt of which is not above a ſix pounder. The pilgrims, who viſit Mecca by land, paſs through Bagdad, and pay four piaſtres by way of tribute, which brings a very conſiderable revenue to the Grand Seignior.

The inhabitants of Bagdad are computed to amount to about 15,000. During the ſummer the markets are kept in the night, and the inhabitants are obliged to lie on their terraces to avoid the exceſſive heats: inſtead of candles oil of naptha is burnt; the women are allowed to go to the baths every Wedneſday morning to waſh and perfume themſelves: on Thurſdays the married and unmarried are permitted to go to the ſepulchres to pray for the dead.

Curſa is ſituated in 31 deg. 38 min. north latitude, and 44 deg. 57 min. eaſt longitude, about 60 miles to the ſouthward of Bagdad, and on the weſt ſide of the Euphrates: it was formerly a city of importance, being the reſidence of the caliphs after they had quitted Damaſcus, and before they had built Bagdad, but is now quite deſolate.

Traxt, on the Tigris, is a ſtrong and well fortified town, having two caſtles: it is about 42 leagues beyond Bagdad. The Chaldæan Apamea is ſuppoſed to have formerly ſtood here.

Baſſora, or Baſrah, on the frontiers of Perſia, lies in 30 deg. 17 min. north latitude, and 49 deg. 10 min. eaſt longitude, being about 250 miles ſouth-eaſt from Bagdad, and 240 ſouth-weſt from Iſpahan: it was built in 636 by Omar the ſecond caliph, in order to cut off the communication between Perſia and India. This city is twelve miles in circumference, opulent and populous, but the buildings have nothing extraordinary in them, the houſes being only two ſtories high, built with bricks dried in the ſun, and flat on the tops. The city is built on a ſtony ſoil, and the environs are barren; but the circumjacent country is ſo fertile and delightful, that it is deemed by the Arabians one of the four paradiſes of the eaſt. The inhabitants are ſupplied with water from the Euphrates by a canal, which is capable of carrying veſſels of 50 tons burthen: there is a fortreſs at the mouth of it, which is about 45 miles diſtant from the ſea. The whole country lies ſo low that it would be ſubject to continual inundations, if a ſtout dyke or embankment did not prevent thoſe calamities. The hot winds are very troubleſome, and bring with them clouds of ſand from the neighbouring deſarts: it is a place of great trade, and ſwarms with veſſels from moſt of the kingdoms of Aſia and Europe.

The caravans to Mecca paſs through this city, which is another ſource of wealth. The duties on goods are about 5 per cent. The inhabitants conſiſt of Mahometans, Jews, Neſtorians, Catholics, and Chaldæan Chriſtians, or Chriſtians of St. John, who are pretty numerous. There is a famous college here called the Academy of Nezam, from its founder Nezam, Al-Molk, the grand vizir of Shah Malac, the third ſultan of Iran. At preſent this city is a flouriſhing ſeat of literature, though it has fewer colleges than Damaſcus, or Cairo. The horſes bought here are very valuable, on account of their being able to travel with great expedition, and to undergo incredible fatigue: they ſell from 1000 to 2000 crowns.

This city is ſubject to an Arabian prince, who is tributary to the Grand Seignior. His revenues ariſe from the exchange of money for horſes and camels ſold here, but chiefly from his palm-trees, of which he has a plantation of 90 miles in length. The manner of planting the palms being very ſingular we ſhall deſcribe it. About 300 kernels are buried in the ground in the form of a pyramid, with the points of the kernels upwards, till the whole ends with a ſingle kernel. The earth is then preſſed cloſe round it, and upon it. It is aſſerted, that if the male and female palm are not planted cloſe to each other they will not bear fruit; while others affirm, that it may be made to bear by taking the bloſſoms from the male, and innoculating the female therewith at the top of the ſtem. The income of the prince is ſo great from money, horſes, camels, and dates, as to enable him to lay by annually 3,600,000 of livres, after all the expences of government, and his tributary loan are defrayed. The prince gives liberty to perſons of all nations to trade here, and the police is ſo well managed, that people are ſafe in the ſtreets at all hours of the night: the garriſon conſiſts of about 3000 janiſſaries. In 1698 it is affirmed that the plague viſited this city, and ſwept away 80,000 of the inhabitants.

The following anecdote with which, amongſt others, we have been favoured by an ingenious correſpondent, who has viſited theſe parts, will tend to diſplay the diſpoſition and manners of the people.

It was cuſtomary for the caravan from Perſia to Mecca to take conductors from a particular tribe encamped in the environs of Baſſora, (being on the frontiers of Perſia) whoſe chief received a certain ſum for guarding the caravan to Damaſcus, and this tribe was one of the moſt powerful and extenſive amongſt the Arabs. So lately as the year 1776 it happened that in the caravan which was to be conveyed from Baſſora to Damaſcus there was the daughter of a powerful Perſian prince, accompanied by a train of ladies, who were all very rich. The chief of the tribe obſerving the great ſplendor of this caravan, and the quality of the pilgrims, demanded a greater ſum than uſual to conduct them, which they refuſed to pay, and addreſſed themſelves to the chief of another tribe, who agreed to conduct them for the uſual ſum. They accordingly ſet out from Baſſora; but when they were in the deſert, which they were obliged to paſs, the chief of the firſt tribe, with his followers, ſuddenly fell upon the caravan and its conductors, of whom they made great ſlaughter. They then ſtripped the pilgrims, not ſparing even the daughter of the Perſian prince, and plundered the caravan, leaving the travellers to purſue their journey to Damaſcus, where they arrived in a miſerable condition. One of the company, a merchant, who but a few days before poſſeſſed 500,000 piaſtres, was reduced to aſk charity. This adventure made the fortune of a Frenchman, who reſided at Tripoli in Syria; for the princeſs, being unable to borrow money from the Turks on account of the hatred they bear the Perſians, the Frenchman generouſly offered her his purſe, which ſhe accepted, and after her return home from Mecca, her father remitted him not only the original ſum he had advanced, but double intereſt, and ſuch magnificent preſents that the Frenchman was enriched for the remainder of his life.

The Perſian prince ſent an ambaſſador to the Porte to complain of this daring ſacrilege (the caravans of pilgrims to Mecca having been held ſacred) and to demand ſatisfaction, but receiving only evaſive anſwers, he marched his troops to Baſſora, which he took and plundered. The riches he amaſſed by this expedition were immenſe; but not being ſatisfied he directed his courſe to Bagdad, which he beſieged, and kept it blocked up for ſix months, when the Grand Seignior agreed to give him ample ſatisfaction, and a peace was concluded.

SECTION

SECTION IX.

ASSYRIA OR CURDESTAN.

ASSYRIA, called by the Turks Curdeſtan, or the country of the Curdes, lies on the eaſt ſide of the Tigris towards Perſia, by which empire it is bounded eaſtward; by the Tigris on the weſt; Eyraca-Arabic on the ſouth, and Turcomania on the north.

Towards the ſouth it is not above 90 miles broad, but to the northward it extends near 200 miles from eaſt to weſt. From north to ſouth it reaches from 53 deg. 30 min. to 27 deg. 20 min. north lat. It was formerly a fine fertile country, but having been frequently the ſeat of war between the Turkiſh and Perſian empires, it has been greatly depopulated, and rendered almoſt a wilderneſs.

The country of Aſſyria derives its name from Aſſur, or Aſhur, the ſon of Shem, and grandſon of Noah. The firſt great monarchy in the univerſe was founded here; and here ſtood the once magnificent city of Nineveh. It was built upon the Tigris, oppoſite to where Moſul at preſent ſtands. The walls were 60 miles in circumference, and ſufficiently thick to admit three chariots to go a-breaſt upon them: they were flanked with 1150 turrets, each of which roſe 200 feet above the walls. At a ſmall diſtance from the ruins there is a Turkiſh moſque upon a hill, on the ſpot where it is ſaid the prophet Jonas was buried. His tomb is always covered with a rich carpet, and ſome tapers and lamps are kept continually burning over it. Here two Turkiſh prieſts are continually employed to read the alcoran, which draws a great number of Turks, Perſians, &c. to the place.

In the territory between Nineveh and Bagdad are ſeveral hills of ſulphur, to which ſome travellers impute the pernicious qualities of the hot winds, or ſamiel, with which the country about Old Bagdad is particularly infected. There are likewiſe ſome ſulphurous hot baths at a village called Alchamam, which is about a day's journey from Moſul; and at Attendachi there is a hill, from which the Arabs dig gold.

In the ſame territory tamariſks, liquorice and ſumach are produced in great plenty; the latter, together with ſalt, being infuſed in water, gives it a red tinge, and renders it cool, ſweet and ſalubrious: if taken in broth it is a remedy for the bloody flux.

This part of the country is greatly infeſted with wild beaſts, particularly lions, jackalls, and ceracoulacks, or wild cats, which are remarkable for having large black ears of half a foot in length. Thoſe who navigate the river in boats always go well armed on account of the lions, who will plunge into the water, and attack the paſſengers with great fury.

The weſtern ſkirts of this province are waſhed by the Tigris. Three other rivers, viz. the Lycus, Caprus, and Gorgus, flow through it at almoſt equal diſtances: the firſt derives its name from a wolf; the ſecond from a goat; and the third is the Zerben of Pliny.

The Curdes are ſuppoſed to be the lineal deſcendants of the ancient Chaldeans: they inhabit this country and ſome parts of Perſia, and ſubſiſt principally upon rapine and plunder. They are continually upon the watch for caravans, and when they meet with one, if they are ſtrong enough, they uſually rob and murder the whole company. While the weather permits they dwell in tents upon the plains, and do not retire to the villages till the ſnows compel them. They range from Moſul to the Euphrates, and acknowledge no ſubjection either to Turks or Perſians. In fine weather they drive their herds and flocks about in ſearch of paſture, and while the men look out for plunder, the women manage the cattle, and make butter and cheeſe. Their drink is either milk or water. The men ride upon very fine ſwift horſes, their only weapon being a lance: their tents are large, and made of coarſe brown cloth, that ſerves likewiſe for a covering to their portable houſes, which are ſquare, and made of cane hurdles. The floor is covered with mats, and ſerves both for the purpoſes of bed and table. When they remove, they load their oxen with their wives, children and houſes, the latter of which are taken to pieces for that purpoſe. They are very diſagreeable to look at, having ſmall eyes, dark complexions, wide mouths, black hair, and ferocious aſpects: nevertheleſs they are very ſtout and nimble, and, while children, uſually go naked, which renders them very hardy.

Cherſoul, the capital of Curdeſtan, is ſituated in 36 deg. north latitude, and 45 deg. eaſt longitude, and is about 150 miles north of Bagdad. The houſes are all hewn out of a rock on the ſide of a hill, which extends a mile in length, and there is an aſcent to them of about twenty ſteps. The baſhaw, or governor of the province, reſides here, and hath ſeveral ſangiacs under him.

Abela is celebrated in hiſtory for the famous battle fought in a plain near it, between Alexander the Great and Darius: it is in 35 deg. north latitude, and 77 deg. 20 min. eaſt longitude, and ſituated between the Caprus and Lycus, or the two Zabs, as ſome writers term thoſe rivers. The natives ſhew a mountain in the neighbourhood, where the ruins of a caſtle are yet to be ſeen, in which, tradition ſays, Darius ſtood, to ſee the ſucceſs of the battle. The mountain itſelf was named Nicatorius by Alexander, in commemoration of the above victory.

Betlis is ſituated in 37 deg. 55 min. north latitude, and 43 deg. 30 min. eaſt longitude, and is the reſidence of a prince of the Curdes, who is independent both of Turks and Perſians, and ſo powerful, that he can raiſe a body of 25,000 horſe, beſides a conſiderable number of foot, among the ſhepherds of the mountains, who are trained to arms: ſo that though his dominions are ſurrounded by Turks and Perſians, they are both obliged to keep fair with him from motives of policy; becauſe it is at all times in his power to ſtop and plunder the caravans that go between Aleppo and Taurus, the road from the former being within a day's journey from the town, cut in ſeveral places out of the rocks between two mountains, and only broad enough for one camel to paſs. Both the town and caſtle are ſo ſtrongly ſituated, that the only paſs may be defended by ten men againſt a thouſand: ſo that this prince is really formidable, and cannot be robbed of his independency. The city is built between two high mountains, diſtant from each other about a cannon-ſhot. The caſtle is ſituated upon a hill that reſembles a ſugar-loaf; and there is no coming at it but by a winding path cut in a rock, which is exceedingly ſteep, rugged, and difficult to aſcend. Before the caſtle can be entered, three draw-bridges muſt be paſſed, and afterwards three courts, previous to the approach to the palace. The city extends on each ſide of the other two mountains, from the top to the bottom, containing many houſes, and two caravanſeras.

Harpel is ſituated on the river Caprus, and is ſurrounded by a mud wall. The houſes are miſerably built. It is, however, a large town, and the reſidence of a ſangiac.

Holwan, in 35 deg. north latitude, and 47 deg. 10 min. eaſt longitude, is ſituated between the mountains that divide the Perſian, Irack, Curdeſtan, and Chaldæa. The Mahometans, who believe that Elijah is ſtill alive, affirm that he lives in one of the mountains near this town.

SECTION X.

ASIA MINOR, ANATOLIA, OR THE LEVANT.

ANATOLIA, or, as it is corruptly called, Natolia, is a large peninſula, and has been denominated Aſia Minor, to diſtinguiſh it from the main Aſiatic continent. It was called Anatolia and the Levant, by which it is ſtill known, on account of its eaſtern

eaſtern ſituation with reſpect to Europe. On the north it is bounded by the Euxine Sea; on the north-weſt by the Archipelago, the Helleſpont, the Propontis, or Sea of Marmora, and the Thracian Boſphorus, or Strait of Conſtantinople; on the ſouth by the Levant Sea, Syria, and the Euphrates; and on the eaſt by the Mediterranean. It lies between 37 and 41 deg. 30 min. north latitude, and 27 and 40 deg. eaſt longitude, extending in length about 600 miles from eaſt to weſt, and in breadth about 320 from north to ſouth. It is divided by modern geographers into Anatolia, properly ſo called, Amaſia, Aladulia, and Caramania. Theſe provinces anciently included Galatia, Paphlagonia, Pontus, Bithynia, Myſia, Phrygia, Lydia, Mœnia, Ionia, Æolis, Caria, Doris, Pamphylia, Piſidia, Cappadocia, Lycia, Lycaonia, and Cilicia. Anatolia is under the government of a viceroy or beglerberg, to whom ſeveral baſhaws, and a great number of ſangiacs, are ſubordinate.

Aſia Minor naturally is, and always has been, deemed one of the fineſt countries in the univerſe: yet ſuch is the miſerable policy of the Turkiſh government, and the indolence of the people, that it has been ſuffered to become a mere wilderneſs; and though uncommonly rich, fertile, and well watered, they have permitted it to be over-run with weeds, briars, and brambles. The air is exceedingly ſerene and temperate, and would, doubtleſs, become ſtill more ſalubrious, if the lands were properly cultivated. The inhabitants are not incommoded by exceſſive heats, nor chilled by intenſe froſts: all is moderate, delightful, and ſalubrious. The few cultivated parts, though the land is prepared in a very imperfect manner, produce, with little labour, great plenty of various ſorts of corn, exquiſite grapes, of which admirable wines are made, oranges, lemons, citrons, olives, figs, dates, &c. &c. beſides abundance of coffee, rhubarb, opium, balſam, galls, and many other valuable drugs, gums, &c.

Anatolia is excellently well watered. The principal rivers are thoſe known by the name of Xanthus, Cydnus, Meander, Granicus, Scamander, Cayſter, Hermus, Pactolus, and Caicus, which diſcharge themſelves into the Mediterranean and Euxine Sea, the Archipelago, and the Euphrates. It hath ſome lakes, the principal of which, Guol-Bog-Shaw, is fifty miles in length, and twenty-two in breadth.

SECTION XI.

ANATOLIA PROPER.

ANATOLIA Proper is the neareſt province to Europe, and the largeſt of the four provinces into which Aſia Minor is divided. It extends from 26 to 35 deg. of eaſt longitude, and from 37 to 41 deg. of north latitude, being bounded by the Archipelago and Propontis to the weſt, by the Euxine Sea to the north, by Caramania on the ſouth, and by Amaſia and Aladulia on the eaſt.

This province is governed by a beglerberg, who has five ſangiacs ſubordinate to him, 245 zaims, and 7740 timars. The number of troops are 60,000. The annual revenue of the beglerberg is 1,000,000 of aſpers.

Anatolia Proper contains the provinces of Bithynia, Myſia, Phrygia, Æolis, Ionia, Caria, Doris, Lydia, Galatia, and Paphlagonia.

Bithynia, now called by the Turks Becſangil, is ſeparated from Europe only by the Thracian Boſphorus. The ſoil is naturally rich, but, like many other fine parts of the Turkiſh empire, is very much neglected.

Bruſa, or Burſa, as the Turks term it, is the capital of Bithynia, and was the metropolis of the whole Ottoman empire, before the Turks poſſeſſed themſelves of Conſtantinople. It lies in 40 deg. 16 min. north latitude, and 29 deg. 35 min. eaſt longitude, and is ſituated at the foot of mount Olympus, twenty miles from the Sea of Marmora, and 58 ſouth of Conſtantinople. It is exceedingly well built, and deemed one of the beſt paved cities in all the Turkiſh empire. The ſtreets are ſpacious, the caravanſeras noble and convenient, and the moſques magnificent. The latter are adorned with cupolas and minarets, covered with lead, and computed at about 300 in number. In one of the moſques the tombs of many of the ancient Turkiſh ſovereigns are to be ſeen. Though the ſeat of empire has been tranſlated to Conſtantinople, this city ſtill preſerves a ſhare of its ancient grandeur, beauty, and opulence. It is likewiſe a place of conſiderable traffick, as a caravan goes every two months from hence to Perſia; and ſeveral others paſs through it from Aleppo, Conſtantinople, &c. to Iſpahan. In the bezeſtine all kinds of commodities of home manufactory, and others from the Levant, are expoſed to ſale. It is a large edifice, well-built, and contains many excellent ſhops and warehouſes. The workmen of this city manufacture the beſt ſilks, hangings, carpets, tapeſtries, &c. in Turkey. The city is about three miles in circumference, but the walls are falling to decay. It is computed to contain 40,000 Turks. The ſuburbs, which are more ſpacious and handſome than the city itſelf, are inhabited by 4000 Jews, 500 Armenians, and 300 Greek families, independent of many foreigners who are ſettled here. The fine orchards, gardens, plantations of mulberry, plantain, and other trees, &c. afford ſome of the moſt delightful, pleaſant, and ſhady walks that imagination can conceive. All the neceſſaries, and even the luxuries of life, are excellent in their kinds, very plentiful, and quite reaſonable. The wine, in particular, is exquiſite, and the fiſh delicious.

On a hill in the middle of the city there is a caſtle, which was once the palace of the ſultans, but is now running to decay. The ſeraglio, build by Mahomet IV. is a noble edifice. The city is governed by a baſhaw, a cady or a moula, and a janiſſary aga, who has about 230 janiſſaries under him. In the ſuburbs the Greeks have three handſome churches, the Armenians one, and the Jews four ſynagogues. In the city are ſome excellent hot baths, and about a mile from it the baths of Calypſo, which are handſome ſtructures covered with domes, and much frequented on account of the great reputation the waters have obtained for their uncommon medicinal virtue.

Nice, or, as the Turks call it, Nickor, ſtands about thirty miles from Conſtantinople, in 40 deg. 32 min. north latitude, and 29 deg. 40 min. eaſt longitude, being ſituated near a gulph of the ſea of Marmora, called Aſcanio, or Aſcu. Though its ancient ſplendor is much diminiſhed, it is ſtill a conſiderable place, and contains about 10,000 inhabitants, Turks, Greeks, Armenians, and Jews, whoſe commerce is very great in corn, fruit, tapeſtries, fine cloths, and other merchandize brought from the Levant. There is a ſeraglio in the higheſt part of the town. The ſtreets are large, and the houſes well built. This city was celebrated for being the ſeat of the firſt general council convened by Conſtantine againſt the Arians, A. D. 325, and ſince known by the name of the Council of Nice.

Nicomedia received its name from Nicomedes, king of Bithynia, who made it his metropolis, reſided in it, enlarged and embelliſhed it. The appellation which the Turks give it is Iſmai, or Iſmigimid. It is large, handſome, and populous; and is ſituated at the end of a gulph of its own name, forty miles north-eaſt from Burſa. In point of ſituation, it exceeds all the cities in the Turkiſh territories, Conſtantinople excepted. The inhabitants, compoſed of Turks, Greeks, Armenians, and Jews, are ſuppoſed to amount, to about 30,000, who carry on a conſiderable traffick in ſilks, cotton, woollen and linen cloths, earthen-ware, and glaſs; beſides which, it is the principal place belonging to the Turks for ſhip-building.

In many parts of the city curious ancient inſcriptions, in Greek and Latin, are ſtill viſible. To the weſtward is a fountain of mineral water, much admired for its medicinal qualities: and a little beyond there is a mole,

ſuppoſed to have been formerly made for the ſecurity of the ſhipping in the harbour, which is about a quarter of a league long, and twelve yards broad. The gulph, which receives its name from this city, is only about a mile and a half broad, but is very long and deep.

Chalcedon, once an opulent city, is now an inconſiderable village, with a few remains of its ancient ſplendour. Its ſituation is on the Iſthmus of a peninſula, about ſeventeen miles to the eaſtward of Conſtantinople, on the oppoſite ſhore of the Boſphorus. This town anciently had in it a temple of Venus, and an oracle of Apollo. It has a tolerable harbour, and the river Chalcedon flows to the eaſtward of it.

Between Nicomedia and Chalcedon ſtood the once opulent city of Lybyſſa, which has been famous for the death of Hannibal. It is now dwindled to a very poor and mean village.

Myſia and the Leſſer Phrygia are uſually deſcribed by geographers together, as the exact limits are not aſcertained. In conjunction they are bounded on the north by the Propontis, on the ſouth by Lydia and the Archipelago, on the eaſt by Phrygia Major, and on the weſt by the Helleſpont. In this country the famed mount Olympus is ſituated, or rather the double chain of mountains ſo denominated. They are thought to be the higheſt mountains in the eaſtern part of the univerſe, particularly the central part, or the celebrated mount Ida of the ancients. Theſe mountains are continually covered with ſnow, and the ſides abound with pine and other trees, with wild thyme and other ſhrubs, more particularly the *laydanum ciſtus*, with broad leaves. About the beginning of the dog-days the air of mount Ida is ſo ſerene, that not a ſingle breath of wind appears ſtirring; and at night the ſun's rays appear to dart all round the horizon, which make it ſeem as if on fire.

The principal rivers in this part of the country are the Granicus and Æſophus, which diſcharge themſelves into the Sea of Marmora; and the Simois and Xanthus, which empty themſelves into the Helleſpont. The Caicus, with the Pergamos and Cayſter, flow through Myſia, which contains the following places, viz. Cyzicus or Cyzicum, which is now Chizico, and Spiga, though anciently a magnificent city, is at preſent but an inconſiderable town, ſituated about thirty miles weſtward of Berſa, on the ſouth-eaſt coaſt of the Sea of Marmora. Oppoſite to this town, on the Propontis, are ſeveral ſmall iſlands, which are called the Marble Iſlands, from the great number of marble quarries in them. They likewiſe abound in corn, fruits, cattle, cotton, wine, &c.

Lampſacus, or Lampſaco, as it is now denominated, has loſt much of its ancient ſplendour. It is but a ſmall city at preſent, thinly inhabited by a few Greeks and Turks: but its port is convenient. It is ſituated at the mouth of the Helleſpont, oppoſite to Gallipoli in Europe. The neighbouring country is exceedingly fruitful in vines and pomgranates. The former even the indolent Turks themſelves cultivate, and make excellent wine and brandy to mix with their ſherbet.

Abydos, now called Avido, or Avio, was formerly eſteemed the key of Aſia. It was here that Xerxes began his famous bridge, which was ſo well completed in a week, that 170,000 foot, and 80,000 horſe, excluſive of carriages and camels, marched over it. About 1235 years before Chriſt a mine of gold was found near this city, which enabled Priam, King of Troy, to carry on many uſeful and magnificent public works. Philip of Macedon, laid ſiege to this city, and took it by ſtorm: but the citizens, ſooner than be carried into ſlavery by the conqueror, ſet fire to the city, and then murdered their wives, children, and themſelves. Abydos was an epiſcopal ſee, Hermias, the biſhop thereof, having aſſiſted at the Council of Chalcedon. In A. D. 1330, it was betrayed to the Turks by the treachery of the governor's daughter; and Avido is at preſent one of their caſtles upon the Dardanelles. It ſtands in 40 deg. 16 min. north latitude, and 27 deg. 16 min. eaſt longitude, upon the ſtraits that divides Aſia from Europe, which is three miles over.

The principal places in the Leſſer Phrygia are,

Aſſos, formerly a conſiderable ſea-port town on the ſouth coaſt, now an inconſiderable village.

Antandros, now called St. Demitri, is ſituated farther eaſt of the foot of mount Ida. Though it was anciently a place of importance, it now ſcarce deſerves mentioning.

Adramyctum, or Endromit, as the Turks call it, ſtands at the mouth of the gulph to which it gives name, oppoſite to the Iſland of Leſbos. At preſent, like the laſt mentioned places, it is not of the leaſt importance, though formerly it was a place of note, and is mentioned in the Acts of the Apoſtles.

Pergamus, which was formerly the metropolis of a kingdom, it is now dwindled to a ſmall village.

The decay of great cities, of which the veſtiges ſcarce remain, and the ruins of ancient ſplendour, give the beſt moral leſſons to the ſpeculative mind.

In the inſtability of human glory, and the moulder-ing remains of the ſtrongeſt and moſt magnificient ſtructures, we may perceive, and be taught to reflect on, our own approaching mortality, and the general diſſolution which muſt await all ſublunary things. Theſe melancholy reflections, however, are not only inſtructive, but admit of being blended with the moſt ſublime and pleaſing ideas. Well may we exclaim with Webſter,

——— 'I love theſe ancient ruins.
'We never tread upon them, but we ſet
'Our foot upon ſome reverend hiſtory;
'And, queſtionleſs, here, in this open court,
'Which now lies naked to the injuries
'Of ſtormy weather, ſome may be interr'd
'Who lov'd the church ſo well, and gave ſo largely to't,
'They thought it ſhould have canopy'd their bones
'Till dooms-day. But all things have their end.
'Churches and cities, which have diſeaſes like to men,
'Muſt have like death that we have."

Pergamus, or Pergamos, as the Turks call it, is ſituated ſixty miles north of Smyrna, on the banks of the Caicus. Here ſtood one of the ſeven churches mentioned in the Revelations. Here alſo the celebrated phyſician Galen was born, and parchment invented, the word itſelf being only a corruption of Pergameum, from Pergamos. Some affirm that tapeſtry was likewiſe firſt invented at this place. A ſtately temple of Æſculapius once embelliſhed this town. The Turks have here a moſque, and the Greeks a church.

Troas Alexandria, to the ſouthward of Troy, was formerly the capital of the province, but is now totally in ruins.

It is not poſitively agreed among the learned, whether the ſuppoſed ruins of Troy really belonged to that celebrated city, or to the above-mentioned Troas Alexandria. We ſhall, however, ſpeak of Troy from the beſt authorities. It is ſaid to have been ſituated on a riſing ground near mount Ida, and about five miles from the ſhore of the Ægean Sea, on the river Scamander, or Xanthus. The ancient geographers place it in 39 deg. 58 min. north latitude, and 27 deg. 56 min. eaſt longitude. Strabo informs us, that there was ſcarce any remains of it even in his time.

The beſt account of the Trojan war is given by Homer. The narrative, ſtripped of the poetical fictions, appears to be genuine, from the concurrent teſtimonies of the moſt credible hiſtorians of antiquity, and of the Arundelian marbles. The number of ſhips employed to tranſport the troops, according to Homer, was 1186: but Thucydes exceeds even the poet, and makes them 1200 ſail. The Bœtian ſhips were the largeſt, and carried 120 men in each. The ſhips of Philoctetæ were the ſmalleſt, and only carried 50 men in each. Troy, however, held out ten years againſt the formidable army of the Greeks, who, when they took that devoted city, ſet it on fire, and put moſt of the inhabitants, who did not eſcape, to the ſword. Æneas, in relating to queen Dido the circumſtances of the

the fatal night in which Troy was taken and deſtroyed, ſays,

'Pantheus, Apollo's prieſt, a ſacred name,
'Had 'ſcap'd the Grecian ſwords, and paſt the flame;
'With relicks laden, to my door he fled,
'And by his hand his tender grandſon led.
'What help! Oh, Pantheus! whither can we run?
'Where make a ſtand? or what may yet be done?
'Scarce had I ſaid, when Pantheus, with a groan,
'Troy is no more, and Ilium was a town:
'The fatal times, the appointed hour is come,
'When wrathful Jove's irrevocable doom
'Tranſfers the Trojan ſtate to Grecian hands:
'The fire conſumes the town, the foe commands.'

According to the moſt authentic records, Troy was taken the 24th of April, 1184 years before Chriſt; and its capture put an end to the kingdom of Troy, after having ſtood 296 years, from Teucer to Priam.

We cannot here forbear tranſcribing the following paſſage from the ingenious Marquis D'Argens's Jewiſh Spy. "The ruins of the cities in the Archipelago have, for many years, engaged the curioſity of travellers, yet the Turks leſſen them every day, and carry away vaſt quantities of the marble. How much, therefore, muſt there have been of it at firſt! The moſque of the Sultan Achmet was built only of the ſtones fetched from the ruins of Troy: the columns which form the peryſtil of that temple, and which are not leſs than 130 in number, were all found entire near that city. For a great number of years the Turks made uſe of no other bullets for the cannon of the Dardanelles, than Corinthian chapiters and columns, which they broke to pieces, and cut to ſerve that purpoſe."

Æolis is bounded on the north by the Leſſer Phrygia, on the weſt by the Ægean Sea, on the eaſt by Lydia, and on the ſouth by Ionia. The cities were formerly Marina, Cuma, Elæa, and Phonea. Myrina is called by the Turks Marham, and Ponea is called Foggia, or Toglia. At preſent they are all of ſo little importance, that, were they united, they would make but a very inconſiderable village.

Ionia lies contiguous to Æolis, and contains, among others, ſome places of importance, the principal of which is Smyrna, which the Turks call Iſmyr, or Iſmir. It lies in 38 deg. 15 min. north latitude, and 27 deg. 10 min. eaſt longitude, is the beſt ſea-port town in the Levant, and the moſt populous and opulent city of Aſia Minor. From Conſtantinople it is eight days journey by land, and about 133 leagues by water.

In the time of the Romans Smyrna was looked upon as the moſt beautiful of the Ionian cities, and was called the *Ornament of Aſia*. A Turkiſh rebel, named Tzachas, in 1084, thought proper to aſſume the title of king, and having ſeized upon Smyrna made it his capital. At the beginning of the 13th century it all lay in ruins except the fortreſs. In 1424 it was finally ſubdued by the Turks, having been previouſly rebuilt at various periods.

The port, which is ſhut up, reached once to the foot of the caſtle, but is now dry, except after a few heavy ſhowers, when it is repleniſhed from the ſluices.

The public edifices, have, in general, been erected by the Turks, with the materials of the ancient city. The bezeſtice, or market, and the tizir-khan, were both raiſed with the white marble of the theatre. The commodious harbour, and advantageous ſituation, have rendered it one of the moſt opulent cities in Turkey. The haven is defended by a ſtrong caſtle, and ſheltered from all winds, except the weſterly, by high mountains. There is an aſtoniſhing conflux of people in Smyrna, of ſeveral nations, who differ in manners, dreſs, language, religion, &c. The Turks occupy the greateſt part of the town. The Proteſtants and Roman Catholics have their chapels, and the Jews a ſynagogue or two. The Armenians have a large handſome church, with a contiguous burying-ground. Doctor Chandler ſays, "The Greeks, before the fire, had two churches. They applied, by their biſhop at Conſtantinople, to rebuild that which was deſtroyed, but the ſum demanded was too exorbitant to be given. By this policy the Turks have attempted to reduce the number of the profeſſors of Chriſtianity."

The moſques, baths, market, and khans, are the principal buildings, and ſome of them are very noble. The ſtreets in general are narrow, inconvenient, and intricate: but the moſt diſagreeable circumſtance to thoſe who live here is the great heats, which commence in June, and continue till September. During this ſeaſon the ground is burnt up, and has large chaſms, which, it is imagined, give vent to bituminous vapours, that, if confined, would occaſion earthquakes. Few years paſs without a ſhock or two; but, in general, they are leſs hurtful than alarming. They uſually happen when the weather is calm in ſpring and autumn, at which times the ſea withdraws a conſiderable way from the beach, and the water is exceeding low. A terrible one happened in 1688, which overthrew a great part of the city.

Smyrna is likewiſe annually viſited by the plague. When it rages violently, the conſuls, factors, merchants, &c. retire into the country; and many people abandon their dwellings to live abroad under tents. The iſlanders return home; and the graſs is ſeen to grow in the ſtreets of the quarter belonging to the Franks, which is exceedingly populous at other times.

The Turks bury without the town, and place either grave ſtones or pillars at the head and feet of the graves, which, in general, are ſhaded with cypreſs trees. In their cemeteries, as well as in thoſe of the Chriſtians and Jews, many antiquities in architecture are found. The burying ground belonging to the Engliſh is walled in, and contains ſome curious monuments, the ſculpture of which is admirable. They were not, however, executed at Smyrna, but brought from Italy. One in particular is to the memory of Mr. Bouverie, (the companion of Meſſrs. Wood and Dawkins in their journey to Palmyra) who died at Magnæſia.

Symrna is plentifully ſupplied with proviſions. The tails of ſome of the ſheep weigh ten pounds, and are deemed a great dainty. The fiſh taken in the bay are excellent. Wild hogs, hares, and all other kinds of game, fowls, &c. may be had in abundance. The wine, olives, fruits, &c. are all admirable. The muſquitoes, as well as a much ſmaller fly, of which the name is not known, are extremely troubleſome, but more ſo to ſtrangers than natives. Lemon juice is the beſt remedy for the fiery tumours which enſue. In the harbour of Smyrna are always ſhips of almoſt all nations, and all burthens. The town is ſuppoſed to contain about 15,000 Turks, 10,000 Greeks, and 2000 Jews, excluſive of Armenians, Franks, &c. The quarter of the Franks is better built, and better paved, than any other. The European merchants bring hither a great variety of goods from Europe, the Eaſt and Weſt-Indies, &c. export fine and coarſe wool, ſilk, cotton, mohair, wax, rhubarb, gall-nuts, opium, aloes, ſcammony, tutty, galbanum, tacamahac, gum-tragacanth, ammoniam, and Arabic, myrrh, Frankincenſe, zedoar, &c. The Jews here, as well as in moſt parts of Turkey, generally manage all commercial affairs; or at leaſt the principal part of them goes, either directly, or indirectly, through their hands. The whole town, in fact, is one continued bezar or fair. The conſuls from England, France, and Holland, have very handſome houſes by the ſea ſide.

This city is one of the ſeven that contended for the honour of being the birth-place of Homer, to whoſe memory a temple was erected. It is likewiſe the ſeat of one of the ſeven Aſiatic churches, mentioned in the Apocalypſe. In the environs Roman medals have been frequently found; and near it are the remains of an ancient Roman circus, theatre, &c. In the neighbourhood a kind of earth is found, which being boiled with oil makes excellent ſoap.

Clazomene

Clazomene is ſituated on the Ionian peninſula, about twenty-eight miles to the ſouth-weſt of Smyrna. It was one of the twelve ancient cities of Aſia, and famed as the birth-place of Anaxagoras. It is now called Urla, or Vourla. It was a city of importance in the time of the Romans, but is now a deſpicable village, and better known in the hiſtorian's page for what it was, than for any thing worth noticing in its preſent ſituation.

'When ruſt ſhall eat her braſs; when Time's ſtrong hand
'Shall bruiſe to duſt her marble palaces,
'Triumphal arches, pillars, obeliſks;
'When Julius' temple, Claudius' aqueducts,
'Agrippa's baths, and Pompey's theatre,
'Nay Rome itſelf, ſhall not be found at all,
'Hiſtorians books ſhall live.'

Erythræa, like the laſt mentioned place, was formerly a conſiderable city, but, by the ſame kind of fatality, is now dwindled to an inconſiderable village. It is on the Ionian coaſt, between Teos and Clazomene.

Teos, the birth-place of Anacreon, was anciently a good ſea-port, but is now ſcarce the ſhadow of what it formerly was.

Lebidus, or Lebidos, is now a poor ſea-port, near the iſthmus of the peninſula, though it was formerly one of the twelve capital cities of Aſia, and was famed for the games of Bacchus, which were celebrated there.

About thirty miles ſouth of Smyrna is the city of Colophon, one of thoſe which laid claim to the birth of Homer. It had a temple and an oracle, but at preſent is very inconſiderable.

Epheſus is in 18 deg. 16 min. north latitude, and 27 deg. 3 min. eaſt longitude. It lies about fifty miles ſouth of Smyrna, twenty-three of Miletus, and ſixty-three from Laodicea, and was anciently the metropolis of all Aſia; Epheſus and Smyrna having been termed the eyes of Aſia Minor: but of this once ſplendid, opulent, and magnificent city, nothing remains but about thirty houſes, inhabited by Greek families, who are miſerably poor, and ſo exceedingly ignorant, that none of them are able to read the admirable epiſtle with which St. Paul honoured them. Its firſt biſhop was Timothy, whom St. Paul appointed to that miniſtration. St. John the Evangeliſt was buried here. The Greeks call this city Efeſo, and the Turks have given it the name of Ajaſalouch. There are many noble ruins, particularly of an aqueduct, a theatre, and a circus. The celebrated painter Parrhaſius, and the weeping philoſopher Heraclitus, were natives of this place. The principal ornament of Epheſus was the celebrated temple of Diana, one of the wonders of the world. It was built at the foot of a mountain, and the head of a marſh; which ſituation was choſen, as Pliny informs us, becauſe leſs ſubject to earthquakes. Four hundred years were ſpent in building this wonderful temple. It was 405 feet in length, and 200 in breadth, ſupported by 117 pillars, 70 feet in height, of which 27 were moſt curiouſly carved, and the reſt admirably poliſhed. The temple of Diana was burnt by Eroſtratus, through no other motive, as he himſelf confeſſed upon the rack, than to eternize his name. This remarkable tranſaction happened the very day on which Alexander the Great was born, in the year of the world 3648, and 356 before the birth of Chriſt. There is yet ſtanding a church dedicated to St. John, which was erected by the primitive Chriſtians, but is at preſent converted into a Turkiſh moſque.

We ſhall conclude this article with a quotation from an ingenious modern traveller. "The Epheſians are now a few Greek peaſants, living in extreme wretchedneſs, dependance, and inſenſibility: the repreſentatives of an illuſtrious people, and inhabiting the wreck of their greatneſs; ſome the ſubſtractions of the glorious edifices which they raiſed, ſome beneath the vaults of the ſtadium, once the crowded ſcene of their diverſions, and ſome by the abrupt precipices in the ſepulchres, which received their aſhes. We employed two of them to pile ſtones, to ſerve inſtead of a ladder, at the arch of the ſtadium, and to clear a pedeſtal of the portico by the theatre from rubbiſh. We had occaſion for another to dig at the Corinthian temple, and ſending to the ſtadium, the whole tribe followed, one playing all the way before them on a rude lyre, and at times ſtriking the ſounding board with the fingers of his left hand, in concert with the ſtrings; one of them had on a pair of ſandals of goat-ſkin, laced with thongs, and not uncommon; after gratifying their curioſity they returned back as they came, with their muſician in front. Such are the preſent citizens of Epheſus, and ſuch is the condition to which that renowned city has been gradually reduced. It was a ruinous place when the emperor Juſtinian filled Conſtantinople with its ſtatues, and raiſed its church of St. Sophia on its columns. Since then it has been almoſt exhauſted." And again, the ſame author ſays, "the glorious pomp of its heathen worſhip is no longer remembered, and Chriſtianity, which was there nurſed by apoſtles, and foſtered by general councils, until it encreaſed to ſolneſs of ſtature, barely lingers on in an exiſtence hardly viſible."

Caria is bounded by the Icarian ſea on the ſouth and weſt; by Ionia and the river Meander on the north; and by Phrygia and Lycia on the eaſt: the principal place is Miletus, or Miletum, which ſtands on the ſouth ſide of the Meander, near the ſea coaſt.

There are ſcarce any veſtiges left of the ancient cities of Heraclea, Lathinum, Bergylia, Mylaſſa, Amyzon, Stratonice and Alinda.

Halicarnaſſus was formerly the metropolis of Caria, and has been celebrated in hiſtory for the mauſoleum, or tomb, built by queen Arteniſia, in honour of her huſband king Mauſoleus, which was ſo noble a ſtructure that the ancients deemed it one of the wonders of the world. Hence all tombs, which are remarkable, are called mauſoleums.

The inhabitants of the country of Caria have been characteriſed by hiſtorians and others writers, ancient and modern, as propenſe to war, from whence it has been inferred they were naturally led to invent and perfect ſome of its appendages. By them were introduced the ſtraps of bucklers, the plumes of helmets, and the ſmall boats which the ancients called Ocreæ. The paſſion for plunder appears to have been the only motive that induced them to abandon their country in order to ſell their blood and their valour.

The modern Carians retain the character of their anceſtors, and the country they ſtill inhabit furniſhes a great number of ſoldiers. Part of them enter into the pay of the pachas of Aſia Minor: the others are employed by thoſe agas, whoſe ambition ever renders their ſervices neceſſary, and who, in the precarious independency they uſurp, are compelled to admit as partners in their extortions the ferocious bands that ſecure them the means of continuing them. They often change their maſters, and even boaſt of never conſulting any intereſt but their own. The chiefs, of whoſe greatneſs they are ſuch indiſpenſable ſupporters, are obliged to make an adequate acknowledgement of their ſervices, and never did one of theſe uſurpers form the idea of ſelling the ſupporters of his authority, or of ſpeculating on the blood of his ſubjects, and revelling in the pleaſures that were paid for by their ſlaughter in another hemiſphere.

The Carian ſoldiers wear a black turban, the ſhape and colour of which form the diſtinctions of rank. The women wear a long robe with a ſaſh. Their head dreſs and hair are ornamented with a kind of beads, as are alſo their necks, from which they wear beads pendant below the ſaſh.

Mindus is a ſea-port on the Jaſic bay, about twelve miles from Halicarnaſſus. The Turks call it Mentes. It is at preſent the chief town in theſe parts, and the reſidence of a Turkiſh ſangiac. Anciently it was but a ſmall town; yet the gates being uncommonly ſumptuous and large, Diogenes, in ridicule of the vanity of the

the inhabitants told them to take care that their little city did not run away through its own gates.

Lydia, or Mæonia, is bounded on eaſt by Phrygia, on the weſt by the Archipelago, on the north by Myſia, and on the ſouth by Caria. It was anciently called Mæonia, and was once the kingdom of the celebrated Crœſus. It is a fine fertile country, being watered by the Caicus, Heymen, Cayſter, Meander. and the Pactolus, ſo celebrated by the ancient poets for its ſand of gold. Tmolus, famed for its wine and ſaffron, is the principal mountain in this country. At preſent the indolent Turks ſuffer this fine country to be over-run with brambles, and lie entirely uncultivated. The chief places are,

Sardis, formerly the metropolis of Lydia, and the ſeat of the rich king Crœſus, is now a very inconſiderable village, ſeated on the banks of the Pactolus, at the foot of mount Tmolus. It is about forty-eight miles eaſt of Smyrna, and only inhabited by ſhepherds. It, however, contains a large caravanſera for the accommodation of travellers and caravans, who paſs through it from Smyrna and Aleppo in their way to Perſia. The magnificent ruins that are ſtill viſible give, however, an idea of its ancient ſplendour to the beholder. It had one of the ſeven Aſiatic churches.

Philadelphia had another of the ſeven churches, was formerly a very populous city, and is ſtill a tolerable town, containing about 7000 inhabitants, who are principally Greeks. It is filled with the ruins of many ſuperb edifices. Here are four churches; and as the neighbouring country is very fertile, proviſions are pretty plenty. The Turks call it Alla-Scheur, or the City of God.

Thyatira, or, as the Turks call it, Akiſhar, had another of the ſeven churches. It ſtands upon the banks of the Hermus, on the confines of Myſia, about twenty-ſix miles north from Sardis, and fifty-ſix north-eaſt of Smyrna. The houſes are low and mean, being built with mud and turf. It contains about 500 inhabitants, who are chiefly Turks. The only manufacture is that of cotton. The neighbouring plains are full of cotton trees and tamariſks.

Magneſia, or Siphylum, as it has been called to diſtinguiſh it from that of Ionia, or Suzletaſſar, as the Turks name it, was anciently a city of great opulence and importance, pleaſantly ſituated at the foot of mount Siphylus, about ſeventy miles ſouth-eaſt of Smyrna. The walls are in tolerable preſervation. The inhabitants are compoſed of Turks and Jews, the latter having three ſynagogues. It is now but a ſmall trading town, having a manufacture of cotton yarn.

Tripoli is ſituated on the frontiers of this province towards Caria, and the river Meander. It has fallen from its ancient ſplendour. The Turks call it Koenikoi.

Dingſhilly is a handſome trading town, well peopled with Turks, ſituated at about ſeventy miles diſtance from the mouth of the Meander.

With reſpect to the ancient cities of Tralles, or Tralliis, Hiero-Cæſarea, Narraſa, Ægria, Jovis-Tanum, and Laodicea, there are ſcarce any veſtiges left, except of the latter, which was a noble city, and had one of the ſeven churches. The ruins that are viſible are of a circus, and three theatres of white marble, which are almoſt entire. The place is, however, uninhabited.

Phrygia Major is bounded on the north by Bithynia, on the ſouth by Pamphylia, on the weſt by Myſia, and on the eaſt by Galatia. It is watered by the rivers Hermus, Meander, Marſias, and Sangarius, and would, with proper cultivation, be exceedingly fruitful. The Turks call this country Germian. The remarkable places are,

Cotyæum, or Kutahia, as the Turks call it, which ſtands on the river Sangar, about ſeventy-three miles ſouth-eaſt of Burſa. It was anciently a very conſiderable city, and is ſtill a very flouriſhing populous town. It is at preſent the ſeat of a beglerberg, and was formerly the place of reſidence of the Turkiſh ſovereigns, prior to the taking of Conſtantinople.

Mideum, or Midæum, was anciently the regal ſeat of the celebrated king Midas, of whom it is recorded, that when he was a child, a ſwarm of ants were obſerved very buſy one day, while he was aſleep, in conveying their ſtores of wheat into his mouth, whereupon the oracle being conſulted, returned anſwer, that immenſe riches were preſaged by that omen. The prediction was fulfilled, for he was accounted by ancient authors one of the richeſt princes that ever reigned. Strabo tells us that he drew immenſe ſums from the mines of mount Bermius. The fable of Midas's having aſſes ears originated from his being of a very ſuſpicious temper, and employing many ſpies in different parts of his dominions, by which means ſcarce any tranſactions could be concealed from his knowledge. This induced his ſubjects to ſay metaphorically that he had long ears; and as aſſes are ſaid to be endowed with the ſenſe of hearing in a greater degree of perfection than any other animals, they likewiſe ſaid he had aſſes ears: but what was ſpoken metaphorically came at laſt to be vulgarly imagined a fact. His wiſh to be able to change every thing he touched into gold, the grant of that wiſh, and the conſequent puniſhment which was that even his food became gold, and he was in danger of being ſtarved, by having the completion of his wiſh, are all likewiſe metaphors, and alluded to his avaricious temper, which was never to be gratified with the heaps of riches he poſſeſſed, but always craving for more, and aiming to turn all he could into money. We may well ſay with the poet.

'Fond men, by paſſions wilfully betray'd,
'Adore thoſe idols which their fancy made:
'Purchaſing riches with our time and care,
'We loſe our freedom in a gilded ſnare:
'And having all, all to ourſelves refuſe;
'Oppreſs'd with bleſſings which we fear to loſe.
'In vain our fields and flocks increaſe our ſtore,
'If our abundance makes us wiſh for more.'

The ancient geographers placed Mideum near the north-eaſt limits of Phrygia, on the river Sangarius; but there are no veſtiges of it to be ſeen.

Gordium was once the reſidence of Gordius, king of Phrygia, celebrated for having tied the famous knot in the temple of Apollo, which was known by the name of the Gordian Knot. Alexander the Great afterwards, not being able to untie it, cut it with his ſword.

Coloſſe, Coloſſus, or Chonos, was ſituated on the ſouth-ſide of the river Meander. St. Paul's epiſtle to the Coloſſians was addreſſed to the inhabitants of this city.

Of the three laſt mentioned cities, as well as Hierapolis, Smyrada, Eucarpia, Prymneſias Tiberiopolis, Hipſos, &c. ſcarce any traces are now to be found, except the hot ſpring, and the ſuperb ruins of Hierapolis.

Apamea was once one of the moſt conſiderable cities in Aſia, but is now quite ruin to decay. It was ſituated on the river Meander, a little above where Marcias falls into it, and aroſe out of the ruins of the ancient Celene, whoſe inhabitants were tranſplanted into it by Seleucus, who named it after his wife Apamea.

Galatia, called by the Turks Chiagare at preſent, is bounded on the north by Paphlagonia, on the ſouth by Pamphilia, on the eaſt by Cappadocia, and on the weſt by Phrygia Major. It received its name from a colony of Gauls, who paſſed through Greece into Aſia, and ſettled in it. A great number of Greeks afterwards mingled with them, whence it was called Gallo-Græcia. It was always a fine fertile country, and formerly it was well cultivated, but at preſent lies neglected like other places, through Turkiſh indolence. The inhabitants were among the primitive Chriſtians, as appears by St. Paul's epiſtle to them.

Ancyra, or as the Turks call it, Angouri, or Angora, is in 40 deg. north latitude, and 32 deg. 58 min. eaſt longitude, 250 miles eaſt of Smyrna. It is the reſi-

dence of a ſangiac, and a very populous trading place. The inhabitants are eſtimated 40,000 Turks, 5000 Armenians, and 1000 Greeks. The chief manufacture is camblets. The evidences of its primitive grandeur are innumerable, the ſtreets, piazzas, &c. being full of ſtately remains, columns, &c. of the fineſt marble, porphyry, red jaſper, and other beautiful ſtones, elegantly wrought. The modern buildings, however, are mean, low, and formed only of mud and turf. A great variety of inſcriptions, in ſeveral languages, appear upon the gates. In the caſtle is an ancient Armenian church, built 1200 years ago. It has only one window, which has its vacancy filled by a tranſparent marble, through which the light penetrates into the church, but receives a reddiſh tinge from the nature of the ſtone. This city was once an archbiſhop's ſee. The ſheep bred here are ſome of the fineſt, and the goats the moſt beautiful in the univerſe; the hair of the latter being of a dazzling whiteneſs, and as fine as ſilk. It is curled naturally into locks of eight or nine inches long, which make the fineſt camblets. This hair is ſpun in the country, and manufactured at Angora. Theſe goats are only to be ſeen within a few miles of the city, as the breed degenerates if they are carried further.

Bolli is the metropolis of a province, and the reſidence of one of the fifteen ſangiacs under the beglerberg of Anatolia Proper. The other places are Andres, ſituated a little to the eaſt of Ancyra: Thenna, ſo called from its hot baths: Germaſte, formerly Germia, on the Sangarius: Ophium, a dirty ill built town, which receives its name from the opium made in and about it, its environs being covered with poppies, from which the Turks extract their opium.

The ancient cities of Tabia, Cinna, Aſpona, Reganalia, Piſimus, Heliopolis, Regemnerus, Merecium, Pelineſus, Clancas, Æorium, Regetnocade, Myracium, Eudoxius, and Amorium, are either totally in ruins, or dwindled to ſuch trifling villages as ſcarce to deſerve mentioning.

Pontus and Paphlagonia are contiguous, both lying to the north of Galatia, and being divided from Cappadocia on the eaſt by the river Halys, and on the weſt by Metapontus.

Paphlagonia was anciently inhabited by the Heneti, or Veneti, from whom the Venetians are deſcended. The Turks call this country Pender; the principal places of which are,

Heraclea Ponti, which, like many of the before-mentioned cities in the Turkiſh dominions, was formerly a very important, but at preſent a very inconſiderable place. It ſtands on the Euxine Sea, on the ruins of the ancient Heraclea. It was once celebrated for being the reſidence of the Commeni family, the founders of the Trebizoude empire. The houſes are ſmall, mean, and ill built; but the gates, towers, walls, &c. contain many fragments of the grandeur of the ancient city. The Turks call it Penderachi.

Claudianopolis, about thirty-five miles ſouth of Heraclea, is a very ſmall town, though once it was an epiſcopal ſee.

Amaſtris, ſituated at the mouth of the river Parthenius, called by the Turks Amaſtro, is now a very obſcure mean town, though anciently an important ſea-port.

Teuthramia, now Tripoli, is ſtill a good town, on a bay of the Euxine Sea: but it muſt be obſerved, that there is a town of the ſame name in Anatolia, ſituated on the Meander (excluſive of Tripoli in Barbary.)

The following cities, though formerly conſiderable, are now either totally deſerted, or nearly in ruins: and in their preſent decayed ſtate, are too inſignificant to have any thing ſaid about them, except the bare mention of their names, which are Amaſus, now Amid: Gangara, now Zagyra; Junopolis, now Cinopolis: and Pompeiopolis, or Cimolis.

The moſt conſiderable city in this part is Sinope, which was anciently the metropolis of the kingdom of Pontus, and the birth and burial place of the celebrated king Mithridates. It is at preſent a good trading town, being in 41 deg. 14 min. north latitude, and 34 deg. 52 min. eaſt longitude. In Strabo's time moſt of the ſtately walls, edifices, and the caſtle were ſtanding. The walls which now ſurround it were built by the Greek emperors. They have double ramparts, and are flanked with pentagonal and triangular towers. On the land ſide, however, it is commanded by eminences which would greatly expoſe it to the enemy: but by ſea it would require two fleets to beſiege it. The caſtle is now run to ruin; and there are but few janiſſaries in it; yet the Turks are ſo jealous of it, that they ſuffer no Jews to live in it, and confine the Greeks to a certain ſuberb. Here is a profitable fiſhery, and a great deal of trade carried on. Many magnificent antique remains are to be ſeen; and the new buildings are intermixed with innumerable noble fragments of the old. The water is excellent, and the country fertile, abounding with walnut, olive, and maple trees, and a fine ſort of wormwood. Diogenes the celebrated cynic philoſopher, was a native of this place.

The honourable J. Ægidius Van Egmont, envoy extraordinary from the United Provinces to the court of Naples, in reciting his travels through Anatolia, ſays, "In the country are great numbers of ſtorks, which afford the inhabitants an odd kind of diverſion. They place hen eggs in the ſtork's neſt; and when the young are hatched, the male, on ſeeing them of a different form from its own ſpecies, make a hideous noiſe, which calls together a crowd of other ſtorks hovering about the neſt, and who, to revenge the diſgrace that the female has in appearance brought on her neſt, deſtroy her, by pecking her to death: the male in the mean time making the heavieſt lamentation, as if bewailing his misfortune, which obliged him to have recourſe to ſuch diſagreeable ſeverities.

"Here I alſo ſaw the creature called Cameleon. It was found among the ruins of old Smyrna caſtle. The creature was pretty large, and I ſaw it change its colour three ſeveral times, becoming black, white, and green. It was placed on a piece of red cloth, and often turned, but never aſſumed that hue. Whether the creature was too large, and the ſmaller only imitate this colour, or from any other reaſons, is beyond my philoſophy to determine. With regard to its food during the eight days it lived with us, I did not obſerve it to eat any thing except ſmall flies, which it caught in the air with its tongue."

SECTION XII.

AMASIA.

THIS province of the Turkiſh empire is bounded on the north by the Euxine Sea, on the ſouth by Carmania and Aladulia, on the eaſt by Armenia, and on the weſt by Anatolia Proper. It is governed by a beglerberg.

The capital of the province, and the reſidence of the beglerberg, is the city of Amaſia, which the Turks call Amnaſan. It is about ſixty miles from the Euxine Sea, and forty eaſt of Tocat, ſituated on the river Iris, or Caſalmach, as it is now called. Though the city itſelf is large, the commerce is inconſiderable. The river, however, is navigable for ſhips of great burthen, up to the town itſelf. On a mountain to the eaſt there is a ſtrong caſtle, and a wooden bridge over the river. Selim the firſt emperor of the Turks, and Strabo, the celebrated ancient philoſopher was born here. There are only two caravanſeras at preſent in this city. The magnificent fragments of antiquity, which are found in and about this city, evidently prove that it was formerly a place of great beauty and importance.

Lerio, or, as it was anciently called, Themiſeyra, was one of the ſtrongeſt and moſt important cities of Pontus, though at preſent but a trifling place. It is ſituated on the ſea-coaſt, near the mouth of the river Thermodan,

Thermodan, about 60 miles to the north-eaſt of Amaſia.

Comana, or Pontica, was formerly a great city, but is now only a mean ſtraggling village. It is about forty miles from Amaſia, ſituated upon the Iris, or Caſalmach.

Silvas, which authors imagine to be the antient Sebaſte, is a ſmall ſcattered village, ſituated about fifty-five miles ſouth of Tocat, and ſeventy-five ſouth-eaſt of Amaſia; yet mean as it is, a baſſa, ſuperior to that of Tocat, reſides here, and an aga with a few janiſſaries under his command.

Phamacia is about forty-four miles weſt of Trebizonde, and ſituated near the coaſt of the Euxine Sea: the Turks call it Keriſan. It is a large populous town, but its harbour is only fit to receive thoſe ſmall veſſels called ſaics. It is generally imagined to be the antient Ceraſunta, and is ſuppoſed to have been ſo denominated on account of the great number of cherry trees which grow in its environs.

Trebizonde, Trapezonde, Trabezonde, or, as the Turks call it, Tarabozan, is ſituated in the antient Pontus Cappadocia, on the eaſtern parts of Amaſia, at the foot of a hill. It is a kind of peninſula running into the Euxine Sea. It lies in 41 deg. 5 min. north lat. and 39 deg. 22 min. eaſt long. at about 18 miles diſtance from Tocat. This city was antiently very important from being the metropolis of the Trebizonde empire. It is ſtill a place of great trade, and is ſaid to have contained 20,000 inhabitants prior to the year 1617, when it was burnt by the Ruſſians: ſince that period it hath been but thinly peopled, though a Turkiſh baſſa and a Greek archbiſhop reſide in it. The houſes are mean, and ill built. The caſtle is large and built on a rock, out of which the ſurrounding ditches are cut. The harbour is in a very bad condition, and will only admit ſmall Turkiſh barks. The city is in the form of an oblong ſquare, and derived its name from Trapeſus, a table, from whence we likewiſe have the word Trapezium, a geometrical term for an oblong ſquare, whoſe angles and ſides are conſequently unequal. The walls are high and ſtrong, defended by towers, battlements, &c. It is celebrated in hiſtory for having been the birth-place of many eminent men, and more ſo on account of the martyrdom of 40 Chriſtian ſoldiers, who were thrown into a frozen lake in the neighbourhood, by order of Licinus. The environs, though little cultivated, are very fertile; the neighbouring mountains are covered with ſtately woods of various trees, ſuch as oaks, elms, beech, &c. which are of an aſtoniſhing height, and the whole face of the country forms an agreeable landſcape. The fineſt foreſt lies about 25 miles ſouth of the city, in the midſt of which ſtands the famous convent of St. John, all built of wood, upon a high rock, and ſurrounded by one of the moſt romantic wilderneſſes in the univerſe. A great deal of rock-honey is found in the neighbourhood of this city, which is ſo very luſcious as to render eating much of it dangerous. Tournefort aſcribes this rich quality to the nature of the flowers from which the bee extracts it. In the city the gardens and groves are as numerous as the houſes; but the ſuburbs, which are inhabited by Greeks and Armenians, are both extenſive and more populous than the city itſelf.

The empire of Trebizonde was founded much about the time of that of Nice, by David and Alexicus Commeni, who were the grandſons of the tyrant Andronicus. Having eſcaped from Conſtantinople, they ſeized upon the eaſtern parts of Pontus, Galatia and Cappadocia, and erected the whole into an empire, which was founded in 1204, and continued about 258 years. But in 1462 Mahomet, ſurnamed the Great, conquered the whole, and having put to death all the remains of the Commeni family, added it to the Turkiſh empire. Thus ſtates riſe and fall, their greatneſs being only the preſage of their diſſolution.

When empire in its childhood firſt appears,
A watchful fate o'erſees its tender years;
Till grown more ſtrong, it thruſts and ſtretches out,
And elbows all the kingdoms round about;
The place thus made for its firſt breathing free,
It moves again for eaſe and luxury;
Till, ſwelling by degrees, it has poſſeſs'd
The greater ſpace, and now crowds up the reſt;
When, from behind, there ſtarts ſome petty ſtate,
And puſhes on its now unwieldy fate;
Then down the precipice of time it goes,
And ſinks in minutes what in ages roſe.

Tocat, or Neocæſarea, was antiently the metropolis of Pontus Polemoniacus. It lies in 39 deg. 48 min. north lat. and 30 deg, 58 min. eaſt long. and, beſides being the reſidence of the beglerberg of the province, is a conſiderable thoroughfare for the caravans to Smyrna. It ſtands partly at the foot, and partly on the ſides of two very high hills, on the river Toſanlu, which is ſuppoſed to be the Lupus of Pliny, that falls into the Iris ſome miles below Tocat: both rivers frequently ſwell and overflow the country. The town is large, ſtrong and well built, in the form of an amphitheatre: on the tops of two marble rocks are two old caſtles. Every houſe has a fountain of freſh water in it, as the rocks abound with fine ſprings. Yet, though water is ſo plentiful, the town was deſtroyed by fire in the beginning of the preſent century, and many eminent merchants were thereby totally ruined. It ſoon, however, recovered through the excellency of its ſituation, and is now deemed the center of Aſiatic commerce: the caravans come from Diarbec in 18 days: thoſe of Tocat go to Sinope in ſix days, and to Pruſa in 20; but ſuch as go directly to Smyrna, without paſſing through Pruſa or Angora, take up about forty days with camels, or twenty-ſeven with mules. The environs are very fertile, ſome excellent plants are produced, and curious foſſils found, particularly many ſubterraneous vegetations of admirable beauty. Like our flints they are incloſed in matrices, which, when broken, diſplay ſome of the fineſt cryſtallizations imaginable; ſome are like petrified mother of pearl, and others appear like candied lemon and orange-peel. This city is governed by a cadi, a vayvode, and a janiſſary aga. The garriſon conſiſts of about 1000 janiſſaries and ſpahis, and the city and ſuburbs are ſuppoſed to contain 20,000 Turkiſh, 4000 Arminian, and about 500 Greek families. It has twelve moſques with minarets, and many without; ſeven Armenian churches, and one Greek chapel. Previous to the before-mentioned fire it contained twelve Chriſtian churches, one of which was archiepiſcopal. Here were likewiſe two monaſteries and two nunneries. The manfactures are ſilk, leather, red linen, and copper worked into a variety of utenſils. About two miles from the town are two ſmall rooms cut out of the ſolid rock, and held in great veneration by the Chriſtians, who ſuppoſe it to have been the retreat of St. Chryſoſtom, during the time of his exile.

It may not be improper to obſerve, that Amaſia contains the whole or the principal part of the antient provinces of Pontus Cappadociæ, Pontus Polemoniacus, and Pontus Galaticus.

SECTION XIII.

ALADULIA.

THIS diviſion of Aſia Minor is a country unfit for the purpoſes of agriculture, being rough and hilly; but it abounds in excellent paſtures, and produces abundance of admirable fruit, wines and cattle, particularly horſes and camels, beſides vaſt herds of goats and ſheep, veniſon, all kinds of game, &c. The mountains contain ſilver, copper, iron, alum, &c.

The province is divided into four ſangiacſhips, which are again ſubdivided into zarinets and timariots. The plundering banditti, or free-booters, are very troubleſome in this country. The principal places are,

Caiſar,

Caiſar, the antient Cæſaria: it is a large town on the banks of the Milas, near mount Argœus, and near 70 miles weſt of Secias. The walls are ſtrong, and flanked with towers, and the caſtle is in the center of the city. The bezar is handſome, and well furniſhed with all ſorts of merchandize: the houſes in its neighbourhood are built either in the form of a tower with a cupola, or they reſemble a ſugar-loaf. The city is well ſupplied with water from the river; and their principal trade is in cotton.

Malathiah, at the confluence of the Euphrates and Arſu, was anciently called Melitene. It is in 38 deg. 22 min. north lat. and 38 deg. 56 min. eaſt long. It was formerly the ſeat of the Ottoman princes, and now of a Greek archbiſhop. It is ſtill a conſiderable town, and well inhabited.

Mars, or Maraſch, is a large well built city in the ſouth-eaſt boundaries of the province. It is ſituated on a ſmall river, which falls into the Euphrates about 180 miles to the ſouthward of Trebizonde: it is a place of ſome commerce, and the reſidence of a baſſa.

Anciently there were many fine cities in this country, ſuch as Tyana, Nyſſa, Nazianzum, &c. which at preſent are either heaps of ruins, or ſuch mean villages as not to merit the leaſt mention. Among the eminent men who were born in this province, the foremoſt upon the liſt are Pauſanias, the Greek hiſtorian, the two Gregories of Nagianzen, St. Baſil, and St. George the patron of England, of whom we ſhall ſpeak a few words. St. George was born in the latter end of the third century, of Chriſtian parents. He ſerved in the army of the emperor Diocleſian with great reputation for ſome time, when that monarch reſolving on a perſecution of the Chriſtians, and being unable to win over St. George to Paganiſm, he ordered him to be put to the torture, which not ſhaking his conſtancy, he was beheaded by the command of that tyrant, on the 23th of April, A. D. 290. St. George being repreſented on horſeback, and tilting at a dragon, is only an emblematical figure, implying, that he conquered the devil by his faith and Chriſtian fortitude. Several churches have been dedicated to this ſaint. The noble order of the garter was founded in honour of him; and the 23d of April is ſtill obſerved in commemoration of his martyrdom; his blameleſs life, and unmerited death, having ſecured to him a glorious name.

'Glory by few is rightly underſtood:
'What's truly glorious muſt be greatly good.'

SECTION XIV.

CARAMANIA.

THE province of Caramania extends itſelf along the Mediterranean coaſt from north to ſouth, comprising the ancient Lycia, Pamphilia, Piſidia, Lycaonia, and Cilicia, with part of Iſauria, Phrygia, Pacatiana, Galatia, Salutaris, and Cappadocia. It reaches from the neighbourhood of Alexandretta, to the Gulph of Macri, at the mouth of which lies the Iſland of Rhodes. This country is called by the Turks Caraman-Ili, and is divided into the Greater and Leſſer; the latter lying along the ſea-coaſt, and the former to the north of mount Taurus. It is governed by a beglerberg, whoſe revenue is exceedingly large, and ſubordinate to whom are ſeven ſangiacs, with many zamins and timars. The principal places are.

Myra or Myrra, which the Turks call Strumita, was once a conſiderable city, but is now dwindled almoſt to nothing. It is about twenty-two miles north-eaſt of Patora, ſituated near the mouth of the Limyrus.

Patora was once the metropolis of Lycia, but is now a very inconſiderable village, near the mouth of the Xanthus, between the Gulphs of Macri and Satalia.

Sataiia, the ancient Attalia, is called by the Turks Sataliah. It was formerly an important city in Pamphilia, at the bottom of the gulph of its name, in 36 deg. 45 min. north latitude, and 31 deg. 20 min. eaſt longitude. It is the ſtrongeſt place the Turks have upon this coaſt. The harbour would be commodious, if the entrance was not difficult and dangerous. It is one of the moſt ſingular places in the univerſe, being divided into three diſtinct towns, each of which is ſeparated from the others by its own ſtrong walls; and the gates are ſhut up preciſely at noon every Friday till one o'clock, from a pretended prophecy, that on ſuch an hour the Chriſtians are to ſurprize it. The whole is about ſix miles in circumference. The buildings are good, the place populous, and the trade conſiderable. The ſummers are ſo hot, that thoſe who can afford it retire towards the mountains, where there is more air and ſhade. The caſtle, which commands the place, is a very good one. The Chriſtians had formerly a fine church in one of the towns, but it is at preſent converted into a Turkiſh moſque. The neighbouring country is very fertile and delightful, being covered with citron and orange groves, which afford an exquiſite fragrancy.

Sagalaſſus, though anciently a tolerable town, does not at preſent merit the name of a village. The ſame may be ſaid of Antiochia Piſidiæ, or Cæſarea, which ſtands at the foot of mount Taurus, and was once the metropolis of the province. Such are the viciſſitudes of ſublunary things!

Iconium, now Cogni, or Kogni, is the metropolis of the beglerbergate. It ſtands in the ancient Lycaonia, in a fertile pleaſant plain, near a fine large lake of freſh water, which was anciently called Paulus Trogilis. It is about 110 miles from the Mediterranean Sea. It is ſurrounded by ſtrong walls, adorned with towers, and a broad ditch. The Turks only inhabit the city. The Greeks, Armenians, and Jews, inhabit the ſuburbs, which are ſpacious. The city is commanded by a ſmall caſtle, and adorned with ſeveral moſques, a ſeraglio, and ſome ſpacious caravanſeras, for the accommodation of the caravans and travellers which paſs through the town. The mutton here is exquiſite, the wool of the ſheep admirable, and their tails ſo large, that ſledges are faſtened to the animal, upon which they are drawn.

Tarſus, the birth-place of the great apoſtle Paul, was anciently the capital of Cilicia, and one of the beſt towns of the Leſſer Aſia, but at preſent is quite decayed. It is ſituated on the Cydnus, about ſix miles from its mouth. The Turks call this town Tarſou, Tariſſu and Hom. If we may venture to judge by the ruins of the old wall, it appears to have been near twelve miles in circumference. At the mouth of the river is a good commodious harbour, and about a mile below the town is the lake Rhegma, through which the Cydnus runs.

Adam is a conſiderable town on the river Choquen, to the eaſtward of Tarſus, about 35 miles on the road to Aleppo, and about eighteen miles from the Mediterranean. This town contains a great number of beautiful fountains ſupplied with water by aqueducts, and over the river is a ſuperb bridge of 15 arches. The adjacent country is pleaſant, and the ſoil fertile.

Ajazzo, or Lajazzo, which was formerly called Iſſus, is ſituated on a gulph of the Mediterranean, to which it gives names. It was anciently a place of very great importance, and is at preſent a neat, ſtrong, opulent ſea-port town.

The following cities and towns, which were known to the antient, but of which the moderns have but very imperfect accounts, are now ſo reduced to poor, mean, little hamlets, or ſo totally ruined and deſerted, as not to merit any particular deſcription, viz. Azar, Ainzarba, Teleneſſus, Xanthus, Phefelis, Pigua, Olbia, Magidis, Side, Perga, Sitnum, Arpendus, Termeſſus, Olbaza, Lyſtra, &c.

The principal rivers in Caramania are the Xanthus, Lamus, Ceſtrus, Eurymedon, Cydnus, Sarus, or Smarus, Pyramus, Limyrus, Latamao, &c. Caramania contains

tains many celebrated mountains, moſt of which are branches of mount Taurus, viz. Olympus, of which name there are many mountains in Aſia; Cragus, the etymon of which Bochart derives from the Arabic word Crac, which ſignifies a rock, from whence, it is probable, the Engliſh word Crag originated; and Antigragus; all in Lycia. In Ciljcia the moſt remarkable is Amanus. The great chain, called mount Taurus, begins in Lycia, and runs eaſtward. But we muſt not, omit to mention the celebrated Lycian volcano mountain, called by the ancients Chimæra. Its bottom was infeſted with ſerpents, the middle parts afforded paſture for goats, and the top was infeſted by lions.

The Lycians built the city of Hepheſtiæ, near this mountain, in honour to Vulcan, on account of its volcano, which is mentioned by Virgil in the 6th book of his Æneid.

SECTION XV.

SYRIA.

General Deſcription of Syria, Diviſions, Subdiviſions, Situation, Extent, Climate, Soil, Fertility, Produce, Inhabitants, &c.

THIS country, in the moſt extenſive ſenſe, includes Syria properly ſo called, Phœnicia or Phenice, and Judea or Paleſtine. It extends from north to ſouth about 400 miles, and about 200 from eaſt to weſt, being bounded on the north by mount Amanus, and a branch of mount Taurus, which ſeparates it from Armenia Minor and Cilicia; on the eaſt by the Euphrates, which divides it from Meſopotamia or Diarbec; and on the weſt by Arabia the Deſert.

The principal mountains are Libanus, Anti-Libanus, Gilead, Tabor, Carmel, Caſſius, Amanus, and Alſadaurus, with ſome ſmaller in Judea, viz. Sion, Hermon, Ebal, Olivet, Calvary, Gerizzim, and Moriah. Of theſe mounts the Libanus and Anti-Libanus, which are ſituated in Cœlo-Syria, are of an aſtoniſhing height and extent.

'His proud head the airy mountain hides
'Among the clouds; his ſhoulders and his ſides
'A ſhady mantle cloaths; his curling brows
'Turn on the gentle ſtream which calmly flows;
'While winds and ſtorms his lofty forehead beat;
'The common fate of all that's high and great.'

Theſe mountains were formerly celebrated for their lofty cedars, which, at preſent are reduced to a very ſmall number: they are green all the year, and bear leaves reſembling thoſe of the juniper-tree, the ſmell of which is delightfully fragrant. The ſmaller ſpecies bear a kind of apple, as large as a pine-apple, but ſmoother, and of a browner colour: they contain a tranſparent balm, which falls from them by drops at certain ſeaſons. Theſe apples always grow in cluſters at the extremity of the branches. The incorruptibility of the cedar-tree is owing to the bitterneſs of the wood, which is ſo great that no worm will harbour in it.

The higheſt parts of theſe mountains, and thoſe of Amanus, are covered with ſnow the greateſt part of the year; and in ſome hollow places, whither the ſun-beams cannot penetrate, it remains undiſſolved the whole year. Many of the cavities abound with petrefactions which are exceedingly curious.

The rivers are the Euphrates, Jordan, Caſſimeer, Licomes, Chryſorrhoas, Orontes, Odonis, Cherſeus, with others leſs conſiderable, particularly the Coik, or river of Aleppo.

The Jordan receives its name from the brooks Jor and Dan, which form it by uniting their ſtreams. It formerly overflowed its banks, as both ſacred and profane writers inform us. It does not, however, do ſo at preſent, but flows with great regularity.

Syria is bleſſed with the moſt ſerene, temperate, and healthful air imaginable. During the hot months of June, July, and Auguſt, it is agreeably refreſhed by cooling breezes from the Mediterranean. The face of the country is delightful and level, and the ſoil rich and fertile. It abounds with not only all the neceſſaries of life, but with all the delicacies which can gratify the moſt luxurious appetite; and is ſuperior, in point of climate and produce, to all other countries that even lie under the ſame parallel of latitude.

'Here ſummer reigns with one eternal ſmile;
'Succeeding harveſts bleſs the happy ſoil:
'Fair fertile fields, to whom indulgent heav'n
'Has ev'ry charm of ev'ry ſeaſon giv'n.
'No killing cold deforms the beauteous year,
'The ſpringing flowers no coming winter fear
'But as the parent roſe decays and dies,
'The infant buds with brighter colours riſe,
'And with their ſweets the mother's ſcent ſupplies.
'Near them the violet grows with odours bleſt,
'And blooms in more than Tyrian purple dreſt.
'The rich jonquils their golden beams diſplay,
'And ſhine in glories emulating day.
'The peaceful groves their verdant leaves retain,
'The ſtreams ſtill murmur, undefil'd by rain,
'And tow'ring greens adorn the fruitful plain.
'The warbling kind uninterrupted ſing,
'Warm'd with enjoyment of perpetual ſpring.'

LADY M. W. MONTAGUE.

This charming country produces ſpontaneouſly a ſuperabundance of all that is neceſſary for the profit or delight of man, for the indolent Turks are too lazy to cultivate it. The only people who take the leaſt pains with the ſoil are the Armenians and Franks, who are ſettled in the country. From what has been ſaid, it may naturally be inferred, that the inhabitants are plentifully ſupplied with corn, wine, oil, figs, lemons, oranges, melons, canes, dates, cotton, honey, aromatic and medicinal herbs, &c. They likewiſe breed great numbers of buffaloes and other oxen, camels, dromedaries, ſwine, deer of all ſorts, hares, rabbits, and other game. They have a breed of goats whoſe hair is long, and of a colour exceedingly beautiful. The ſheep are ſome of the beſt in the univerſe: their wool is exceeding fine; and their tails are ſo large, that, to prevent their receiving any injury from trailing in the dirt, they are placed upon ſledges, as in ſome other parts of Aſia. Beſides a variety of excellent fiſh, this country abounds in wild fowl, ſuch as partridges, quails, pheaſants, turtle-doves, &c. The plains are ſo tender, fat, and humid, that the ſoil is turned up with wooden coulters. In ſhort, though Syria contains ſome rocky mountains, it would be the fineſt and moſt deſirable country in the univerſe, was it not under ſuch a deſpotic government; but the Turkiſh tyranny is ſuch, that it prevents the inhabitants from ever taſting the ſweets of that moſt eſſential neceſſary to human happineſs, viz. LIBERTY.

'O Liberty, thou goddeſs heav'nly bright,
'Profuſe of bliſs, and pregnant with delight,
'Eternal pleaſures in thy preſence reign,
'And ſmiling plenty leads thy wanton train.
'Eas'd of her load, ſubjection grows more light;
'And poverty looks chearful in thy ſight.
'Thou mak'ſt the gloomy face of nature gay;
'Giv'ſt beauty to the ſun, and ſplendor to the day.'

Beſides Mahometans and Jews, many Chriſtians of different ſects inhabit Syria, viz. Greeks, Latins, Armenians, Malchites, Maronites, and Jacobites.

The Armenians differ but little from the Greeks, and have a patriarch, whoſe place of reſidence is Damaſcus. The Maronites of mount Libanus hold ſome of the Greek, and ſome of the Eutychiac tenets. They give the ſacrament in both kinds, and uſe the Syriac liturgy. Their patriarch is always ſtiled Peter, and

looked upon as the only true ſucceſſor of that apoſtle.

The Jews are here the principal brokers in the mercantile, and their wives the chief agents in the intriguing way; for, under the pretence of vending jewels, laces, perfumes, coſmetics, &c. they get admittance not only into the houſes, but harams of the Turks, and can ſlip a billet-deux, eluding at the ſame time the penetrating eye of Aſiatic ſuſpicion, with as much dexterity as a Neapolitan valet can deceive a jealous Italian huſband.

The language ſpoken by the Syrians is a corrupt kind of Arabic or Moreſco. But moſt of the inhabitants of the trading or maritime towns uſe the Lingua-Franca.

Each of the grand diviſions of Syria, viz. Syria Proper, Cœlo-Syria, Phœnicia, and Paleſtine, is governed by a beglerberg, ſubordinate to whom are many ſangiacs, zaims, timars, cadies, &c.

SECTION XVI.

SYRIA PROPER.

SYRIA Proper is bounded on the ſouth by the Deſerts of Arabia and Phœnicia, on the north by Armenia Minor, on the eaſt by Meſopotamia, and on the weſt by the Mediterranean. Syria Proper had anciently three ſubdiviſions, viz. Cœlo-Syria, or Syria the Hollow; Syria-Antiochene, or Seleucis; and Syria Comagene.

The principal places in that ſubdiviſion, called Comagene, are

Samoſata, which the Turks now call Scempſal, and was once the capital of Comagene, but at preſent is only a wretched village, ſurrounded by heaps of ruins. It ſtands on the Euphrates, on the confines of Armenia Major, 22 miles from Ediſſa. The celebrated ſatirical poet Lucian was born here.

Dolica, called by the Turks Doliche, once an epiſcopal ſee, but at preſent a mean ill-built town, thinly peopled, and of little conſideration. It is ſituated on the river Marſyas, which diſembogues itſelf into the Euphrates.

Nothing now remains but the names, and a little rubbiſh of the ancient cities of Germanica, Singia, Antiochia-ad-Tauram, Catamana, Deba, Chaomia, and Chelinadura.

In that ſubdiviſion of Syria called Seleucis, or Antiochene, which is bounded on the north by Comagene, on the ſouth by Cœlo-Syria and Phœnicia, on the weſt by the Mediterranean, and on the eaſt by Meſopotamia, the principal places are,

Scanderoon, which was anciently called Alexandretta, or Little Alexandria, to diſtinguiſh it from Alexandria in Egypt. It lies in 36 deg. 34 min. north latitude, and 46 deg. 40 min. eaſt long. at the diſtance of about 60 miles to the weſtward of Aleppo, to which it is the port town, and ſtands near the ſea on the Gulph of Ajazzo; but its marſhy ſituation renders the town ſo unhealthy, that it only contains, at preſent, a confuſed and ſtraggling heap of mean wretched houſes, built of wood, or huts formed of the boughs of trees, interwoven and covered with mud, inhabited principally by Greeks, who accommodate common travellers and ſailors that reſort hither; as people of a ſuperior rank uſually lodge with the conſuls of their reſpective nations, who have handſome houſes at a conſiderable diſtance from the town. During the hot months the natives themſelves retire to a village called Beylan, which is ſituated on a high hill, at about two leagues diſtance, and abounds in excellent water, and admirable fruits. If ſtrangers happen to arrive during this ſultry ſeaſon, they ſeldom eſcape with their lives. The above-mentioned mountain yields a thoroughfare to the north-eaſt wind by means of an opening; and whenever it blows hard, the ſhips in the harbour all put to ſea with the utmoſt expedition, to avoid being daſhed to pieces.

Some aſſert that this city was built by Alexander the Great, in commemoration of a victory obtained over Darius in its vicinity. It is defended only by an old decayed caſtle, and a few ſoldiers, under the command of the governor. But we muſt not omit to mention this ſingular circumſtance, that the correſpondence between Scanderoon and Aleppo, was formerly carried on by means of pidgeons, that were taught to fly backwards and forwards with letters faſtened about their necks. This cuſtom, however, has been long ſince diſcontinued. The adjacent country is, in general, level, rich, and fertile.

About twenty-two miles from Scanderoon is the ancient city of Antioch, or at leaſt its remains. It was formerly the capital of all Syria, and one of the moſt noble metropolitan cities in the univerſe, but is at preſent reduced to a poor mean hamlet, containing only a few ſcattered houſes. It is ſituated on a fine plain of 18 miles in extent, on the river Haſi, or Orante. The Turks call it Antackia. The vaſt number of plantain, poplars, ſycamores, fruit-trees, &c. in the gardens of the town, make it look like a foreſt at a diſtance. It has a caſtle which commands the town and river, and ſome conſiderable remains of ancient temples, walls, churches, &c. together with an extenſive canal. The diſciples of Chriſt firſt obtained the name of Chriſtians in this city. St. Paul and St. Barnabas preached a twelvemonth in this place. St. Luke the Evangeliſt, and St. Ignatius the martyr, were born here.

Selucia, or Selucia Piera, which latter denomination was given to diſtinguiſh it from another town of the ſame name on the Tigris, was anciently a conſiderable ſea-port town, though at preſent but a trifling village, ſituated on the Mediterranean, at the mouth of the Orontes, about 60 miles from Scanderoon. The Franks call it the port of St. Simeon: but its Turkiſh name is Seluki-Jelber.

Tertaſo, which was formerly called Orthoſia, was once a famous ſea-port, and an epiſcopal ſee; but at preſent it is a very inconſiderable place, and inhabited only by poor fiſhermen.

Latakia, or Ladhikiya, the ancient Laodicea, was founded by Seleucus Nicanor, or the Victorious, and called by him after his ſiſter's name. It is the moſt northern city of Syria, ſituated upon a riſing ground, with a full proſpect of the ſea, in 35 deg. 30 min. north latitude. It is a conſiderable maritime town.

This city contains many antique remains, particularly ſeveral rows of columns of granite and porphyry, with part of an aqueduct, which Joſephus affirms was built by king Herod. The ſtructure is ſpacious, but not arched. Here is a moſque formed of a magnificent ancient triumphal arch, ſupported by Corinthian pillars: the architrave is embelliſhed with a variety of warlike trophies. Many Greek and Latin inſcriptions are found among the ruins, but they are in general ſo much defaced, as to be unintelligible. To the weſt of the city are the remains of a harbour, big enough to hold the largeſt navy in the univerſe. The mouth, which is about forty feet wide, is defended by a caſtle; and the whole is in an amphitheatrical form. It is ſo choaked up at preſent, as to admit only of a few ſmall veſſels.

The remarkable catacombs which are a little to the northward of the city, excite the attention of travellers. They contain large ſtone coffins, embelliſhed with emblematic figures, ſhells, &c. The covers of ſome are ſupported by pilaſters, generally of the Corinthian, but ſometimes of the Ionic order. Theſe coffins ars depoſited in cells on the ſide of a number of chambers hollowed deep into the rock, being each from ten to thirty feet ſquare. The moſt reſpected of the ſepulchral chambers is that called St. Teckla, which is dedicated to that firſt virgin martyr. In the midſt is a ſpring, to which many miraculous effects have been aſcribed.

The

The whole of the adjacent country is extremely romantic, from the intermixture of rocks, woods, ſepulchres, plains, grottos, fountains, caſcades, &c. A few miles from the place called the Serpent Fountain are the ſpindles, or maguzzels, a name which is given to ſeveral painted cylindrical buildings, that are erected over a number of ſepulchres.

The ruins of the ancient city of Arka are delightfully ſituated oppoſite the northern extremity of mount Libanus. To the eaſtward a romantic chain of mountains appear. A fine extenſive plain, interſperſed with caſtles, villages, ponds, rivers, &c. open to the north, and the ſea is ſeen to the weſt. The city was erected on the ſummit of a hill of a conical form, which appears to have been a work of art. A fine ſtream waters the valley below the city. Nevertheleſs, the inhabitants were ſupplied with water from mount Libanus, by means of a magnificent aqueduct.

SECTION XVII.

COELO-SYRIA.

THIS diviſion of Syria comprehends the following places: Apamea, founded by Seleucas Nicanor, and ſo named in honour of his mother, as Antioch was after his father, Laodicea after his ſiſter, and Seleucia from himſelf. It is greatly fallen from its former ſplendor, but ſtill remains a conſiderable town, ſtanding on a ſpot of ground which is almoſt ſurrounded by a lake formed by the river Orontes, about ſixty miles to the ſouthward of Aleppo; ſo that it has no communication with the land, but by an iſthmus or ſmall neck. The Turks and Greeks call it Hama. It is the reſidence of a beglerberg, whoſe government is very extenſive. The adjacent territory is exceedingly rich and fertile. The city is well watered, retains many marks of its ancient magnificence, and was very early an epiſcopal ſee. It lies in 35 deg. 6 min. north latitude, and 37 deg. 18 min. eaſt longitude. Near this city Seleucus conſtantly fed 500 large elephants.

Between Antioch and Tortoſa, near mount Liſa, there is a little mean village called Margat, which was anciently a conſiderable place, named Marathos.

Emeſa, Emiſſa, or Emiſa, is ſituated between Apamea and Laodicea, on the river Orontes. The mad emperor Heliogabalus was born here, and on that account took the whim into his head to be made one of the prieſts of its temple. The Turks at preſent call it Haman, or Aman. It is under the juriſdiction of the beglerberg of Damaſcus, who governs it by means of a deputy. It ſtill makes a conſiderable figure, notwithſtanding what it has ſuffered by earthquakes, and the various changes it has undergone. It is ſurrounded by good ſtone walls, with ſix ſuperb gates, and ſeveral magnificent towers at proper diſtances. The walls are environed by a ſpacious ditch; and on an eminence there is a caſtle, which commands and defends the town. Here are ſome fine churches, the greateſt part of which are converted into moſques. The cathedral is a magnificent ſtructure, ſupported by 34 marble columns, adorned with baſſo-relievos and Greek inſcriptions. The Chriſtians are permitted to pray in it at certain times; beſides which they have ſome churches appropriated entirely to their own uſe. The bezars, kans, caravanſeras, &c. are, in general, very handſome ſtructures. The inhabitants trade in ſilks, and a fine kind of needle work of ſilk, gold, and ſilver, curiouſly intermingled together. The adjacent country is very rich and fertile, and the gardens in the environs exceedingly delightful, abounding in a great variety of excellent plants, and delicious fruits. In all the gardens innumerable mulberry-trees are planted in regular rows, and well watered, as the demand for mulberry leaves to feed their ſilk worms is very great.

Aleppo, the fineſt and moſt opulent city in all Syria, lies in 36 deg. 30 min. north latitude, and 37 deg. 50 min. eaſt longitude, about ſixty miles to the eaſtward of Scanderoon. It is built on eight eminences or hills, one of which in the center of the city is higher than the reſt, and on its top there is a ſtrong caſtle.

Aleppo, including the ſuburbs, is about ſeven miles in circumference. In extent, riches, and population, it is inferior to Conſtantinople and Grand Cairo, but exceeds them both in the elegance of its buildings. The ſurrounding wall is old and decayed, and the ditch converted into gardens. The houſes are of ſtone, built in a quadrangular form, conſiſting of a ground floor and an attic ſtory: the roofs are flat, and either ſpread with plaiſter or paved with ſtone: the ceilings, pannels, doors, windows, &c. are neatly gilded and painted, and adorned with inſcriptions from the Koran, or the beſt Aſiatic poets: ſo that their very embelliſhments are ſubſervient to the purpoſes of morality, and their chambers are rendered tacit adviſers to prudence and precaution. Of theſe inſcriptions the following ſpecimens may be entertaining to the reader.

The Mahometans are exceedingly fond of the two following paſſages from the Koran or Alcoran, which are therefore frequently found about their rooms written in letters of gold.

The firſt, which is deemed one of the beſt adages in the Koran, is, "Forgive eaſily, do good to all, and diſpute not with the ignorant." The other, which relates to the Almighty's ſtopping the deluge, is, "Earth ſwallow down thy waters, ſky drink up thoſe thou haſt poured forth. The waters were immediately gone; the commands of God were executed. The ark reſted on the mountain, and theſe words were heard, "*Woe to the wicked.*"

We ſhall add the following ſix inſcriptions from the Koran, as they are conciſe and ſignificant, and frequently uſed:

'Four things ſhould never flatter us; the familiarity 'of princes, the careſſes of women, the ſmiles of our 'enemies, nor a warm day in winter; for none of 'theſe are of long duration.'

'One pound of food is ſufficient in one day to ſup- 'port you; if you eat more it is a load, and you muſt 'ſupport in your turn *that*.'

'We are the bow, and ſhoot but in the dark:
'Tis God directs the arrow to its mark.'

'He that wiſhes to content his deſires by the poſſeſ- 'ſion of what he wiſhes for, is like him who endea- 'vours to put out fire with ſtraw.'

'To obtain knowledge you muſt have
'The vigilance of a crow, the greedineſs of a hog,
'The careſſes of a cat, and the patience of a dog.'

'I have cleaned my mirror, and fixing my eyes on 'it, I perceived ſo many defects in myſelf, that I eaſi- 'ly forget thoſe of others.'

But to return to our deſcription of Aleppo: the ſtreets have a dull appearance on account of being ſhielded from the view by dead walls. If palliſadoes were uſed inſtead of walls, it would render the ſtreets admirable pleaſant, as the court yards are all prettily paved, and have a fountain in the center environed with a little verdure.

The beſt houſes have uſually on the ground floor a hall covered with a dome, with a fountain in the middle to cool it. Among the numerous moſques of this city ſome are very magnificent and agreeable. There is a fountain of ablution, and ſometimes a little garden in the area of each. In every garden you are ſure to find cypreſs. The khans are ſpacious and elegant, but the ſhops are ſmall. The buyer ſtands always without, none being admitted within a ſhop but the maſter and his clerk. They uſually ſhut them about an hour and a half after ſun-ſet. There is great ſingularity to be obſerved in the houſes of Aleppo; the doors are ſtrongly caſed with iron, but the locks are only ſlightly made of wood.

The ſtreets, though narrow, are extremely clean, and always well paved. All offenſive manufactures and diſagreeable trades are confined to the ſuburbs; in which, among others, there is a glaſs manufactory.

Every

Every houſe has a well, but the waters being brackiſh, are not uſed in dreſſing proviſions, or to drink; the water for theſe purpoſes being brought from ſome fine ſprings by means of an aqueduct, and properly diſtributed by ſome communicating pipes.

The houſe fuel is wood and charcoal; but the bagnios are heated with dung, the parings of fruit, &c. the gathering of which gives employment to many poor people.

Aleppo is ſituated in a vaſt plain. The environs of the city are ſtony and uneven; but, at a few miles diſtant, the circumadjacent country is level and fertile. Nevertheleſs, the whole has the name of the deſert. The weſtern part of the city is waſhed by a ſtream called Coic, which, with the wells in the city, and the water brought by the aqueduct, is all the water that is to be found for the ſpace of thirty miles round. The neighbouring villages have none but rain water, which they ſave in large ciſterns.

The air is ſo pure and free from damps, that the inhabitants ſleep on the houſe-tops without the leaſt inconvenience. The only winter is from December 12 to January 20; but even then the ſun has great power in the middle of the day. The ſnow never lies more than a day upon the ground; and the ice is ſeldom or ever ſtrong enough to bear the weight of a man. From May to the middle of December, the air is exceſſive hot: but the moſt malignant heat continues only about five days, during which the inhabitants keep within doors as much as poſſible, and defend themſelves from the pernicious winds by ſhutting cloſe their windows and doors. The harveſt commences in the beginning of May, and uſually laſts about twenty days. The horſes are fed with barley, as oats do not grow nearer than Antioch. Near the city, but more particularly in the neighbouring country, from Shogre to Letachia, are a great number of tobacco plantations, a conſiderable trade being carried on in that article with Egypt. The adjacent country yields a few olives, red and white grapes, and ſeveral kinds of fruit, which are but indifferent. At ſome diſtance from the city a ſpecies of fuller's earth is found, which is an excellent ſubſtitute for ſoap. Black cattle are ſcarce: the larger ſort are kept for labour, the ſmaller have ſhort horns, and the buffaloes are valued on account of their milk. It is to be obſerved, that the Turks and Jews ſeldom or ever eat beef, their favourite food being mutton, of which they have plenty at Aleppo. There are two ſorts of ſheep, the one much like the Engliſh ſheep, and the other of the ſpecies with large tails, which they drag after them on ſledges, as already mentioned. The goats have long ears, and give excellent milk, which is ſold about the ſtreets from April to September.

The butter and cheeſe are made either from the milk of cows, buffaloes, ſheep, or goats. The people are very fond of *leban*, or coagulated milk. Here are plenty of hares and antelopes: the latter are of two ſorts, viz. the antelope of the mountain, and the antelope of the plain: the former is the moſt beautiful, the back and neck being of a dark brown; the latter, though its colour is brighter, is neither ſo ſwift or ſo well made. Tame rabbits are kept in the city, and ſome few wild ſtags are found in the country, as well as porcupines. The Franks of the Romiſh perſuaſion often eat land turtles and frogs. The camels of this country are good and ſerviceable, but the horſes are very indifferent. Hyænas are found among the rocks, which ſeldom attack the human race, but commit great ravages among the flocks, and even plunder the ſepulchres. In the city of Aleppo are vaſt numbers of dogs; and the environs are infeſted with wolves. Serpents are innumerable, particularly a white ſnake, which is found in houſes, but whoſe bite is not venomous. The ſcolopendra and ſcorpion often ſting the natives, but a few hours pain is the only conſequence. Beſides the above, here are locuſts, lizards, bees, ſilk-worms, all kinds of fowls, &c.

Hawking and hunting are favourite amuſements. The ſportſmen have a very beatiful ſpecies of the greyhound. Shooting is exerciſed only for a ſubſiſtance.

Aleppo, by computation, is inhabited by 200,000 Turks, 30,000 Chriſtians, and 5000 Jews. The Chriſtians are Greeks, Armenians, Syrians, and Maronites. They have each a church in the ſuburb Judidæ, where they all reſide. The common language is vulgar Arabic. The better ſort of Turks ſpeak the Turkiſh; the Jews ſpeak Hebrew; the Armenians their native tongue; and ſome of the Syrians underſtand the Syriac; but the Greeks no little or nothing of either the ancient or modern Greek language.

In general, the people are well made, of a middle ſtature, inclining to lean, but inactive and languid. The citizens are uſually fair; but the peaſants who are expoſed to the ſun, ſwarthy. Both have black hair, and black eyes. They are tolerably handſome when young, but ſeem to appear old by thirty. The females marry about the age of fourteen. It is very ſingular that the men gird themſelves very tight about the waiſt in order to make themſelves look ſlender, and the women do all they can to render themſelves plump, as they deem a ſlender waiſt a great deformity.

The people in general are polite, but guilty of diſſimulation, and affectedly grave. They often quarrel, but never fight. The coffee-houſes are frequented only by the vulgar. The amuſements within doors are cheſs, backgammon, drafts, and the game of the ring, which only conſiſts of gueſſing under what coffee-cup the ring is put: the winner blacks the face of the loſer, and puts a fool's cap on his head. Though Chriſtians are fond of playing for money, the Turks only play for amuſement, or ſometimes for a feaſt to entertain their friends. Dancing is deſpiſed, and only practiſed by buffoons, who, as well as wreſtlers, are attendants at all entertainments.

The common bread is made of wheat, badly fermented, and badly baked. People of faſhion have, however, a better ſort. Beſides theſe they have biſcuits and ruſks ſtrewed with fennel flower.

Thoſe who pay viſits are entertained with a pipe of tobacco, wet ſweetmeats, and coffee, without ſugar or milk. When particular reſpect is intended, ſherbet and a ſprinkling of roſe-water are added. But as ſoon as the hoſt begins to wiſh his viſitor gone, the wood of aloes is produced, which implies, that the viſit has been ſufficiently long. Men and women here ſmoke to exceſs. The tube of the pipe is made of the wood of the roſe-tree, but the bowl is of clay. Opium is in little eſteem at Aleppo; and thoſe who take it to exceſs are looked upon as debauchees. Here are no coaches; the better ſort of people ride on horſeback, with a number of ſervants on foot parading before them. Women of rank are carried in litters, and the lower claſs in covered cradles on mules.

They go to bed early, and ſleep in the principal part of their cloaths. Their bed conſiſts of a mattraſs, and over it a ſheet, in ſummer; and a carpet, with a ſheet ſewed to it, in winter. The men are either lulled to reſt by muſic, ſmoke themſelves to ſleep, or talked to ſleep by their women, who are taught to tell innumerable ſtories for that purpoſe. The people are, in general, groſsly ignorant; few even of the better ſort can read. The clergy are not only divines, but lawyers and phyſicians. They have many colleges, but little or nothing is taught in them. The government does not permit of the practice of anatomy; their phyſicians and ſurgeons, therefore, can know but little of the ſtructure of the human body.

The old men colour their beards black to conceal their age; and the old women dye their hair red with henna, to render it graceful. They likewiſe dye their hands and feet with the forms of roſes and other flowers, which appears very diſagreeable to an European. The women in the villages, and all the Chinganas and Arabs, wear gold or ſilver rings through their right noſtrils. The Turks breakfaſt on honey, Leban cheeſe, fried eggs, &c. They dine about eleven o'clock. They

uſe a table here, which is round as well as the diſhes: both are made of copper tinned, or ſilver. The table is placed upon a ſtool about fourteen inches high, beneath which a piece of red cloth is ſpread, to prevent the divan from being ſpoiled. There is no table cloth, but their knees are covered with long ſilk napkins. The diſhes are placed in the middle of the table, being brought in one by one, and changed as ſoon as every one has taſted a little. The leban in baſons; bread, ſallads, pickles, ſpoons, &c. are diſpoſed in order round the edges. The ſpoons are made of wood, horn, tortoiſeſhell, &c. They uſe neither knives or forks. The firſt diſh is broth, and the laſt pilaw. The intermediate diſhes are mutton roaſted and ſtewed with herbs, and cut to pieces; ſtewed pigeons, fowls, &c. ſtuffed with rice and ſpices; but the moſt favourite diſh is a whole lamb ſtuffed with rice, almonds, raiſins, piſtachios, &c. They have likewiſe a deſert of ſweet ſtarch, and a thin ſyrup with it, with currants, raiſins, dried apricots, ſlices of pears, piſtachios, apples, &c. ſwimming in it, of which each eats a ſpoonful, and then the repaſt is concluded.

They drink water at meals, and coffee after dinner: ſup about five in the winter, and ſix in the ſummer. The licentious drink wine and ſpirits publicly, but the hypocritical part of the people in private; and when they once begin they generally drink to exceſs.

They have a few black ſlaves in Aleppo, which are brought from Ethiopia by way of Cairo, but the ſlaves are, in general, white, being Georgians. Criminals are here hanged, impaled or beheaded, at the option of the judge; but the janiſſaries are ſtrangled by a cord twiſted twice round the neck, and drawn tight with a piece of ſtick.

The Chriſtians of Aleppo eat much in the ſame manner as the Turks, only the latter uſe oil, and the former butter.

There is but little difference in the cuſtoms and ceremonies of the Greek, Syrian, Armenian, and Maronite Chriſtians. A Maronite nuptial ceremony is thus conducted: the bridegroom's relations are invited to the houſe of the bride to an entertainment: after ſupper they return to the bridegroom's houſe, who has not hitherto appeared: for he is obliged to hide himſelf, and not to be found without a pretended ſearch. At length he is brought out in his worſt cloaths, but ſoon after the bridemen conduct him to a chamber, which contains the wedding garments, where he is left to dreſs himſelf. About midnight the company, preceded by a band of muſic, and each carrying a lighted candle, go to the bride's houſe and demand her. Admittance is refuſed, and a mock fight enſues. The bride is taken priſoner, and, being cloſely veiled, is conducted to the bridegroom's houſe. The night is ſpent in feaſting and mirth; but the bride muſt not ſpeak the whole time. The biſhop, or prieſt, comes the next morning to perform the ceremony, in which he puts crowns on their heads, and joins the hands of the bride and bridegroom, who each have a ring to put on the finger. A few ridiculous, unintereſting and riotous ceremonies enſue; and the bridegroom is not left to himſelf till twelve o'clock at night, when he is permitted to retire to the bride. All the bride's female acquaintance ſend flowers to her as preſents for ſome days after her marriage; but ſhe is not allowed to ſpeak for the ſpace of a month, even to her huſband.

The Franks here are principally French and Engliſh. The Engliſh have a conſul, chaplain, chancellor, and chiau. The French have their conſul, drugumen, and other officers, and are more numerous than the Engliſh. No Dutchman reſides here except the conſul. A few Venetian merchants, and Italian Jews, are, however, ſettled in the place.

The plague is the moſt dreadful thing at Aleppo: it begins to rage in June, and decreaſes in July; and uſually viſits the inhabitants every ten years, when it commits vaſt devaſtations. To avoid the infection the following circumſtances are to be obſerved. Never go abroad faſting: drink plentifully of acids: live regularly, but not abſtemiouſly: avoid exceſs and paſſion: breathe through a handkerchief, or ſponge, wetted with vinegar, or an infuſion of rue: ſwallow not the ſpittle: waſh your mouth, face, and hands, often with vinegar: air your cloaths well, change them often; and fmoak them with ſulphur.

SECTION XVIII.

PHOENICIA, OR PHENICE.

PHŒNICIA, taken in its largeſt extent, is bounded by the Mediterranean on the weſt, by Cœlo-Syria and Batanea on the eaſt, by Paleſtine on the ſouth, and Syria Proper on the north.

In ancient times this country made a very conſiderable figure in hiſtory, on account of the ingenuity of its inhabitants, its manufactures, commerce, colonies, &c. To the Phœnicians are attributed the invention of letters, the art of navigation, glaſs-making, &c.

This country is a narrow ſlip of land, running along the ſea-coaſt from north to ſouth. Anciently it was divided into Syro-Phœnicia, and Maritime Phœnicia, and contained many fine cities and ſea-ports. In the ſacred writings it is diſtinguiſhed by the name of Canaan. The principal places are,

Tripoli, or Tripoli of Syria, ſo called to diſtinguiſh it from other places of the ſame name. It ſtands in the Levant Sea, in 34 deg. 30 min. north latitude, and 36 deg. 15 min. eaſt longitude, at the foot of mount Libanus. It had its name from its forming three cities, each of them a ſtade's diſtance from the other; one of which belonged to the Arabians, another to the Sidonians, and a third to the Tyrians. All, however, are at preſent united, and it is ſtill a flouriſhing city, being divided into what is called Upper and Lower Town. It is extenſive, ſtrong, populous, and opulent, adorned with fine gardens and orchards, plantations of mulberry-trees, &c. The walls are ſtrong, and fortified with ſeven towers. The caſtle is the reſidence of the beglerberg, and garriſoned by 200 janiſſaries. It is a ſtrong fortreſs, ſituated on an eminence, and well ſtored with cannon. On account of its importance, it is deemed the metropolis of Phœnicia. The city is commodious, and watered by a little river. The harbour is very open, but is rather defended by two ſmall iſlands at about two leagues from it. There are ſix ſquare towers or caſtles along the ſhore, well fortified with artillery. The town contains 8000 houſes, and 60,000 inhabitants, who conſiſt of Turks, Jews, and Chriſtians. The river has a good ſtone bridge over it, and turns ſeveral mills. The gardens have all caſcades or fountains, and even the chambers have water conveyed to them. In the gardens the people ſpend moſt of their ſummer, being buſied in their ſilk-worm manufactory. The air is clear and healthy, the country rich and fertile, and the town plentifully ſupplied with all kinds of proviſions. Here is a large handſome moſque, which was once a Chriſtian church. The Jeſuits have a handſome college, and the Chriſtians in general ſome monaſteries and chapels.

Botrys, or Botrus, was once a conſiderable place, but is now a poor village inhabited by fiſhermen, ſtanding on the coaſt to the ſouth of Tripoli, and called by the Turks Patron, or Elpatron.

Byblus, or Byblos, formerly a fine city, but now a mean village, denominated Gebail, is ſituated on the coaſt, about 20 miles ſouth of Tripoli. The river Adonis, deſcending from mount Libanus, runs through the town. This river is ſubject to ſwell to an immoderate degree by the melting of ſnow, or falling of rains; and at certain times the waters appear bloody, which the ſuperſtitious inhabitants uſed to impute to the death of Adonis, who is thus alluded to in ſcripture, under the name of Tammus, or Thammus, Ezekiel viii. 14, "Then he brought me to the door of the gate of the Lord's

Lord's houſe, which was towards the north, and behold there ſat women weeping for Tammuz."

The natural cauſe of this pretended bloodineſs is only a kind of minium or red earth, which is brought away by the waters when they ſwell to an unuſual height, and give the river a crimſon tinge.

The poetical fable of Adonis is, that having neglected the good advice given him by Venus, relative to hunting, he was devoured by a wild boar, and afterwards transformed by that goddeſs into the flower called *anemonie*.

In this town there is a deputy governor, ſubordinate to the beglerberg of Syria, and a ſmall garriſon. There is, however, but little trade, the harbour being almoſt choaked up.

Berytus was once a flouriſhing city, but is now upon the decline. The ſtreets are narrow, dirty, and dark. It is, however, a trading place, and a ſtage for the caravans that go to Grand Cairo. It is ſituated on the ſea-coaſt, in a country that is fertile and delightful, about forty miles from Tripoli. About the town ſome ſtately ruins are viſible, particularly of the palace and gardens of Taccardine, the fourth emer or prince of the old Druſians; and of an old amphitheatre, ſuppoſed to have been built by Agrippa. The trade conſiſts of fine tapeſtry, camblets, ſilks, cinnamon, nutmegs, ginger, caſſia, pepper, rhubarb, cochineal, &c. Along the coaſt mulberry and other trees, gourds, colocynth, &c. abound.

Serepta, Serphant, or Serphanda, a city anciently celebrated for the abode which the prophet Elias made in it with a poor widow, is at preſent but an indifferent village, about a mile from the ſea, and ſituated on a hill.

Sidon, or Sayd, as the Turks call it, a city celebrated both in ſacred and prophane hiſtory, more particularly for its extenſive trade, is now a ſmall town, and contains about 6000 inhabitants. Here are many moſques, two kans, a public bagnio, and a fine ſquare building, called the cotton market. The exports conſiſt of Turkey leather, piſtachios, ſenna, buffalo ſkins, cotton, blue ſilks, rice, ſoap from Egypt, aſhes, oil, raiſins, &c. There are the ruins of a fine port on the north ſide of the town. The city is governed by a baſhaw, and an aga, who has under his command about 3000 ſoldiers, quartered in the caſtle and the town. The harbour is large, but not ſafe, on which account the ſhips ride at anchor about a mile from the town, under a ridge of rocks. The gardens in the ſuburbs contain groves of mulberry, olive, tamarind, ſycamore, and other trees. The French conſul reſides in a very pleaſant houſe near the before-mentioned rocks where the ſhips lie at anchor. The city, it is ſaid, had its name from the eldeſt ſon of Canaan.

Tyre, Tyrus, or Sor, at it was anciently called, was ſituated upon a rock, which its name implies. It was uſually named the daughter of Sidon, being about two hundred furlongs diſtant from that city. Tyre had two havens, one towards Sidon, and the other towards Egypt, and was divided into three cities, viz. Palæ-Tyre, that is, Tyre on the Continent, or Old Tyre; Tyre on the iſland; and Tyre on the Peninſula. The houſes of the city were very lofty, which was owing to the ſcarcity of ground. The buildings in general were magnificent, particularly the ſuperb temple erected by its king Hiram, and dedicated to Jupiter, Hercules, and Aſtarte; the walls of which were 150 feet high, proportionably broad, firmly built of huge blocks of ſtone, and cemented together with a ſtrong white mortar.

This once powerful city, the capital of Phœnicia, the emporium of commerce, and miſtreſs of the ſea, equally famed for its trade, beauty, and opulence, and for many ages deemed impregnable, both from its almoſt inacceſſible ſituation, and the ſtrength of its fortifications made by art, is now a mere deſert. Its preſent inhabitants are only a few poor wretches who dwell in caverns, and ſubſiſt by fiſhing: ſuch is the completion of Ezekiel's prophecies concerning it, of which we ſhall tranſcribe the words: "Thus ſaid the LORD "God, behold I am againſt the, *O Tyrus*, and will "cauſe many nations to come up againſt thee, as the "ſea cauſeth his waves to come up, and they ſhall de-"ſtroy the walls of Tyrus, and break down her towers. "I will alſo ſcrape her duſt from her, and make her "like the top of a rock: it ſhall be a place for the "ſpreading of nets in the midſt of the ſea: for I have "ſpoken it, ſaith the Lord, and it ſhall become a ſpoil "to the nations." Ezek. chap. xxvi. 3, 4, and 5. It is uncertain what kings reigned before Abidale, or Abeimal, who was contemporary with, and an enemy to, king David. His ſon Hiram, who ſucceeded him 1012 years before Chriſt, ſeems, however, to have been of a different diſpoſition; for he not only maintained a ſtrict friendſhip and alliance with David, but ſent preſents of cedar, and ſkilful workmen, to the royal pſalmiſt: and on his demiſe tranſmitted to his ſon Solomon, by embaſſy, letters of condolence, which, with the anſwers, were extant in the time of Joſephus, as that admirable Jewiſh writer informs us. Hiram likewiſe not only furniſhed workmen and the principal materials for building the Temple of Solomon, but advanced 120 talents of gold to forward that great work. Tyre was beſieged thirteen years together by Nebuchadnezzar, who at length ſubdued it 572 years before Chriſt, when he put all the inhabitants he could find to the ſword, and deſtroyed the ancient Tyre. But many of the people had, in time, prudently retired with the chief of their effects, to an iſland at ſome diſtance from the ſhore, where they built New Tyre, or Tyre on the Iſland. The city, however, at length ſubmitted to Nebuchadnezzar, who appointed Baal ſubordinate king thereof, under his own ſupreme authority. In the reign of Azelmic, and 332 years before Chriſt, Tyre was beſieged by Alexander the Great, and taken by ſtorm, after holding out ſeven months. He put to death the greateſt part of the inhabitants, either during the capture, or afterwards in cold blood. Such are the horrors of inſatiate war!

'The wand'ring babes from mothers breaſts are rent,
'And ſuffer ills they neither fear'd nor meant.
'No ſilver reverence guards the ſtooping age,
'Nor rule, nor method, tie the boundleſs rage:
'Nothing but fire and ſlaughter meet the eyes,
'Nothing the ear but groans and diſmal cries.'

Alexander, after deſtroying the place, and murdering the inhabitants, was very ſorry for his raſhneſs; and, like other worthies of the ſame precipitate diſpoſition, who become wiſe too late, determined to repair one evil by committing another; in conſequence of which reſolution, he ſeized moſt of the artificers in the neighbouring countries, and having compelled them to rebuild the city, he obliged them to reſide in it, leſt he ſhould have a great city without any inhabitants. Such was the humanity and wiſdom of many of the great heroes of antiquity, who fought for fighting ſake, did injuries inſtead of redreſſing them, and quarrelled with every body to avoid being idle.

Having thus rebuilt and repeopled this ancient city, he thought proper to ſtile himſelf the founder of Tyre, in order, we ſuppoſe, to prevent the people from recollecting that he had been the deſtroyer of Tyre. The city recovered its beauty and opulence in time, became confederate with the Romans, and was inveſted with the privileges of a Roman city on account of its great fidelity. In the primitive times of Chriſtianity, it was made the metropolitan ſee for the province of Phœnicia. In 636 in was conquered by the Saracens, but in 1124 recovered by the Chriſtians. In 1280 it was finally ſubdued by the Turks, in whoſe hands it has continued ever ſince. Theſe infidels took it ſoon after the reduction of Acra, or Acre, where they committed ſuch unheard-of cruelties, that the Tyrians, terrified with the report thereof, betook themſelves to their ſhips at

midnight,

midnight, and abandoned the city to their fury. They entered it the next day, and reduced it to the deplorable ſituation of which the diſmal ruins are ſtill a monument. We muſt not omit to obſerve, that the Tyrians were particularly celebrated for dying purple, which was firſt found out by them from an accident, viz. a dog's lips being finely tinged by eating of the fiſh called conchilis. This fiſh is a buccinum, a name given by the ancients to all fiſhes whoſe ſhells bear any reſemblance to an hunting horn; and it appears from Pliny that the famed Tyrian purple was obtained from it. This dye was ſo much valued in the time of the Roman emperors, on account of its being the imperial colour, that one pound of it coſt a thouſand Roman denarii, or above thirty pounds ſterling.

Acca, or, as the Franks call it, Acra, or Acre, was anciently called Ace, or Accho, then Ptolemais, and afterwards St. John D'Acre, while it was in the poſſeſſion of the knights of St. John of Jeruſalem. It is about 28 miles from Tyre, in 32 deg. 55 min. north lat. and 35 deg. 47 min. eaſt. long. and on the Levant Sea; but is at this time a very inconſiderable place. It was for ſome time a ſubject of contention between the infidels and Chriſtians, during the cruſades, or holy wars. In the year 1191 Richard I. king of England, conquered it, and gave it to the before-mentioned knights, who held it 100 years with great bravery. The Turks, however, inveſted it with an army of 150,000 men, and took it May 19, 1291. Many of the inhabitants had previouſly retired to the iſland of Cyprus; thoſe who remained behind were maſſacred by the infidels, who razed the fortifications, deſtroyed its noble edifices, and reduced it to the moſt deplorable ſtate. The following ſingular circumſtance is recorded on this occaſion: a noble abbeſs, fearing that herſelf and her nuns might ſuffer violation from the brutality of the conquerors, propoſed to her flock to cut and mangle their faces, that by the deſtruction of their beauty they might preſerve their purity. To this ſhe not only excited them by words, but her own example, which they immediately imitated. The Turks, finding them ſuch ſpectacles of horror inſtead of the beauties they expected, cruelly put them to the ſword: thus fell theſe heroic ladies by the means they laudibly uſed to preſerve their chaſtity. It is proper to obſerve, that when the Danes invaded England, the abbeſs of Coldingham acted in the ſame manner: we may therefore ſuppoſe, from the ſimiliarity of the expedient, that the lady of Acre copied the example of the Engliſh lady.

It was in this city that Edward I. then prince of Wales, received a wound with a poiſoned arrow; but ſuch was the conjugal fidelity of his princeſs, that ſhe ſucked the poiſon from the wound, and by that means he was cured: ſuch is the force of real love.

There is in love a power,
There is a ſoft divinity that draws tranſport
Even from diſtreſs, that gives the heart
A certain pang, excelling far the joys
Of groſs, unfeeling life.

The city has an excellent ſituation with reſpect both to ſea and land, yet has never been able to recover its priſtine ſplendor. It has two walls well fortified by towers and bulwarks, which are much decayed: among the magnificent ruins, with the walls, are the remains of the cathedral dedicated to St. Andrew, near the ſea ſide, the church of St. John, the titular ſaint of the city, the convent of the knights hoſpitallers, the palace of the grand maſter of the order, and the remains of a large church belonging to the nunnery. Thevenot aſſerts, that when he ſaw the place, the remains of 30 churches were ſtill viſible.

Paneas, or Cæſarea Philippi, a celebrated place anciently, but now nothing more than a poor village, at the foot of mount Panis, is ſituated near the ſource of the Jordan.

Damaſcus, a city much famed in ancient hiſtory, originally for the reſidence of the firſt Syrian kings, and afterwards for being a regal ſeat of the caliphs of the Saracens, is ſituated in 33 deg. 37 min. north latitude, and 37 deg. 4 min. eaſt long. With reſpect to its antiquity it is the moſt venerable in the whole univerſe; it is generally agreed to have been built by Uz, ſon of Abraham, and grandſon of Shem, the ſon of Noah, and was the birth-place of Eliezar the ſteward of Abraham. It was poſſeſſed by the Mamalukes till 1506, when the Turks conquered it, and have kept it ever ſince. It is waſhed by the river Barady, formerly called the Chryſorrhoas, or Golden River; the form is an oblong ſquare, about two miles in length: at a diſtance it appears like a city in a wood; from the great number of towers, domes, minarets, &c. interſperſed with gardens and orchards. The water of the river is conveyed not only to all parts of the city, but into the neighbouring plain. The moſques, bagnios, bezars, khans, &c. are magnificent, but the private houſes are low and mean, being erected either with ſun-burnt bricks or mud; yet, though the houſes are deſpicable, they are in general accommodated with ſtately apartments, ſquare court yards, marble fountains and marble portals: one coffee-houſe in the town will contain 500 people: it is divided into two parts, one for ſummer, and the other for winter.

In a large field called the Meidan, near the city, is an hoſpital for pilgrims and ſtrangers of all religions, who are maintained at the Grand Seignior's expence. The grand moſque is a magnificent edifice, and was formerly a Chriſtian church, built by the emperor Heraclius in honour of Zechariah, the father of John the Baptiſt; but at preſent it is death for any one to enter it but a Muſſulman. About the middle of this city is a caſtle of an oval form, with ſtrong walls 14 feet thick, flanked with ſquare towers, mounted with cannon, and well furniſhed with arms, water, &c. It is garriſoned by 15000 janiſſaries, viz. 5000 to guard the city, 5000 to attend the ſultan when he goes to Bagdad, and 5000 to eſcort the Mecca caravan. There is a large bake-houſe where biſcuits are made for the pilgrims that are going to Mecca, as the Grand Seignior allows them 200 camels load of biſcuit, and the ſame quantity of water.

The manufactures of Damaſcus are ſcymeters, knives, ſword blades, bridle bits, and many other iron and ſteel wares, in which about 20,000 of the inhabitants are employed. Caravans bring hither their merchandizes of Turkey, Arabia, and India; and caravans are continually going to and returning from Bagdad, Aleppo, Mecca, &c. The city hath eight gates and ſtrong walls. The principal ſtreets both in the city and ſuburbs are arched to keep off the ſun and rain. The neighbouring territory is pleaſant and fertile; and the grapes are remarkably fine, ſome of the bunches weighing from 30 to 40 pounds; and the ſheep, which are very large, and their fleſh delicious eating, have tails that weigh in general 60 pounds. Near the city alabaſter is found in great quantities, and a red earth, efficacious as a remedy againſt the bite of venomous creatures. The corn is not here thraſhed as in moſt other countries, but the ſtraw is cut off with iron pincers, faſtened to wooden rollers, drawn over the corn by a horſe. Here the Jews have ſome handſome ſynagogues, and Chriſtians of all denominations have their churches of worſhip according to their own communion. This is at preſent called by the Turks Scan or Schan. The emperor Julian formerly ſtiled it the City of Jupiter, the Eye of the Eaſt, and the Seat of Magnificence. Mahomet, beholding it from a neighbouring mountain, was ſo delighted with the appearance of the city and its environs, that he refuſed to enter, or even approach any nearer to it, ſaying, "I am ſure there is but one paradiſe deſigned for man, and I will not enjoy mine in this world."

The following ſingular circumſtances are, by many authors, ſaid to have happened during the ſiege of this city by the Arabians, A. D. 634. One night ſome of the

centinels, who were upon duty, heard the neighing of a horſe, which was coming out of one of the city gates. They kept ſilent till it approached, when they took the rider priſoner. Immediately after there came out of the ſame gate another perſon on horſeback, who called the man that was taken priſoner by his name. The Saracens commanded the priſoner to anſwer him, when the captive cried out aloud in Greek, "The bird is taken." The perſon to whom theſe words were ſpoken, comprehending their meaning, galloped back again to the city: though the Saracens knew not what the priſoner had ſaid, as none of them happened to underſtand the Greek language; yet they were ſenſible that by this means they had loſt a priſoner. They therefore carried him before Khaled, their general, who demanded what he was. "I am (replied he) a nobleman, and have married a lady who is dearer to me than life; but, when I ſent for her home, her parents made a ſlighting anſwer, and ſaid they had other buſineſs to mind. Having found an opportunity to get to the ſpeech of her, we agreed to leave the city in the evening, and for that purpoſe to give a conſiderable ſum of money to the perſon who ſhould be on guard at night. I leaving the city firſt was ſurpriſed by that man, and to prevent my beloved wife from falling into his hands, I cried, the bird is taken. The dear creature underſtanding my meaning, returned with her two ſervants into the city: and who can blame me for ſhewing ſuch tenderneſs." Said the general, "Then what think you of the Mahometan religion? Embrace it, and your wife ſhall be reſtored to you when we take the city. Refuſe, and you are a dead man."

The poor wretch being terrified, renounced the Chriſtian faith in theſe words; "I teſtify that there is but one God; that he has no partner; and Mahomet is his prophet:" then devoting himſelf to the Infidels, he diſtinguiſhed himſelf in fighting againſt the Chriſtions. Damaſcus being taken, Jonas, for that was his name, ran in ſearch of his beloved, and was informed that ſhe had immured herſelf in a nunnery, thinking that ſhe ſhould never ſee him any more. He flew to the convent, diſcovered himſelf to the lady, and at the ſame time informed her of his having changed his religion. This information induced her to treat him with the utmoſt contempt, and to conclude, that as he had renounced the Chriſtian religion, it was her duty to renounce him. Agreeable to this reſolution ſhe left the city with the Chriſtians, who were permitted to depart. Jonas, in the utmoſt diſtraction, applied to the general, and entreated him to detain her by force; but Khaled replied, "that he could not do any ſuch thing; but, as the Chriſtians had voluntarily ſurrendered, he ſhould ſuffer them to depart according to the articles of capitulation."

Soon after, however, the Saracen chief repenting that he had favoured them with ſuch mild terms, and ſuffered them to carry away ſo much wealth, determined to purſue and plunder them. Jonas ſtrongly urged the Infidel to execute his reſolution ſpeedily, and offered to be his guide. They therefore left the city at the head of 400 horſe, being all diſguiſed like Chriſtian Arabs. They ſoon came up with the Chriſtians, when a ſharp conteſt enſued, but the Saracens proved victorious. During the engagement, Jonas got among the women in ſearch of his wife. Raphi Ebn Omeirah paſſing that way, ſaw him ſcuffling with his lady, whom he had thrown down upon the ground with ſome violence: and Raphi himſelf ſeized upon the daughter of the emperor Heraclius, and the beautiful widow of Thomas, a Chriſtian chief, who had been killed in the engagement. Having ſecured his captives, he returned to the place where he had left Jonas, when he found him bathed in tears, and his wife weltering in her blood. Enquiring the occaſion, Jonas wrung his hands, and cried, "Alas! I am the moſt miſerable creature exiſting. I came to this woman, whom I prized above all things, and would fain have perſuaded her to return with me. She was, however, deaf to my entreaties, becauſe I had changed my religion, and vowed ſhe would retire to a cloiſter to end her days. Not being able to perſuade by tender entreaties, I determined to employ force, and therefore threw her down, and took her priſoner; when ſhe ſuddenly drew out a knife, ſtabbed herſelf in the breaſt, fell down at my feet, and inſtantly expired." Raphi could not refrain from tears at this mournful relation. At length he ſaid to comfort him, "Heaven did not intend that you ſhould live with her, and has therefore provided better for you." "What do you mean?" ſaid Jonas. "I'll ſhew you (replied Raphi) a lady that I have taken of admirable beauty, and in the richeſt attire. I'll make you a preſent of her to compenſate your loſs." Jonas being brought to the princeſs converſed with her in Greek, and received her as a preſent from Raphi.

After the carnage had ceaſed, the general, hearing that the emperor's daughter was taken, demanded her of Jonas, who freely reſigned her, and received a preſent which Khaled thought proper to make. Jonas continued ever after afflicted with a deep melancholy, a juſt puniſhment for his apoſtacy, for which he was finally rewarded at the battle of Yermuk, being ſhot through the breaſt.

We ſhall conclude this digreſſion, which we flatter ourſelves will not be deemed unintereſting, by informing our readers, that the above ſtory furniſhed the ingenious John Hughes, Eſq. with the plot of his excellent tragedy, called *The Siege of Damaſcus*.

Balbec was called by the Greeks Heliopolis, or the City of the Sun. Its venerable ruins evince that it was once one of the moſt magnificent cities in the univerſe. At preſent it is not above a mile and a half in circumference, and the poor inhabitants live in mean houſes, no ways anſwerable to the grand ideas which the ſurrounding ruins give us of the dwellings of their anceſtors.

The honourable Van Egmont ſays, "Balbec, now called Baalbec, is probably the ancient Heliopolis, or City of the Sun; and its new name ſeems to correſpond with the ancient Baal in the Phœnician language, ſignifying an idol, particularly that of the ſun. And what ſeems to confirm me in my opinion that Balbec is the ancient Heliopolis, or City of the Sun, was a medal of Philippus Cæſar, which I found here. He is on one ſide repreſented as a youth without beard or crown; and on the reverſe are two eagles with the ends of their beaks joined, and between them theſe two words, COL. HEL. whence it is plain that this city was at that time a Roman colony." It is ſituated in one of the moſt delightful plains in the world, at the foot of mount Anti-Libanus, towards the weſtward. It is about thirty miles north of Damaſcus, and the ſame eaſt from the ſea-coaſt, in 33 deg. north latitude, and 37° deg. 30 min. eaſt longitude. This place was called by the Arabians the Wonder of Syria: and the magnificent ruins are certainly the admiration of all travellers who behold them. A ſuperb palace, a noble temple, and ſome other ruins, ſtand at the ſouth-weſt of the town; and having been patched and pieced in later times, are converted into a caſtle, as it is called. In approaching theſe venerable edifices, a rotunda, or round pile, attracts the view, encircled with pillars of the Corinthian order, which ſupport a cornice that runs all round the ſtructure. The whole, though greatly decayed, exhibit marks of aſtoniſhing elegance and grandeur, being built of marble, circular without, and octangular within. The Greeks, by whom it hath been converted into a church, have taken infinite pains to ſpoil its beauty, by daubing it with plaiſter. There is a ſuperb lofty building contiguous to the rotunda, which leads to a noble arched portico of 150 paces in length, that conducts you to a temple of aſtoniſhing magnificence, which, to a miracle, has withſtood the injuries of time. It is an oblong ſquare, of 192 feet in length on the outſide, and 120 within. The breadth is 96 feet on the outſide, and 60 within. The whole is ſurrounded by a noble portico, ſupported by pillars of the Corinthian order,

order, each of which conſiſts only of three ſtones, tho' the height is 54 feet, and the diameter 6 feet 3 inches. They are nine feet diſtant from each other, and from the wall of the temple. Their number on each ſide of the temple is 14, and at each end 8. The architrave and cornice are exquiſitely carved and embelliſhed. Round the temple, between the wall and the pillars, is an arcade of large ſtones hollowed out archwiſe, in the center of each of which is a god, goddeſs, or hero, executed with ſuch animation as is ſcarce conceivable. Round the foot of the temple wall is a double border of marble, whoſe lower parts are filled with baſſo relievo miniatures, expreſſive of heathen ceremonials and myſteries. The entrance of the temple is the moſt auguſt imaginable, the aſcent being by 30 ſteps, bounded by a wall on each ſide that leads to a pedeſtal, on which a ſtatue formerly ſtood. The front is compoſed of eight Corinthian pillars, fluted like thoſe that go round the temple, and a nobly proportioned triangular pediment. In the midſt of theſe pillars, at ſix feet diſtance, are four others reſembling the former, and two more with three faces each. All theſe form a portico 60 feet broad, and 24 deep, before the door of the temple. Under the vault of the portico the entrance of the temple appears through theſe pillars in admirable proportion. The portal is ſquare, and of marble, 40 feet high, and 28 wide, the aperture being about 20. From this portal the bottom of the lintel is ſeen, embelliſhed by a piece of ſculpture not to be paralleled in the univerſe: it repreſents a prodigious large eagle in baſſo relievo: his wings are expanded, and he carries a caduceus in his pounces: on either ſide a cupid appears holding the one end of a feſtoon by a ribbon, as the eagle himſelf holds the other in his beak, in a manner inimitably fine. The temple is divided into three iſles or aiſles, two narrow on the ſides, and one broad in the middle, by three rows of fluted Corinthian pillars, of near 4 feet in diameter, and about 36 feet in height, including the pedeſtal. The pillars are 12 in number, 6 of a ſide, at eighteen feet diſtance from each other, and twelve from the walls. The walls themſelves are decorated by two rows of pilagers, one above the other, and between each two of the lowermoſt is a niche 15 feet high: the bottoms of the niches are upon a level with the baſes of the pillars; and the wall, to that height, is wrought in the proportion of a Corinthian pedeſtal: the niches themſelves are Corinthian, and executed with inimitable delicacy. Over the round niches are a row of ſquare ones between the pilaſters of the upper order: the ornaments are marble, and the pediment triangular. At the weſt end of the middle aiſle, you aſcend to a choir by 13 ſteps: the choir is diſtinguiſhed from the reſt of the fabric by two large ſquare columns adorned with pilaſters, which form a ſuperb entrance. The profuſion of admirable ſculpture here is aſtoniſhing; but the architecture is the ſame as in the body of the temple, except that the niches ſtand upon the pavement, and the pillars are without pedeſtals. The principal deity formerly worſhipped here ſtood in a vaſt niche at the bottom of the choir. The choir is open towards the middle. The whole pile ſtands upon vaults of ſuch excellent architecture, and ſo bold in their conſtruction, that it is imagined they were deſigned for ſomething more than merely to ſupport the ſuperincumbent building. The temple was anciently accompanied by ſome other magnificent buildings, as is evident from four aſcents to it, one upon each angle, with marble ſteps, long enough for ten people to go up a-breaſt.

The palace, which is in what the Turks call the caſtle, muſt have been one of the moſt ſuperb ſtructures that imagination can conceive, but it is much more decayed than the temple. It ought to be obſerved, that the old wall which encloſes both theſe ſtructures is compoſed of ſuch prodigious blocks of ſtone as almoſt tranſcends belief: three in particular that lie cloſe to each other in a line, extend 183 feet, one being 63 feet in length, and the other two 60 feet each. A dark arched vault, containing many buſts, leads to an hexagon building, which forms a ſpacious theatre: the end opens to a terrace which is aſcended by marble ſteps: you then enter a ſquare court, ſurrounded by magnificent buildings: on each hand are double rows of pillars, which form galleries of 66 fathoms in length, and 8 in breadth. The bottom of this court is occupied by a building amazingly ſumptuous, which appears to have been the body of the palace: the columns are as large as thoſe of the Hippodrome at Conſtantinople: nine of them are ſtanding, and a good piece of the entablature. But it is ſurpriſing that each of theſe large columns is made of one entire block only. All the buildings in this caſtle front the eaſt: and the Corinthian order prevails throughout the whole. There is no place where ſuch precious remains of architecture and ſculpture are to be found, as the fine taſte of Greece, and the magnificence of Rome, ſeem to be blended; the ornaments are at once innumerable and exquiſite. Beneath the whole are vaults, in which vaſt flights of marble ſtairs, of 200 ſteps in a flight, are frequently found. The turn and elevation of theſe vaults are bold and ſurpriſing: they contain many noble halls, and ſuperb apartments, admirably decorated. Some of theſe vaults are dark; others receive light from large windows which ſtand on the level of the ground above. But the moſt ſingular circumſtance is, that all theſe aſtoniſhing edifices are built with ſuch enormous ſtones as thoſe before-mentioned, without any viſible ſigns of mortar, or any kind of cement whatever. The preſent city is ſurrounded with a wall of ſquare ſtones, and ſome towers in good condition. The gardens in the environs are pleaſant, fruitfull, and well watered. Many houſes, which contain various apartments, are cut out of the ſolid rocks. It is inhabited by about thirty or forty Chriſtian families, a few Jews, and near 800 Turks.

SECTION XIX.

PALESTINE, JUDÆA, THE LAND OF CANAAN, OR THE HOLY LAND.

THE ancient kingdom of Judæ, or Judea, or Paleſtine, forms the third grand diviſion of Syria. The former of theſe names it received from Judah, whoſe tribe was the moſt conſiderable of the twelve; and the latter from the Paleſtines, or Philiſtines, as they are termed in ſcripture, who poſſeſſed the greateſt part of it. It had likewiſe a variety of other names, ſuch as the Land of Canaan, the Land of Iſrael, the Land of God, the Land of the Hebrews, &c. but the moſt pre-eminent appellation by which it has ever been diſtinguiſhed, is, The *Holy Land*. The name of Canaan it received from the deſcendants of Canaan, the ſon of Cham, or Ham, who being expelled by the Iſraelites, it was thence called the Land of Iſrael. Both Jews and Chriſtians call it the Holy Land, for theſe diſtinct reaſons: The former give it that epithet, becauſe it was ſolely appropriated to the ſervice of God under their immediate diſpenſation; and the latter ſo call it, becauſe Chriſt was born here, and it became the ſcene of all that was wrought or ſuffered for the SALVATION of MANKIND. It was figuratively called the Land of Promiſe, as having been promiſed by God himſelf to the choſen people of Iſrael: and the land flowing with milk and honey, from its wonderful fertility. Under the general name of Canaan, Judea, or Paleſtine, ſome include the whole of the land poſſeſſed by the twelve tribes, though it peculiarly belongs to no more than the country weſt of the river Jordan, which Moſes himſelf particularly points out, Deut. ii. 29, in this expreſſion, "Until I ſhall paſs over "Jordan unto the land which the Lord our God giveth "us." Judea, in the general extent of it, muſt, therefore, be divided into Leſſer and Greater. The Greater Judea extended from the Mediterranean to the Euphrates. This diviſion was never peaceable poſſeſſed by the Jews, though they in ſome meaſure ſub-

verted of moſt the Syrian powers. The Leſſer was confined to the land poſſeſſed by nations particularly marked out for expulſion and extermination. This is evident from the commands of God himſelf: for when the armies of the Iſraelites marched againſt any of the cities in the former, they were ordered to make offers of peace; but in the latter no conditions were to be propoſed, but the inhabitants totally deſtroyed and rooted out.

The exact extent of Canaan ſeems to have been accurately pointed out by Moſes, in Gen. x. 19, in theſe words: "The border of the Canaanites was from "Sidon, as thou comeſt to Gerar unto Gaza, as thou "goeſt unto Sodom and Gomorrah, and Admah and "Zeboim, even unto Laſhah."

Paleſtine, or Judea, is ſituated between 31 deg. 30 min. and 32 deg. 20 min. north latitude; and from 34 deg. 50 min. to 37 deg. 15 min. eaſt longitude; being bounded by the Mediterranean Sea on the weſt, Syria and Phœnicia on the north, Arabia Deſerta on the eaſt, and Arabia Petræa on the ſouth. It is, therefore, near 200 miles in length, and about 80 in breadth towards the middle, but increaſes or diminiſhes 12 or 15 miles in other places. The longeſt day is about 14 hours 15 minutes.

The air of Judea is the moſt ſalubrious and pleaſant imaginable. Neither heat or cold are felt in the extreme, but an agreeable ſerenity diffuſes itſelf throughout the year, which puts the ſtranger in mind of the golden age:

'The flowers unſown in fields and meadows reign'd,
'And weſtern winds immortal ſpring maintain'd.'

Though the climate of this country is at preſent the moſt admirable in the univerſe, we have no doubt but in the early ages of the world, when the paſtoral life was the moſt honourable, and agriculture the moſt reſpected employ, it even exceeded its preſent excellency, by means of the general cultivation of the country. Of the richneſs and fertility of its ſoil we have the moſt authentic teſtimonies; in particular that it abounded in corn, wine, oil, honey, pomegranates, dates, figs, citrons, oranges, apples of Paradiſe, ſugar-canes, cotton, hemp, flax, cedar, cypreſſes, and a great variety of other ſtately, fragrant, and fruitful trees, balm of Gilead, and other precious drugs, &c. cattle, fowls, fiſh, game, and other delicacies, as well as neceſſaries of life. Indeed, whoever conſiders the very ſmall extent of Judea, will be ſenſible that nothing but ſuch aſtoniſhing fertility could enable it to maintain ſuch a number of inhabitants as reſided in it in the time of king David, ſince they amounted to 6,000,000. The produce of the land not only ſubſiſted this prodigious multitude, but there was a ſufficient ſuperfluity to ſend to Tyre, and other places, for exportation. Yet the ſoil was only cultivated ſix years in ſeven, as the ſeptennial year was always a time of reſt from the affairs of agriculture. It is to be obſerved, that the whole of the country was cultivated, and that woods, parks, waſte grounds, &c. were unknown. It is now unhappily inhabited by ſome of the moſt indolent people exiſting: yet a traveller informs us, that, with proper cultivation, it would yield as much as it did in the days of king David and king Solomon.

The principal mountain of Paleſtine is the famous chain that goes under the name of Libanus and Anti-Libanus, and divides Syria from Paleſtine. The whole is about 100 leagues in compaſs, and conſiſts of four ridges, one above another, two of which are fertile, and two barren, viz. the lower is rich in grain and fruit, the next rocky and barren; the third abounds in gardens and orchards, though higher than the preceding: and the ſummit is ſterile and uninhabitable, by reaſon of the exceſſive coldneſs on its airy brow. The Maronites inhabit its lower regions, and Arabs all the other parts except the top. In this mountain ſeveral conſiderable, or rather celebrated rivers have their ſource, viz. the rivers Rocham, Nahur-Roſſan, Nahah-Codicha, and Abouali the firſt only of which runs through Paleſtine. Of theſe mountains the weſtern part alone is properly called Libanus, the eaſtern being named Anti-Libanus, and the intervening part Cœlo-Syria. The whole chain, however, formerly was, and is ſtill looked upon as, a retreat for robbers.

Mount Hermon, like Libanus, is very high, and capped with ſnow the greateſt part of the year.

Mount Tabor, anciently called Mons Alabyrius, and Ilabyrium, from a city of that name which ſtood upon it, is admirable with reſpect to its conſtant verdure, beauty, fertility, and regularity, as well as for its ſituation, which is in the middle of a large plain, at a diſtance from any other hill. A winding aſcent, of about two miles leads up to it; and the plain on its top is half a mile in length, and a quarter of a mile in breadth. This mountain was the ſcene of our Saviour's transfiguration, and conſequently is held in great veneration, and has been much reſorted to by Chriſtians of all ages.

Mount Carmel, ſituated on the ſea-ſhore, is the moſt remarkable head-land on that coaſt. The prophet Elijah is ſuppoſed to have reſided here in a cave, which is ſtill ſhewn, previous to his being taken up to heaven. The cave is 18 feet in length, and 11 in breadth.

Mount Olivet, or the Mount of Olives, is only about a mile from Jeruſalem, being ſeparated therefrom by the brook Kidron, and the valley of Jehoſhaphat. It is of a conſiderable height, and there is a fine proſpect of Jeruſalem from its ſummit. It runs in a ridge, and has three or four heads higher than the reſt. From one of the principal Chriſt aſcended into heaven; and the impreſſion of a foot in a hard rock, ſhewn there at this day, is ſaid to have been made by him.

Mount Calvary, or Golgotha, the place where our Saviour was crucified, is a rocky hill on the weſt ſide of Jeruſalem, and was antiently uſed as a general charnel-houſe to that city, from whence it derived its name of Golgotha, that Hebrew word ſignifying the *place* or *repoſitory of a ſkull*, of which Calvary is the Latin tranſlation. This mountain, according to the authority of the antient fathers, is the ſame on which Abraham went to offer up his ſon Iſaac. It was formerly the place were criminals were executed; but ſince the crucifixion of Chriſt, it has been ſo reverenced and reſorted to by Chriſtians of all denominations, that, if we may be allowed the expreſſion, it has drawn the city round about it, for it now ſtands in the midſt of Jeruſalem. Conſtantine the Great enclоſed it within the new walls, and even left out ſome part of Mount Sion, that none of Cavalry ſhould be excluded.

Mount Moriah is the eminence on which the temple of Solomon was built.

Mount Gihon ſtands about a quarter of a mile from Jeruſalem, and on it the pool is ſtill to be ſeen from whence Hezekiah brought water by an aqueduct into the city.

A few other mountains are found in Paleſtine leſs conſiderable than the former, yet worth mentioning on account of many ſingular circumſtances which are particularly noticed in the Holy Scriptures, concerning them. Of theſe we ſhall begin firſt with Mount Ebal. Moſes had enjoined, that when the children of Iſrael had paſſed over Jordan, they ſhould ſet great ſtones upon Mount Ebal, and, having covered them with plaiſter, ſhould write the law upon them: Deut. xxvii. 2, 3, 4. And they were to build an altar there unto the Lord their God, and to offer burnt-offerings, and peace-offerings, and to celebrate a feaſt unto the Lord: vide ver. 5, 6, 7, of the ſame chapter. and they were to divide the people, and to place ſix of the tribes of the people on Mount Gerizim, oppoſite to Mount Ebal, and ſix on Mount Ebal: and then the Levites were to read, with a loud voice, the curſes ſet down by Moſes for the tranſgreſſors of the law, unto each of which the people were to anſwer, Amen. [See the ſucceeding verſes of the ſame chapter.] Joſhua afterwards performed the whole of the above injunction.

Mount

Mount Engadi is near the Lake of Sodom: Mount Amaleck and Gahash, in the tribe of Ephraim: Pisgah and Nebo on the other side Jordan, whence Moses was permitted to view the Land of Promise: the Mountains of Gilboa, famed for the defeat of Saul and Jonathan, and the chain of hills called the Mountains of Gilead, extend from north to south beyond Jordan, and are celebrated for their excellent resin or balm.

The principal inland seas, or rather lakes, are, the Dead Sea, or Lake of Sodom; the Sea of Galilee, or Lake of Tiberias; and the Samachonite Sea, Sea of Jezar, or Lake of Samachon.

The Dead Sea, Lake of Sodom, Asphaltite Lake, or Salt Sea, received its latter name from the quantity of bitumen in and about it. Formerly it was imagined that great quantities of this combustible were thrown up by this sea: that, however, is not the case, for it is the mountains on both sides that produce it. It resembles pitch, and is only to be distinguished from it by the sulphurousness of its taste and scent. For the bitumen itself some have mistaken a black pebble found on the shores of the lake, which being held in the flame of a candle presently takes fire, and burns with an intolerable stench. Besides the above quality, these pebbles have this singular property, that by burning, their weight only, and not their bulk, is diminished. It is termed the Dead Sea, because it is supposed that no living creature can exist in it, on account of the excessive saltness of its waters. Maundrell, however, insists that it contains fish, and likewise gives testimony against another received opinion, which is, that if any birds attempted to fly over it they were sure to drop down dead; but he declares that he saw many fly over it. Why it was called the Salt Sea is obvious, and it is imagined that no collection of waters in the universe have so great a degree of saltness.

The great physician Galen observes, that the exceeding saltness of the water is tinged with an unpleasant bitterness; and that, with respect to specific gravity, it as much exceeds other sea waters as they do river waters. It is about 24 leagues in length, and between six and seven in breadth. It is bounded on the east and west by exceeding high mountains, and on the north by the plains of Jericho.

The Sea of Galilee, or Lake of Tiberias, is much smaller than that of Sodom, but abounds in fish, and is highly commended for the excellency of its waters. It was on this Sea that St. Peter, Andrew, John and James, followed their employ as fishermen. The river Jordan passes through it.

The Lake of Samachon is an hundred furlongs north of that of Tiberias, near the source of the river Jordan: it is between seven and eight miles in length, but not above half a mile in breadth where broadest.

There are two other small lakes in Judea named Phiala and Jazar; but they are two inconsiderable to merit any description.

Jordan is the only considerable river in this country. It takes its source at the lake of Phiala, enters the Samachonite lake, proceeding from whence it divides the Sea of Galilee, and at length discharges itself into the Dead Sea. After rising at Phiala, it runs under ground for the space of fifteen miles, then appearing again at Panoum, it passes the before mentioned Samachonite Lake, flows for fifteen miles more, enters the Sea of Tiberias, and having passed it, streams through a desart till it disembogues itself into the Asphaltite Lake. Contrary to the general nature of rivers it is fullest in summer time; its banks are so covered with tall reeds, willows, tamarisks, &c. that they harbour innumerable animals and various wild beasts. Its stream is so rapid and strong that a man cannot stem it in swimming. The breadth where it is widest does not exceed sixty feet: the waters are salubrious and incorruptible, but turbid or muddy, the natural consequence of its rapidity.

The other rivers, or rather rivulets, are Arnon-Jabok, Cherith, Sorec, Kishon, Bosor, Belus, Nahar-al-farat, and Jezreel.

The principal vallies and plains mentioned in scripture, and by profane writers, are,

Berakhap, or the Valley of Bessing, on the west side of the Lake of Sodom: the Vale of Siddim, which contains the Asphaltite Lake: the Valley of Shaveh, or Royal Vale: the Valley of Salt: the Valley of Jezreel: the Vale of Mambre: the Vale of Rephaim: the Valley of Jehoshaphat: the Valley of the children of Hinnom: the Vale of Zeboim: the Vale of Achor near Jericho: the Vale of Bochim, and the Valley of Elah, where David slew the giant Goliah.

Among the plains are those called the Great Plain, through which the river Jordan flows: the Plain or Valley of Jezreel: the Plains of Sharon and Sephelah, and the Plain of Jericho.

The whole country at present is a mere wilderness, through the want of cultivation: anciently, when in its most flourishing state, it was said to contain some deserts or wildernesses; but this is to be understood of such tracks as produced no corn, wine, oil, &c. but were set apart for feeding cattle, flocks of sheep, goats, &c. There was not a sterile spot throughout the whole country; the people, therefore, had no conception of barrenness. Happy land! where rich pastures and the most beautiful meadows were termed deserts, through the absence of real barrenness; where the peoples ideas of fertility were confined only to spots productive of a profusion of luxuries.

Many natural curiosities are found in this country, particularly stones, which exactly resemble citrons, melons, olives, peaches, bunches of grapes, and even many kinds of fish; they are found principally about mount Carmel: those that resemble olives are the Lapides Judaici, which has always been deemed an excellent remedy for the stone and gravel. Near Bethlehem is found a stone of the slate kind, which exhibits in every flake the representation of a great variety of fishes. We may include among the natural curiosities many hot and mineral waters. Near the Dead Sea are a number of hillocks resembling places where there have been lime kilns, and abundance of saline efflorescences.

A thorny bush grows in the plains of Jericho, which bears a fruit that has some similitude to an unripe walnut. From this fruit the Arabs extract an excellent oil, which is a sovereign remedy for bruises, when internally applied, and for wounds when used externally. Its reputation is so great, that it is preferred even to the balm of Gilead.

Two more natural curiosities abound in this plain of Jericho, viz. the wood olive, the outward coat of which is green like the common olive, but being taken off, a nut of a woody substance appears: it is of about the thickness of an almond shell, and ribbed long ways.

Also the caroub, or locust tree, which bears a fruit like a bean, wherein are some small seeds: the shell, when dried, is eaten, and has a very agreeable taste. St. John sojourned here, whence it is called St. John's Desarts; and these are thought to be the locusts on which he fed, and not the animal of that name as many have supposed.

Judea was peopled by the descendants of Amor Cham, who came hither with his eleven sons after the confusion of tongues at Babel, five of whom settled in Syria and Phœnicia, viz. Heth, Jebus, Emor, Girgashi, and Heve; who were the founders of so many nations, and these were afterwards encreased by the descendants of Abraham; that patriarch having been called out of Mesopotamia to sojourn here.

We shall now particularize the districts allotted to the several tribes, beginning with the two tribes and a half who settled beyond Jordan, and then proceeding to the opposite side, take in the other tribes as they lie from north to south.

The lot of Reuben extended along the banks of the river Jordan from the north-east coast of the Dead Sea, and was bounded on the east by the country of the Moabites and Ammonites, on the south by the river Arnon, which seperated it from the country inhabited by the Midianites,

Midianites, and on the north by a ſmall river, which parted it from the lot of Gad. It formerly contained many good cities, of which there are no particular ancient deſcriptions known, nor any traces of the towns themſelves at preſent remaining.

The lot of Gad had half the tribe of Manaſſeh on the north, Ruben on the ſouth, the Ammonites on the eaſt, and Jordan on the weſt. Though naturally a country of infinite richneſs and fertility, it at preſent appears like a wilderneſs. Neither any modern-built towns appear in this track, or the remains of the ancient.

The lot of the half tribe of Manaſſeh had Gad to the ſouth, mount Lebanon to the north, Jordan and the Samachonite lake to the weſt, and the hills of Baſhan and Hermon to the eaſt. This diſtrict, with reſpect to cultivation or cities, is in the ſame predicament as the two former.

The lot of the tribe of Aſher, on this ſide Jordan, was bounded on the north by Phœnicia, on the ſouth by Zebulun, on the eaſt by Naphtali, and on the weſt by the Mediterranean. Of all the cities and towns belonging to the deſcendants of Aſher, none are now remaining except Acre, which we have already deſcribed. Saphat, a town near Acre, was deſtroyed in the year 1759, by an earthquake, which did a great deal of damage all over Syria, but more particularly about Damaſcus.

The tribe of Naphtali extended along the weſtern banks of the Jordan, from Lebanon to the Sea of Galilee. No veſtiges of any of the ancient cities are now in being; and the very few villages are ſo poor and inconſiderable, that travellers ſcarce mention them. We ſhall, nevertheleſs, notice ſome particulars relative to two of its ancient cities, viz. Capernaum and Dan, tho' they no longer exiſt.

Capernaum, Dr. Wells takes notice, is not mentioned in the Old Teſtament: it was, therefore, moſt probably one of the towns built by the Jews after their return from the Babyloniſh captivity, on the ſea-coaſt, that is, on the coaſt of the Sea of Galilee, on the borders of Zebulun and Naphtali, and conſequently towards the upper part of that coaſt. It took its name from an adjoining ſpring, famed for the excellence of its chryſtalline waters. Our Saviour choſe this as the place of his reſidence, in preference to Nazareth, where the ſtubbornneſs and incredulity of the people had obſtructed the propagation of his doctrines. It was more particularly the place of his abode during the laſt three years of his life, and where he wrought a great number of miracles. Chriſt, however, informed the inhabitants, that though their city was then *exalted unto heaven*, it ſhould ſhortly be *brought down to hell*; that is, to the moſt deplorable ſituation; (Matthew xi. 23.) which prediction was verified in the Jewiſh wars, when it was totally deſtroyed: ſo that there is not at preſent the leaſt trace of it left, unleſs a few poor fiſhermens cottages may be ſo termed.

Dan was built by the Danites, who being too ſtraitened in their own tribe, and ſeeking for a new habitation, thoſe of Zerah and Aſhtaol armed 600 men, who ſeized the rich town of Laiſh, deſtroyed its inhabitants, burnt the city, and then rebuilt it, and called it Dan, after the name of their progenitor. It was probably the ſame as Laſha, mentioned Geneſis x. 19, as one on the borders of the land of Canaan. It was ſituated at the head of Jordan, and, after having received its new name, was deemed the northern boundary of the land of Egypt, as Beerſheba was the ſouthern. Hence the proverbial ſcripture expreſſion, *From Dan to Beerſheba*. It was here that Rehoboam placed one of his golden calves. Dan was given by Auguſtus to Herod the Great, who bequeathed it to his younger ſon Philip, (together with the Tetrarchy of Eturia and Trachonites,) who made it his capital, and called it Cæſarea Philippi.

The tribe of Zebulun had the Mediterranean on the weſt, the Sea of Galilee on the eaſt, Iſſachar, from which it was parted by the brook Kiſhon on the ſouth, and Naphtali and Aſher on the north. The principal town of this diſtrict is Nazareth, where our Saviour was brought up. It is now a very inconſiderable village, though once a fine city, ſituated in a kind of concave valley, on the top of a hill. A convent is here built over the place of the annunciation. The monks ſhew a houſe, which they inſiſt was the houſe of Joſeph, in which Chriſt reſided.

Bethſaida is frequently mentioned in the New Teſtament. St. John, chap. i. ver. 44, expreſsly tells us, that St. Peter, Andrew, and Philip, were of this city. The name in Hebrew implies a fiſhing-place. It is not mentioned in the Old Teſtament, nor is that indeed aſtoniſhing, ſince it was but a trifling village, as Joſephus informs us, till Philip the Tetrarch rendered it a magnificent, rich, and populous city. At preſent it only conſiſts of a few poor cottages.

Joppa, or Jaffa, as it is at preſent called, is ſituated on the Mediterranean coaſt. It was anciently the principal ſea-port town to Jeruſalem and all Judea, and the place where the cedars of Lebanon, brought in floats from Tyre for building the temple, were landed. It was pleaſantly ſituated on a rock in a beautiful plain, in 30 deg. 20 min. north latitude, and 35 deg. 3 min. eaſt longitude. Jonas here embarked for Nineveh; and, from the hiſtory of his miraculous voyage, the ſtory of Andromeda was fabricated by the heathen poets; for their ſea monſter was no other than the leviathan of the ſacred writings, and the whale of the moderns.

We cannot help adding the ſublime deſcription given by Job of this tremendous creature, which the ancients ſo terribly dreaded, and which the moderns have found the means not only to ſubdue, but to render ſubſervient to many uſes.

His bulk is charg'd with ſuch a furious ſoul,
That clouds of ſmoak from his ſpread noſtrils roll
As from a furnace; and, when rous'd his ire,
Fate iſſues from his jaws in ſtreams of fire.
The rage of tempeſt, and the roar of ſeas,
The great ſuperior of the ocean pleaſe:
Strength on his ample ſhoulders ſits in ſtate,
His well-join'd limbs are dreadfully compleat;
His flakes of ſolid fleſh are ſlow to part,
As ſteel his nerves, as adamant his heart:
Large is his front, and when his burniſh'd eyes
Lift their broad lids, the morning ſeems to riſe.
His paſtimes, like a cauldron, boil the flood,
And blacken ocean with the riſing mud;
The billows feel him as he works his way,
His hoary footſteps ſhine along the ſea.

Dr. YOUNG's Job.

It was in Joppa that St. Peter raiſed Dorcas to life, and received the meſſengers of Cornelius. Though it was anciently a very magnificent town, and a great commercial mart, yet the harbour was never commodious, on account of ſeveral rocks, which render the paſſage into it dangerous. It lay for many ages in ruins, but of late has been much improved, though it ſtill falls beneath its original ſplendor. The lower ground towards the ſea is covered with good houſes, chiefly of ſtone. The principal commodities are, Ramah and Jeruſalem ſoap: rice and other articles are brought from Egypt, and exported from hence to various parts, which yields the baſſa of Gaza a conſiderable annual income. The inhabitants are ſupplied with water from an excellent ſpring on the weſt ſide of the town. The Chriſtians have no church, except one almoſt in ruins, and uncovered; but they have ſeveral handſome houſes appropriated to their uſe, and for the entertainment of pilgrims.

Cana of Galilee, ſo called to diſtinguiſh it from a town of the ſame name, which lay near Sidon, is not far from Nazareth. Here Chriſt ſhewed his firſt miracle, by changing the water into wine at the marriage feaſt.

The

The before-mentioned miracle brings to our mind the following circumſtance: A young gentleman of great genius, who was placed in a certain ſeminary of learning for education, a few years ſince, having the Miracle of Cana given him as a theme, neglected to prepare it for the inſpection of the maſter till within a few minutes of the time when it was proper to produce it: fearful of being puniſhed for his remiſſneſs, he ſat down and compriſed the whole in the following admirable line:

The modeſt water ſaw the Lord and bluſh'd.

The maſter was ſo charmed with the energy of this ſentence, that he eaſily pardoned the young pupil for not rendering his theme more prolix.

Cana was the native, or at leaſt dwelling-place, of the apoſtle Nathaniel, for Bartholomew: for he is expreſsly ſtiled Nathaniel of Cana in Galilee; vide John xxi. 2.

The lot of the tribe of Iſſachar was bounded on the north by Zebulun, on the ſouth by the other half of Manaſſeh, on the eaſt by Jordan, and on the weſt by the Mediterranean. It contained the mounts Carmel and Gilboa, the valley of Jezreel, and plain of Galilee, now called Saba. Though its fertility is aſtoniſhing, it contains only a few miſerable inhabitants, who reſide in ſcattered huts, and has ſcarce any remaining traces of the cities, towns, villages, which it might formerly contain: but as ſome of the places, in their ancient ſtate, were remarkable, we ſhall mention them on account of ſome curious circumſtances with which they were connected.

Shunem, or Shunen, was a city ſituated on the borders of the tribe of Iſſachar, and was famous as the place of reſidence of the hoſpitable Shunamite, who was ſo kind to the prophet Eliſha.

Endor, mentioned in 1 Sam. xxviii. as a place of reſidence of a witch, or woman who had a familiar ſpirit, to whom Saul applied to raiſe the ſpirit of Samuel, was ſituated on the weſt of the river Jordan.

The circumſtances of Samuel's appearance to Saul was certainly ſupernatural, and permitted by God for the wiſeſt purpoſes, and upon a moſt ſingular occaſion. Nevertheleſs, we ſhould be cautious of ſtraining ſo remarkable a text, to favour the ſuperſtitious notion of the power of witches, wizards, &c. and of the frequent appearance of apparitions upon the moſt trivial occaſions.

A learned divine, on occaſion of repealing the act of parliament relative to witches, witchcraft, &c. in the year 1736, preached a ſermon on the text in 1 Sam. xxviii. 6, 7, in which he very humanely and juſtly obſerves, that the vulgar notions concerning witchcraft, and the affair of the witch of Endor, eſſentially differ, and continues thus: "A magician, in its beſt ſenſe, is a wiſe man, or wiſe woman; and this is alſo the proper meaning of witch, and wizard, or rather wiſard, that is, wit-ch and wiſ-ard, in our language, being both derived from the old verb to wit, or wiſt, that is, to know or underſtand; and do therefore imply no more than a knowing or underſtanding perſon; conſequently witchcraft is the hidden art, or myſterious practice, of ſuch a perſon; and theſe words, I believe, were never uſed in a bad ſignification, till they were appropriated to ſuch perſons as pretend to know more than they really do, and by that means impoſed upon the ignorance and weakneſs of others for the ſake of gain: this men did by various arts, which were therefore called magical; that is, crafty, ſubtil, myſterious contrivances, in order to amaze the people, and to make them believe ſtrange things of them, as if they could work wonders, and predict ſtrange things; ſometimes by the ſtars, and then they were called aſtrologers; ſometimes by conſulting the entrails of ſanctified beaſts, and the flying or feeding of birds, and then they were called augurs or ſoothſayers; ſometimes by charms, that is, by verſes, ſpells, or love potions, and then they were called enchanters; ſometimes by throwing of dice, drawing lots, or ſleight of hand tricks, and then they were called ſorcerers; and ſometimes by pretending to raiſe the dead, and converſe with them, and then they were called necromancers; but magician was a common name to all theſe; and ſo ſeems the ſcripture witch or wizard to have been, which are of the ſame import. But witchcraft now is ſeldom or ever aſcribed to wiſe or knowing people, but to poor, deſpicable, ignorant, creatures, who have not ſenſe enough to defend themſelves, nor cunning to impoſe on others. It is not ſo much as pretended that they foretel any thing, or ever make themſelves famous, or grow rich and great by the art of magic. The poet Shakeſpear, ſpeaking of their ridiculous pretenſions, ſays,

But ſee they're gone.
The earth has bubbles as the waters have,
And theſe are ſome of them: they vaniſh'd
Into the air, and what ſeem'd corporal
Melted as breath into the wind.

"It is not poverty and naſtineſs that makes a witch, nor age, nor wrinkles, nor yet a revengeful eye or malicious tongue; but it is craft, and cunning, and impoſture, ſet on foot to make a profit of, and practiſed to the detriment of truth and religion."

Indeed, ſo far back as the reign of Queen Elizabeth, the frauds and impoſtures of pretended fortune-tellers and diviners were ſo well known, that an act of parliament was paſſed concerning them, which contained the following words, "Further it is enacted, that if any perſon, by witchcraft or divination, pretends to diſcover any hidden treaſures of gold or ſilver, or to tell where things loſt or ſtolen may be found, to excite any unlawful affection, or to prejudice any body in perſon or goods, he ſhall ſuffer a year's impriſonment, and ſtand once a quarter in the pillory, for the firſt offence; and for the ſecond, forfeit all his goods and chattels, and ſuffer impriſonment during life." Vide 5 Queen Eliz. cap. 16.

A polite modern writer hath obſerved, that it is remarkable how much the belief of apparitions has loſt ground within the laſt fifty years; which he very juſtly aſcribes to the general increaſe of knowledge, and conſequent decay of ſuperſtition. "A belief of this kind (ſays he) might ſpread in the days of popiſh infatuation; a belief as much ſupported by ignorance, as the ghoſts themſelves were indebted to night." One of the principal arguments that hath been urged in favour of viſionary appearances, is, "That if there had been no real, there could have been no counterfeit ſhillings." But this, the ſame author obſerves, is a piece of ſophiſtry; for the ſimile of the true ſhillings muſt allude to the living perſon, and the counterfeit reſemblance of the poſthumous figure of him that either ſtrikes our ſenſes or our imagination.

There is another cauſe which, in our opinion, has kept up the infatuation, ſince the time of the reformation. As our thoughts upon the ſubjects are novel, they may be agreeable; and as they are founded upon experience, we hope they are juſt: we mean the number of apparitions and phantaſms raiſed by dramatic writers: for the principal ideas of the vulgar, relative to ghoſts and apparitions, are drawn from what they have ſeen or heard in the play-houſe; and the brilliant effuſions of a poet's fancy have often worked upon a weak mind ſo far as to make it imagine an ideal ſubject a real object. We have no doubt but the following lines have raiſed innumerable viſionary fears:

Be thou a ſpirit of health, or goblin damn'd?
Bring with thee airs from heaven, or blaſts from hell?
Be thy intents wicked or charitable?
Thou comeſt in ſuch a queſtionable ſhape,
That I will ſpeak to thee. Oh! anſwer me:
Let me not burſt in ignorance, but tell
Why thy canoniz'd bones, hears'd in earth,
Have burſt their cearments? Why the ſepulchre,

Wherein we ſaw thee quietly interr'd,
Has op'd its ponderous and marble jaws,
To give thee up again? What may this mean,
That thou, dear corſe, again in complete ſteel,
Reviſit'ſt thus the glimpſes of the moon,
Making night hideous, and us fools of nature
So horridly to ſhake our diſpoſition
With thoughts beyond the reaches of our ſouls?
SHAKSPEARE'S HAMLET.

The poets have, however, made ample amends for what they may have contributed towards the continuance of a belief of the frequent appearance of apparitions, by the ridicule they have ſo pointedly and juſtly thrown upon aſtrologers and fortune-tellers. Sir Samuel Garth, in deſcribing one of theſe peſts of ſociety, ſays,

An inner room receives the num'rous ſhoals
Of ſuch as pay to be reputed fools:
The ſage in velvet chair here lolls at eaſe,
To promiſe future health for preſent fees;
Then, as from Tripod, ſolemn ſhams reveals,
And what the ſtars know nothing of fortels.

But, perhaps, the moſt pointed and humourous picture of theſe impoſtors is painted by the ingenious author of Hudibras, in the following lines:

They'll ſearch a planet's houſe to know
Who broke and robb'd a houſe below;
Examine Venus and the moon,
Who ſtole a thimble, who a ſpoon;
And though they nothing will confeſs,
Yet by their very looks can gueſs,
And tell what guilty aſpect bodes,
Who ſtole, and who receiv'd the goods.
They feel the pulſes of the ſtars,
To find out agues, coughs, catarrhs;
What gains or loſes, hangs or ſaves;
What makes men great, what fools, what knaves,
But not what wife, for but of thoſe
The ſtars, they ſay, cannot diſpoſe.

The other half tribe of Manaſſeh had Iſſachar on the north, Ephraim on the ſouth, the Mediterranean on the weſt, and the Jordan on the eaſt. It was a beautiful country, finely diverſified with mountains, vallies, lawns, ſprings, &c. The moſt conſiderable place was Bethſan, or Bethſhan, ſituated on the weſt of Jordan, and the ſouth coaſt of the Sea of Galilee. It was conſiderable in the time of St. Jerome and Euſebius. The Jews call it Bethſan, and the Greeks Scythopolis, as it is likewiſe named in the ſcriptures. The Turks, however, call it Elbyzan.

Another remarkable place is Salem, or Solyma, as Joſephus calls it, and which is likewiſe called ſo by Mr. Pope, who, in his invocation at the beginning of that beautiful poem the Meſſiah, ſays,

Ye nymphs of Solyma begin the ſong,
To heav'nly themes ſublimer ſtrains belong.

No traces of any of the other towns are left at preſent; and nothing worth relating is recorded of their ancient ſituation.

The lot of the tribe of Ephraim, afterwards known by the name of Samaria, had the Jordan on the eaſt, the Mediterranean on the weſt, the tribe of Benjamin on the ſouth, and the half tribe of Manaſſeh on the north. It was here that the rupture between the kingdoms of Iſrael and Judah originated. The principal places were,

Sichem, or Shechem, ſince Neopolis, once conſiderable, being a city of refuge, and, after the deſtruction of Samaria, the capital of the revolted kingdom. On the place where it ſtood, there is at preſent a town known by the name of Naploſa, or Naplouſe, between the mounts Ebal and Gerizim. It is the ſeat of a Turkiſh ſangiac, and capital of a territory conſiſting of 100 villages. Mr. Maundrell informs us it is in a poor condition, compared with what its ancient ruins ſhew it to have been, conſiſting of only two ſtreets, lying parallel under Gerizim, but well built, and full of people.

Arimathea, or Ramah, in Hebrew, which ſignifies an high place, was the place of the prophet Samuel's nativity.

Samaria, anciently Someron, from the mountains on which it was built, but now Sebaſte, was the capital of the revolted kingdom, and raiſed by its monarchs to great ſplendour. It was deſtroyed by the Aſſyrians; but Herod rebuilt it, and embelliſhed it with many magnificent edifices, of which there are ſtill ſome remains, particularly a large ſquare piazza, encompaſſed with marble pillars, ſome ſtanding, others lying; the fragments of ſome ſtrong walls; and the church built by the empreſs Helena, over the place where John the Baptiſt was beheaded, or, as ſome ſay, buried. The remains of this church are divided into two parts, one of which belongs to the Chriſtians, and one to the Turks. The latter diviſion is paved with marble, and has a chapel under ground, to which there are twenty-three ſteps to deſcend. There are three tombs in it, where, it is affirmed, the Baptiſt, Eliſha, and Obadiah, were buried. The Turks likewiſe ſay, that it was in this chapel St. John was impriſoned and beheaded. For a trifle of money they let the Chriſtians down to ſee the tombs, or rather to peep at them through ſome openings in the wall. Not far from theſe ruins Jacob's Well is ſhewn, where Chriſt held the conference with the Samaritan woman. It is covered by a ſtone vault; and thoſe who are deſirous of ſeeing it, are obliged to be let down through a narrow hole, when they may diſcover the mouth of it. It is hewn out of the ſolid rock, is three yards in diameter, and thirty-five in depth, five of which are filled with water.

Shiloh, or Sio, was celebrated for the tabernacle in which the ark was kept, till juſt before the death of Eli, 1 Sam. iv. 3, &c. At preſent there is nothing remaining of it.

Judea, properly ſo called, contained the tribes of Benjamin, Judah, Dan, and Simeon, and lay to the ſouthward of the whole country.

The lot of the tribe of Benjamin had Samaria on the north, Jordan on the eaſt, and Dan on the weſt. The principal places are,

The juſtly fam'd city of Jeruſalem, the capital of Judea, the regal ſeat of the Jewiſh monarchs, and the center of the Jewiſh religion. In its moſt flouriſhing ſtate this city was divided into four diſtinct parts, each being incloſed by its own walls, viz. The old city of Jebus, which ſtood on Mount Zion, or Sion, where the prophets dwelt, and where king David built a ſuperb palace, which became the reſidence both of himſelf and his ſucceſſors, on which account it was called the CITY OF DAVID. 2. The Lower city, or the Daughter of Zion, ſo called on account of its having been built ſubſequent to the other. In this diviſion ſtood the two magnificent palaces which Solomon built for himſelf and his queen; the fine palace of the Maccabean princes; the noble amphitheatre erected by Herod, which was ſaid to be capable of containing 80,000 ſpectators; the citadel built by Antiochus, which was deſtroyed by Simon the Maccabee; and the ſecond citadel called Antonia, which was erected by Herod upon a craggy rock. 3. The New City, principally inhabited by merchants, artificers, mechanics, &c. 4. Mount Moriah, on which the temple of Solomon was built, of which an ample deſcription is given in the 6th and 7th chapters of the firſt book of Kings.

Jeruſalem is about three miles in circumference at preſent, and lies in 31 deg. 50 min. north latitude, and 36 deg. eaſt longitude, being ſituated on a rocky mountain. Dr. Shaw ſays, "The hills which ſtand about Jeruſalem make it appear to be ſituated, as it were, in an amphitheatre, whoſe arena inclineth to the eaſtward. We have no where, as I know of, any diſtinct

tinct view of it. That from the Mount of Olives, which is the leaſt, and perhaps the fartheſt, is, notwithſtanding, at ſo ſmall a diſtance, that when our Saviour was there, he might be ſaid, almoſt in a literal ſenſe, 'to have wept over it.' There are very few remains of the city, either as it was in our Saviour's time, or as it was afterwards rebuilt by Adrian, ſcarce one ſtone being left upon another. Even the very ſituation is altered; for Mount Sion, the moſt eminent part of the Old Jeruſalem, is now excluded, and its ditches filled up; whilſt the places adjoining to Mount Calvary, where Chriſt ſuffered on the croſs without the gate, are now almoſt in the center of the city." With reſpect to its preſent ſtate, the Turks call it Cudſembaric. It is thinly inhabited. The walls are weak, and without baſtions; the ditch inconſiderable. The gates are ſix in number, viz. Damaſcus, St. Stephen's, Herod's, Sterquilina, Bethlehem, and Mount Sion Gate; beſide the Golden Gate, which is ſhut up, on account of a prophecy which the Turks have among them, that by that gate the Chriſtians are to take Jeruſalem. The ſtreets are narrow, and the houſes mean. Pilgrims and travellers, who flock from all parts, either through devotion, or out of curioſity, are the principal ſupport of the city. A Turkiſh baſhaw reſides here, to keep good order, collect the grand Seignior's revenues, and protect the pilgrims from the inſults of the Arabs.

No European Chriſtian is permitted to enter the city till the requiſite duties are diſcharged; nor can a ſtranger ſafely ſtay here, without being upon good terms with the Latin fathers.

The principal object of the pilgrims is the church of the Holy Sepulchre, ſituated upon Mount Calvary. It is 100 paces in length, and 60 in breadth. The workmen were obliged to reduce the hill to a plain area, in order to lay the foundation; but great precaution was uſed not to alter any part of it where our Saviour's Paſſion was concerned. The place of the Crucifixion is left entire, being about 12 yards ſquare, and ſtands at this day ſo much higher than the floor of the church, that it is aſcended to by 21 ſteps. The Holy Sepulchre, which was originally a cave hewn out in the bottom of the rock, may now be compared to a grotto ſtanding above ground, and having the rock cut away, and levelled all round. The walls of the church of the Holy Sepulchre are of ſtone, and the roof of cedar. The eaſt end encloſes Mount Calvary, and the weſt the Holy Sepulchre. The former is covered with a ſuperb cupola, ſupported by 16 large columns, and open at top. Over the altar there is another fine dome. The nave conſtitutes the choir; and the ſides of the church contain the moſt remarkable places where the circumſtances of our Saviour's Paſſion were tranſacted, together with the tombs of Godfrey and Baldwin, the two firſt Chriſtian kings of Jeruſalem. In the church of the Crucifixion, the hole is ſhewn in which it is ſaid the croſs was fixed. The altar has three croſſes on it richly adorned, particularly with four lamps of immenſe value, which are kept conſtantly burning. The cloiſter round the Sepulchre is divided into ſundry chapels. The Latins, who take care of the church, have apartments on the north-weſt ſide; but they are never ſuffered to go out, the Turks keeping the keys, and furniſhing them with proviſions through a wicket. Some grand ceremonies are performed at Eaſter, repreſencing Chriſt's Paſſion, Crucifixion, Death, and Reſurrection, of which take the following authentic account:

At duſk the pilgrims and monks meet in the chapel of the apparition; the lights are extinguiſhed, and a ſermon preached by one of the Latin prieſts: then each being furniſhed with a lighted taper, all walk in proceſſion round the church. They ſtop firſt at the Pillar of Flagellation, where a hymn is ſung, and a ſermon preached. Thence they proceed to the Chapel of the Priſon, to hear another hymn, and another ſermon. At the Chapel of the Diviſion of the Garment, to which they go next, a hymn is ſung, but no ſermon preached. They then proceed to the Chapel of Deriſion, the altar of which is ſupported by two pillars, and underneath is a piece of greyiſh marble, on which they ſay the ſoldiers placed Chriſt, when they crowned him with thorns, and mocked him, ſaying, "Hail, king of the Jews!" Here a ſermon is preached, and a fourth hymn ſung. They next enter another chapel, parted from the former only by a curtain, and advancing to the eaſt end, come to the very ſpot on which our Redeemer was crucified. This chapel is covered all over with Moſaic work; and in the middle of the pavement are ſome marble ſtones of various colours, deſigned to ſhew the very place where our Lord's blood fell, when his hands and feet were pierced. It is adorned with 13 lamps, and a candleſtick with 12 branches. An hymn is here ſung, and a ſermon preached on ſome text relative to the paſſion. Then two friars, who perſonate Joſeph of Arimathea and Nicodemus, come with great ſolemnity to the croſs, and take down the image that reſembles Chriſt, which they put into a winding ſheet, carry it to the ſtone of unction, and ſing an hymn over it. A ſermon is then preached in Arabic; and thus the ceremonials conclude.

On Mount Moriah, in the ſouth part of the city, ſtands the edifice called Solomon's Temple, which is ſituated upon the ſame ſpot as the ancient temple ſtood; but it is uncertain by whom it was erected. The middle part, where the Jewiſh Sanctum Sanctorum was ſuppoſed to have ſtood, is converted into a Turkiſh moſque.

It is to be obſerved, that the Turkiſh ſangiac who governs this city reſides in the very houſe where Pontius Pilate is ſuppoſed to have formerly lived. The principal part of the churches have been converted into moſques. The prieſts and other Chriſtians, are kept miſerably poor, by the tyranny of the government, and have ſcarce any ſubſiſtence but what they procure by accommodating ſtrangers with food and lodging, and ſelling them relicks.

In the neighbourhood of Jeruſalem, the moſt remarkable antiquities are,

The pools of Bethefda and Gihon. The former is 120 paces long, 40 broad, and 8 deep. It is at preſent dry, and the arches dammed up. But Gihon, which is about a quarter of a mile from Bethlehem gate, is a magnificent relick, 106 paces long, 60 broad, lined with a wall and plaiſter, and ſtill ſtored with water.

The tomb of the Virgin Mary, in the valley of Jehoſhaphat, has a deſcent to it by a flight of 47 magnificent ſteps. On the right hand is the ſepulchre of St. Anne, the mother of the Bleſſed Virgin; and on the left hand is that of Joſeph her huſband. The whole is cut in the ſolid rock.

Abſalom's pillar or place, which it is ſaid was erected by that prince, in order to perpetuate his memory, as he had no male iſſue, reſembles a ſepulchre, though it is not known that he was buried there. There is a great heap of ſtones about it, which are always increaſing; for all Jews and Turks who paſs by it make a point of throwing a ſtone each upon the heap, as a token of abhorrence to Abſalom for his unnatural rebellion againſt his father. The ſtructure itſelf is 20 cubits ſquare, and 60 high, adorned below with four columns of the Ionic order. From the height of 20 to 40 cubits it grows leſs, and is plain, a ſmall fillet at the upper end excepted; from thence to the top it is circular, and runs up ſpirally to a point; the whole being cut out of a ſolid rock. There is a room within conſiderably higher than the level of the ground without, on the ſides of which are niches, probably to receive coffins.

To the eaſtward of the above is the tomb of Zechariah, the ſon of Barachiah, whom the Jews ſlew between the temple and the altar, as it is commonly ſuppoſed. It is cut out of the rock 18 feet high, as many ſquare, and adorned with Ionic columns on each front, cut out of the ſame rock, and ſupporting a cornice. The whole ends in a pointed top like a diamond.

The

The royal ſepulchres without the walls of Jeruſalem are ſome of the moſt elaborate, curious, and magnificent antique remains that imagination can conceive. By whom they were built is uncertain, but they conſiſt of a great number of apartments, moſt of which are ſpacious, and all cut out of the marble rock.

Near Jeruſalem is a ſpot of ground, 30 yards long, and 50 broad, which is now the burial place of the Armenians. It was formerly the Aceldama, *field of blood*, or *potter's field*, purchaſed with the price of Judas's treaſon, as a place of interment for ſtrangers. It is walled round, to prevent the Turks from abuſing the bones of the Chriſtians: but one half of it is occupied by a charnel-houſe.

At Bethany, which ſtood in the road between Jeruſalem and Jericho, the remains of an old caſtle are ſhewn, which, it is affirmed belonged formerly to Lazarus. There is a deſcent of 25 ſteps to the room where he was laid, and the tomb out of which he was raiſed.

Jericho is reduced from a magnificent city to a little mean village, without any veſtiges of its former ſplendour, except ſome grand arches of an old conduit. It is about twenty-three miles from Jeruſalem, and was remarkable for being the firſt city invaded by the Iſraelites after their paſſage over Jordan, when it was taken by the ſingular fall of its walls.

The lot of the tribe of Judah was bounded on the ſouth by the mountains of Edom, on the north by Benjamin, on the eaſt by the Dead Sea, and on the weſt by the Mediterranean. This was the moſt fertile, populous, and largeſt of all the twelve lots; but at preſent there are no remains of any places which it might formerly contain, except

Bethlehem, the place of JESUS CHRIST's nativity, and therefore the moſt worthy to be held in eſteem by all mankind, for the bleſſings brought by the Redeemer, agreeable to the prophecy of Iſaiah, which prophecy is thus paraphraſed by Mr. Pope:

Wrapt into future times, the bard begun:
A virgin ſhall conceive, a virgin bear a ſon.
From Jeſſe's root behold a branch ariſe,
Whoſe ſacred flower with fragrance fills the ſkies:
Th' ethereal ſpirit o'er the leaves ſhall move,
And on its top deſcend the myſtic dove.
Ye heaven's from high the dewy nectar pour,
And in ſoft ſilence ſhed the kindly ſhow'r.
The ſick and weak the healing plant ſhall aid;
From ſtorms a ſhelter, and from heat a ſhade:
Truth o'er the world her olive branch extend,
And white-rob'd innocence from heav'n deſcend.
Swift fly the years, and riſe the expected morn!
O ſpring to light! auſpicious babe be born:
Hark, a glad voice the lonely deſart chears:
Prepare the way; a God, a God appears!
A God, a God, the vocal hills reply:
The rocks proclaim th' approaching Deity.
Lo! earth receive him from the bending ſkies!
Sink down ye mountains, and ye vallies riſe.
With heads reclin'd, ye cedars, homage pay:
Be ſmooth, ye rocks; ye rapid floods give way:
The Saviour comes, by ancient bards foretold!
Hear him ye deaf, and all ye blind behold.
He from thick films ſhall purge the viſual ray,
And on the ſightleſs eye-balls pour the day.
'Tis he the obſtructed paths of ſound ſhall clear,
And bid new muſic charm the unfolding ear.
The dumb ſhall ſing; the lame his crutch forego,
And leap exulting like the bounding roe.
No ſigh, no murmur, the lad world ſhall hear;
From ev'ry eye he wipes off ev'ry tear.
In adamantine chains ſhall death be bound,
And hell's grim tyrant feel th' eternal wound.

This city is diſtant between ſix and ſeven miles from Jeruſalem, to the ſouth-weſt, in the way to Hebron. It lies in 31 deg. 35 min. north latitude; and in 65 deg. 50 min. eaſt longitude. Anciently it was called the City of David, having been the birth-place of the Royal Pſalmiſt. It was otherwiſe called Ephrah, or Ephratah; Gen. xxxv. 19. It was originally built by the Jebuſites; and both Jerom and Euſebius aſſure us, that the monument of Jeſſe, the father of David, was here ſhewn in their time. Bethlehem is ſeated on a pleaſant hill, in a fine fertile plain, and enjoys a moſt excellent air. It contains a convent of the Latins, another of the Greeks, and another of the Armenians, and is annually reſorted to by a great number of pilgrims and travellers. All the convents have doors which open into the Chapel of the Holy Manger: for the place where the bleſſed Redeemer was born, and the manger in which he was laid, are ſhewn to this day. The manger is adorned with three pillars, one in the middle, and the others at the ends: in the angle, a ſtep lower, are two ſmall pillars of an equal bigneſs, between which there is a marble manger, big enough to hold a new born infant: and oppoſite to it is a ſtone, whereon the bleſſed Virgin ſat when the wiſe men came to adore the heavenly infant. The whole is become entirely black through time.

At the diſtance of about forty yards from one of the convents, there is a grot hollowed in a chalky rock, where, tradition ſays, the bleſſed Virgin hid herſelf and her divine babe, from the malice of Herod, ſome time previous to her departure into Egypt. Eaſtward, at the diſtance of about half a mile, the pilgrims are ſhewn the field where the ſhepherds were watching their flocks, when they received the glad tidings of the birth of a bleſſed Redeemer. The magnificent church built over the grot where the divine infant was born, is one of the moſt ſuperb in the eaſt, being divided into five aiſles, formed by four rows of elegant marble pillars, to the amount of 40 in number, that is, ten in a row. Beſides theſe, 10 more ſupport the whole choir, which is encloſed by a wall. The pavement is beautiful, and the cedar roof proportionably high. The noble portico by which you enter the church is ſupported by 16 handſome marble pillars. The choir, which is covered by a noble cupola, terminates in a ſemicircle that contains the altar: not far from which are two marble ſtaircaſes, conſiſting of thirteen ſteps each: by one of theſe the pilgrims deſcend to the Chapel of the Nativity, where there is an altar under a concave, with a repreſentation of the nativity: the whole being illuminated by lamps continually kept burning.

This magnificent edifice was built by the pious empreſs Helena, in commemoration of the birth of Chriſt. At a ſmall diſtance to the ſouthward of Bethlehem, the famous fountains, pools, and gardens of Solomon are ſhewn. The pools are three in number, lying in a row, and ſo diſpoſed, that the waters of the uppermoſt fall into the ſecond, and thoſe of the ſecond into the third. They are of a quadrangular figure, equal in breadth; but differing in length; the breadth of each being 450 feet; but the length of the firſt is 800 feet, of the ſecond 1000 feet, and of the third 1100 feet. They are very deep, and lined with a plaiſtered wall. Cloſe to the pools is a pleaſant caſtle of a modern ſtructure: and at about the diſtance of 700 feet is a fountain, from which they receive their waters. On the eaſtward of the city the well of David is ſhewn, for the waters of which that monarch ſo paſſionately longed, according to the inſpired writer, 2 Sam. xxiii. 14, &c. "And David was then in the hold, and the garriſon of the Philiſtines was then in Bethlehem; and David longed, and ſaid, O that one would give me drink of the water of the well of Bethlehem, which is by the gate. And three mighty men broke through the hoſt of the Philiſtines, and drew water out of the well of Bethlehem, that was by the gate." And about two furlongs from this well are the remains of an old aqueduct, which anciently conveyed the waters of Solomon's pools to Jeruſalem. Beſides the above-mentioned chapels in Bethlehem, are the Chapel of St. Joſeph, the huſband of the Holy Virgin, the Chapel of the Innocents, and thoſe of St. Jerome, St. Paul, and Euſtochium.

It

It is proper here to obſerve, that St. Jerome was a learned and celebrated writer in the fourth century; that Paula, and Euſtochinum, her daughter, were two Roman ladies, inſtructed by St. Jerome in learning and piety. This celebrated city is, however, at preſent reduced to a mean village, inhabited by very poor people.

Hebron, the ancient city of David before he took Jeruſalem, has long ſince been ruined. Near it ſtands the village called Elkahil, on a pleaſant hill that overlooks a moſt delightful valley. Ruinous as its preſent condition is, it ſtill contains a handſome church, built by the empreſs Helena over the ſepulchral grave where Abraham and Sarah, Iſaac, Jacob and Leah lie buried. The Turks have ſince turned the church into a moſque: but Turks, Chriſtians, and Jews, all regard it with great veneration. This town is the capital of a diſtrict conſiſting of about 24 little villages, which the Turks call the Territory of the Friends of God.

Bethzor, or Bethſora, formerly a very ſtrong fortreſs is ſuppoſed to have ſtood upon a craggy hill, twenty miles to the ſouthward of Jeruſalem, where there is now a village named St. Philip, from a tradition that it was at a fountain near this place, where Philip baptized the eunuch of queen Canduce.

Engeddi, a village on the top of a rock near the Dead Sea, about four miles eaſt of Tekoah, is famed for the great quantity of palms, and other odoriferous trees, which grow on the mountains above it. Among the caverns of theſe mountains two are very remarkable; the one for being the retreat of Lot and his daughters after the conflagration of Sodom; and the other for being the cavern in which David ſo generouſly ſpared the life of Saul, contenting himſelf with only cutting off the ſkirt of his garment.

The lot of Dan was bounded on the ſouth by Simeon, on the north by Ephraim, on the eaſt by Judah and Benjamin, and on the weſt by the country of the Philiſtines and the Mediterranean Sea; the length being 40 miles from north to ſouth, and the greateſt breadth not exceeding 25 miles. It abounded in all the neceſſaries and luxuries of life; and from hence the ſpies brought ſuch noble ſpecimens of its admirable fertility [illegible] Iſraelitiſh camp.

The tribe of Simeon, which was bounded by Dan on the north, by the river Trihor on the ſouth, by Judah on the eaſt, and a neck of land towards the Mediterranean on the weſt, lay in the moſt ſouthern corner of Judea. This part was not ſo fertile as the reſt of the land of Canaan, nor were the towns either many or conſiderable, none deſerving any mention, even in ancient times, except Anthedon and Rhinocolura, which are now poor ruined towns, ſtanding on the ſea-coaſt, and Beerſheba, of which in Gen. xxi. we learn, that Abraham, having entered into a ſolemn league of friendſhip with Abimelech, king of the Philiſtines, to ſecure his property in a well againſt the outrage of the Philiſtines, who had taken ſeven wells from him before, preſented the king with ſeven young ſheep, and entreated him to accept of them as a token that he had dug ſuch a well, and ſhould thenceforth be permitted to enjoy it peaceably: upon which occaſion the place was called Beerſheba, or the Well of the Oath, becauſe of the covenant made relative thereto. Hence the city which was erected near it, in proceſs of time, obtained the name of Beerſheba.

A ſmall part of the preſent Paleſtine, ſituated on the coaſt of the Mediterranean, and extending from the ſea of Jamnia to the mouth of the river Bezor, was long ſubject to the five lords of the Philiſtines. The principal places were,

Aſcalon, which is dwindled into a very trifling village, ſtands on the ſea-coaſt, and was the native place of Herod the Great, who was thence called Aſcalonites. It was an epiſcopal ſee from the earlieſt ages of Chriſtianity; and during the Holy Wars had many ſtately edifices remaining, which have ſince been all ruined by the Turks and Saracens.

Gaza ſtands between two and three miles from the Mediterranean Sea, and lies in 31 deg. 22 min. north latitude, and 35 deg. eaſt longitude. It retains many monuments of its priſtine grandeur, and on all ſides ſome noble remains of antiquity are to be ſeen, viz. ſeveral rows of ſtately marble columns, with all their ornaments entire, magnificent ſepulchres, monuments, &c. Among theſe is one in particular ſurrounded by a high wall, which belongs to a Turkiſh family. Near the city ſtands a round caſtle, flanked with four ſquare towers; oppoſite to which is the ſeraglio, where the baſhaw's wives and attendants are kept; and a little above are the remnants of an old Roman caſtle, the materials of which are ſo firm, that the hammer can make no impreſſion on them.

The Greeks and Armenians have each a church here; and near to that of the latter, the ſpot is ſhewn where the temple ſtood which Sampſon pulled down over his head, and deſtroyed at once himſelf and a great number of Philiſtines. The caſtle is the reſidence of a ſangiac, who is ſuppoſed to have near 300 ſmall villages, or hamlets, within his juriſdiction. At a little diſtance from the town, quite up to Egypt, the country is inhabited by a race of wild Arabs, who are continually roving about, not being ſubject to any regular government.

Maſſuima, or New Gaza, was the ancient ſea-port to the former, or old Gaza, and on that account only was of note. It ſtood about ten miles from Aſcalon, near the mouth of the river Bezor. About it are ſtill ſome antique remains, but whether they belonged to New or Old Gaza is uncertain.

About three miles ſouth from Gaza, and two miles from the ſea, ſtands a town named Lariſſa. It it at preſent a poor mean place, defended by an old caſtle, and a garriſon of 200 men; but was formerly celebrated as the burial-place of Pompey the Great, who was killed in its neighbourhood.

At a little diſtance from the above ſtands Raphia, which is now ſo inconſiderable, as ſcarce to deſerve mentioning. It was, however, a place of ſome account in the time of the Maccabees.

Gath was anciently the principal of the five capital cities of the Philiſtines, being the regal ſeat; but it dwindled away ſo early, that no veſtiges of it are now remaining, and it is even uncertain where it exactly ſtood. It was famed as the reſidence of the remnant of the giant race, and was the place of Goliath's nativity.

Ekron, or Ecron, was the northermoſt of all the five cities which gave names to the five lordſhips of the Philiſtines. It was once a place of great wealth and power, and frequently mentioned in the ſacred writings, but it is dwindled to nothing, and not noticed by any profane authors.

Aſhdod, or Azotus, which was ſituated about 12 miles to the north of Aſcalon, bore an extraordinary fame among the ancients. The ſituation was inland, and the circumjacent country exceedingly fertile and pleaſant. It was famous for the temple of Dagon, where was the grandeſt and moſt favoured god the Philiſtines had. To him they attributed the invention of agriculture. This city, in the times of primitive Chriſtianity, was an epiſcopal ſee, and was even a fair village in the time of St. Jerome, but at preſent no traces of it are left.

Thus have we minutely deſcribed the HOLY LAND, and amply dwelt upon many curious and intereſting particulars: but we would earneſtly recommend to our readers to compare our geographical account of the various parts of Syria, with the paſſages in which they are mentioned in the ſacred writings, when we have no doubt but they will receive infinite ſatisfaction from the compariſon.

Charm us, ye ſacred leaves, with nobler themes,
With op'ning heavens, and angels rob'd in flames.
Ye reſtleſs paſſions, while we read, be aw'd,
Hail, ye myſterious oracles of God!

Here we behold how infant time began,
How the duſt mov'd, and quicken'd into man;
Here, thro' the flow'ry walk of Eden rove,
Court the ſoft breeze, or range the ſpicy grove;
There tread on hallow'd ground, where angels trod,
And rev'rend patriarchs talk'd as friends with God;
Or hear the voice of ſlumb'ring prophets giv'n,
Or gaze on viſions from the throne of heav'n.

As we have been treating of the ſpot which gave birth to Our Bleſſed Saviour, we deem it a duty we owe to the cauſe of Chriſtianity to give the moſt important traits in the life of that ſacred character.

SECTION XX.

A ſhort Account of the Life, Doctrine, Sufferings and Death, of Our Bleſſed Lord and Saviour JESUS CHRIST.

THE temple of Janus* was ſhut; the ſceptre had departed from Judah†; and the prophecy of Daniel was accompliſhed; when God, in compaſſion towards mankind, ſent his ſon into the world to take off that guilt of ſin which defiled our nature; and the great work of our ſalvation was thus accompliſhed.

In the time of Herod, God ſent the angel Gabriel to an holy virgin, named Mary, who was eſpouſed to Joſeph of Nazareth, a city in Galilee, to inform her how highly favoured ſhe was of God. The conſummation of marriage between Joſeph and Mary had not taken place, as was the cuſtom not only among the Jews, but with many nations of the eaſt; the parties being often contracted in their infancy, but not permitted to cohabit together, till after they had been ſeveral years betrothed. Mary, however, conceived by means of the Holy Spirit, and God ſent an angel to Joſeph, to convince him of the chaſtity of his ſpouſe, and the divinity of her ſon.

During her pregnancy, ſhe travelled to Bethlehem with her huſband Joſeph, in order to be taxed, agreeable to a decree iſſued by Auguſtus Cæſar for a general capitation tax. The city was ſo crowded, that not being able to find any room in an inn, they were under the neceſſity of retiring to a ſtable, where the Holy Virgin humbly bowed her knees, and brought her firſt-born into the world.

The conception being without ſin, the production was without pain, and notice was given to the world of the nativity of a REDEEMER, by an angel and a ſtar. The angel appeared to the Jewiſh ſhepherds, and the ſtar was ſeen by the Magi, or wiſe men of the eaſt. At the expiration of eight days the bleſſed infant was circumciſed; and thus, by a few drops, gave earneſt of the abundance of blood which he was to ſhed for the purification of mankind.

In due ſeaſon the Holy Virgin preſented the Divine Infant in the temple, and redeemed him, according to the written law, with five ſhekels, and a pair of turtle doves; for Chriſt did not come into the world to overturn, but to fulfil the law. At this critical inſtant Simeon and Anna, two pious perſons, entered the temple, being ſtimulated by a divine impulſe, when they joined with great fervency in praiſing God for having ſent a Redeemer into the world. Simeon, in particular, begged to die, in the words of the celebrated canticle uſed in the liturgy of the church, and taken from Luke ii. 29. "Lord, now letteſt thou thy ſervant depart in peace, according to thy word; for mine eyes have ſeen thy ſalvation."

Herod, being informed of the birth of the child, tried, by various artifices, to get him into his power; but Joſeph, being informed of his bloody intention, had the precaution to withdraw privately into Egypt, with his wife and the holy infant, where they remained twelve years.

On their return, Jeſus, though ſo young, diſputed with the moſt learned doctors in the temple, and afterwards departed for Jordan, where he was baptized by John; when the heavens immediately opened, the Holy Ghoſt deſcended upon him in the form of a dove, and a voice was heard to pronounce the following words: "This is my beloved Son, in whom I am well pleaſed."

Soon after the Bleſſed Jeſus wrought his firſt miracle at Cana in Galilee; he then cleanſed the temple of merchants, money-changers, &c. foretold his own death and reſurrection, and convinced Nicodemus, a doctor of law, of his divine miſſion.

He then traverſed Judea with his diſciples, baptized great numbers, and repaired towards Galilee, where John was in confinement for having, in one of his ſermons, reprehended Herod for his inceſtuous marriage with his brother's wife. By the way he converſed with the Good Samaritan, and reſtored the dead child of a nobleman to life.

He now travelled throughout Galilee, healing all manner of diſeaſes, reſtoring the blind and lame to their ſight and limbs, cleanſing lepers, and doing all manner of benevolent actions. Near the lake Genezareth, being preſſed by the crowd of people, he entered into Simon's ſhip, where he preached, and commanded the miraculous draught of fiſhes.

At the pool of Bethſeda he, on a ſabbath, cured a poor paralytic man, who had been lame 38 years, bidding him, "Take up his bed and walk." The Jews exclaimed againſt this breach of the ſabbath, but Our Lord ſoon convinced them, that a work of neceſſity ought to ſuperſede a ritual command.

Jeſus ſoon after returned to Galilee, and cured a man whoſe right hand was ſhrunk up and withered. He now ſelected his twelve apoſtles, to whom, and a great multitude of people, he preached that admirable diſcourſe called "The Sermon upon the Mount," which compriſes all the great principles of the Chriſtian religion.

On the deſcent from the mount he healed a leper, and in returning to Capernaum cured a favourite ſervant of a Roman centurion. At the gate of Nain he brought to life a widow's ſon, as the people were carrying him to be buried; then dined with Simon the Phariſee, and conſoled the penitent proſtitute. In various parts of Galilee he continued comforting the afflicted, healing the diſeaſed, and inſtructing the ignorant by the moſt expreſſive parables, till he croſſed the ſea of Galilee; when a terrible ſtorm ariſing while he was aſleep in the ſhip, his diſciples waked him, when he rebuked the waves, and reſtored the ſea to a perfect calm. Landing at Trachonitis, he met two demoniacs, from whom he caſt out the devils that poſſeſſed them, who entered into an herd of ſwine, and occaſioned thoſe animals to precipitate themſelves into the ſea.

He ſoon after performed two remarkable miracles; the firſt was feeding the multitude in the deſert with five

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* Janus, the firſt king of Italy, was deified at his death, and depicted with two faces: the temple dedicated to him at Rome was always kept ſhut in times of peace, and open in times of war. It was therefore natural that the Saviour of Mankind, who brought eternal piece and ſalvation into the world ſhould be born in a time of general tranquility.

† Jacob, on his death-bed, thus propheſieth: "The ſceptre ſhall not depart from Judah, nor a law-giver from between his feet, until Shiloh come; and unto him ſhall the gathering of the people be." Gen. xlix. 10. This propheſy was accompliſhed in the moſt literal manner; for about the very time in which Chriſt was born, the Romans deprived the Jews of all regal authority, and appointed magiſtrates of their own to adminiſter juſtice throughout all Syria. Thus did the ſceptre depart from Judah, nor were the Jewiſh law-givers ſuffered to retain any authority. The latter part of the propheſy was equally accompliſhed; for although there are many flouriſhing nations of Chriſtians, the Jews are no longer a people.

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Wm. Bakewell Ben.

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TURKISH DRESSES.

1 a Bashaw of three Tails. 2 an Officer of the Janisaries. 3 Superintendant of their Kitchen.
4 a Turkish Gentleman.

TURKISH DRESSES.

1 a Nobleman in his Robes. 2 a Commander in Chief of the Sephis.
3 an Officer of the supreme Court of Judicature.

barley loaves and two fiſhes; and the ſecond was walking on the ſurface of the water, with Peter, to the ſhip in which were his other diſciples.

After performing many other miracles, and explaining his miſſion more fully to his diſciples, Jeſus, at length, at the time of the Paſſover, eat the Paſchal Lamb with his diſciples, waſhed their feet, and informed them, that one of them ſhould betray him. Judas ſoon after left them, though it was night; and then Jeſus preached his farewell ſermon to his remaining diſciples, in which he recommended ſocial love and unanamity, and foretold that Peter ſhould deny him. A multitude of armed men then ſurrounded him, and Judas kiſſed him, in order to diſtinguiſh, and thereby betray him. In the ſcuffle Peter cut off the ear of Malchus, ſervant to the high prieſt; for which Jeſus reproved him, and immediately healed the ear of Malchus by touching it.

When Jeſus was led away, all his diſciples fled, except Peter, who followed at a diſtance, and John having recovered his ſpirits, returned into the high prieſt's hall, where Jeſus was brought before Annas, who, though prince of the ſanhedrim, refuſed to judge him, but ſent him bound to Caiphas: thither Peter came, and was challenged three times by the ſervants to be a Galilean, and of the family of Jeſus, which he three times denied, and forſwore: till Jeſus looking back, reminded him of his prediction; then the cock crew, and Peter, being ſenſible of his crime, went out, and wept bitterly.

In the morning the council was to aſſemble, and while Jeſus was in cuſtody the Jews mocked him, covered his face, and having ſmote him, called upon him to tell who it was. The elders likewiſe did their endeavours to ſuborn falſe witneſſes againſt him, but were not ſo ſucceſsful as they expected in their infernal machinations.

The principal articles of accuſation, which their whole malice could invent, was only that he had ſaid he would deſtroy the temple, and in three days build it up again. To this Jeſus making no reply, Caiphas abjured him, by the living God, to ſay whether he was Chriſt the Son of God or not. To which he anſwered in the affirmative. Then Caiphas accuſed him of blaſphemy, and he was condemned to death by Pontius Pilate the Roman governor, who, though conſcious of his innocence, weakly yielded to the ſolicitations of the Jews, and delivered him up to the ſoldiers to be crucified; who firſt cruelly beat him, and ſpit in his face.

Judas, hearing the final ſentence, brought in the ſilver which they had given him as a reward for his treachery, and throwing it among them, ſaid, "I have betrayed the innocent blood." With the money they bought a field called Potter's Field, to bury ſtrangers in: and Judas went out and hanged himſelf. It is likewiſe to be obſerved, that Pontius Pilate was ſoon after depoſed by Vitellius the proconſul of Syria, on account of his great cruelties and extortions. He was afterwards baniſhed to Vincennes in Gaul, where he put a period to his miſerable exiſtence with his own hands.

Jeſus, being arrayed in a kingly robe, with a reed in his hand for a ſceptre, and a crown of thorns upon his head, was led to Golgotha, on Mount Calvary, and there crucified, with this inſcription over his head, JESUS OF NAZARETH KING OF THE JEWS*.

SECTION XXI.

Perſons, Dreſs, Food, Cuſtoms, Manners, Government, Religion, &c. of the Turks conſidered in general.

THE Turks in general are well made, and of the middle ſtature; thoſe who reſide in cities are of a complexion tolerably fair, but the peaſants, from being expoſed to the ſun are ſwarthy. Their hair and eyes are commonly black. Their features, when young, are agreeable; the women are deemed beautiful, but bear the marks of age by the time they reach thirty years, as they frequently marry at fourteen.

The uſe of paint is not common with the modeſt women, but peculiar to proſtitutes. They have, however, a general practice of blacking the inſide of their eyelids by applying a powder called Iſmed. They perform this operation with a cylindrical piece of ſilver, ſteel, or ivory, about two inches long, and of the ſize of a common probe. This they wet with water, in order that the powder may ſtick to it, and applying the middle part horizontally to the eye, ſhut the eyelids upon it, and drawing it through between them, it blackens the inſide, leaving a narrow black rim round the edge. The women alſo ſtain their hands and feet with henna, which is brought from Egypt chiefly for that purpoſe.

The women of ſome of the villages wear a large gold or ſilver ring through the external cartilage of the right noſtril, and ſome of theſe rings are at leaſt an inch and an half in diameter. Theſe people, likewiſe, mark their under lip, and ſometimes their breaſts and arms, with a blue colour, by pricking the part with a needle, and rubbing it with a certain powder, which leaves an indelible mark. A ſlender waiſt being rather conſidered as a deformity, the Turkiſh women uſe all their endeavours to render themſelves apparently plump.

The Turkiſh habit has a graceful appearance. Next the ſkin the men wear a pair of drawers, and over them a ſhirt and a doliman of ſattin, taffety, or other neat ſtuff, which reaches to their heels. In the winter this is guilped, and they girt it very tight round the waiſt with a ſaſh, in which they frequently wear two daggers, the handles and ſheaths of which are ſometimes adorned with gold and ſilver. In this girdle they alſo carry their money and their pouch for tobacco. Over the doliman they wear a kind of night-gown, which thoſe who are able line with furs in the winter. Their ſtockings are of cloth footed with red or yellow leather, and their ſhoes are of the ſame colour. On their heads they wear a crimſon velvet cap, round which they wrap a red or white turban, which is a ſcarf of linen or ſilk many ells long.

The firſt part of the womens dreſs is a pair of drawers, very full and reaching to the ſhoes ſo as to conceal

* Thoſe who would wiſh to read a full and ample account of the Life, Doctrine, Sufferings, Reſurrection and Aſcenſion of the Great Redeemer of Mankind, are referred to an excellent performance, intituled, "The Reverend "Dr. FLEETWOOD's Life of Our Bleſſed Lord and Saviour "JESUS CHRIST. Containing a full, ample, accurate, "inſtructive, and univerſal Hiſtory of every Tranſaction "in the LIFE of Our BLESSED REDEEMER, from "his taking upon himſelf our ſinful Nature, to his Cruci-"fixion, Reſurrection from the Dead, and his Glorious "Aſcenſion into Heaven. Particularly his Genealogy, In-"carnation, Preſervation, Circumciſion, Preſentation, "Divine Miſſion, Baptiſm, Faſting, Temptation, Mi-"niſtry, Sufferings, Doctrine, Calling the Apoſtles, Mi-"racles, Parables, Charity, Meekneſs, Travels, Trans-"figuration, Paſſion, Inſtitution of the Sacrament, Cru-"cifixion, Burial, Reſurrection, Appearance and Aſcen-"ſion. Together with the Lives, Tranſactions and Suf-"ferings of his Holy Evangeliſts, Apoſtles, Diſciples, and "other Primitive Martyrs, who have ſealed the great truth "of Chriſtianity with their Blood. Including the Trans-"actions of John the Baptiſt, the great Forerunner of the "Meſſiah; as alſo the Life of the Bleſſed Virgin Mary, &c. "To which is added, A Full Defence of the Chriſtian "Religion, in which the Evidences of Chriſtianity are "fully ſtated, the New Teſtament proved to be Genuine, "and the Religion of the Great Redeemer of Mankind, "truly Divine. The whole properly adapted to promote "the Knowledge of our Holy Religion, a firm Faith in the "Merits of Our Bleſſed Redeemer, and the Practice of "every Chriſtian Virtue."——This excellent Work is beautifully printed in Quarto, and compleated in only 25 Weekly Numbers, Price 6d. each, embelliſhed with a Set of admirable Copper Plates, properly adapted to diſplay the moſt ſolemn and intereſting Subjects contained in this Divine Hiſtory.—Publiſhed by C. Cooke, No. 17, Paternoſter-Row.

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the legs. Over this is the ſhift, with wide ſleeves hanging half way down the arm, and cloſed at the neck with a button; but the ſhape and colour of the boſom are very well to be diſtinguiſhed through it. They have a long waiſtcoat made cloſe to the ſhape, with very long ſleeves falling back, compoſed of materials and ornaments according to their reſpective abilities. They have a robe exactly fitted to the ſhape, and reaching to the feet, with very long ſtrait falling ſleeves. This is girt with a girdle of about four inches broad, which all that can afford have ſuperbly ornamented. The *curdee* is a looſe robe, which they throw off or put on according to the weather, lined with ermine or ſable, the ſleeves reaching very little below the ſhoulders.

The head-dreſs is compoſed of a cap called *talpoc*, which is, in winter, of fine velvet, and in ſummer of a light ſtuff. This is fixed on one ſide of the head, hanging a little way down, with a taſſal bound with a circle of diamonds, or a rich embroidered handkerchief. On the other ſide of the head the hair is laid flat, and here is an opportunity for the diſplay of fancy, ſome putting flowers, others a plume of feathers; but the moſt general faſhion among the great is a large bouquet of jewels, made like natural flowers. The hair hangs at its full length behind, divided into treſſes, braided with pearl or ribbon, which is always in great quantity.

No woman, let her rank be what it will, is permitted to go into the ſtreets without two *murlins*; one that hides the whole dreſs of their heads, and hangs half way down their backs; and another that covers all the face but the eyes. Their ſhapes are alſo entirely concealed by a *ferigee*, which no woman of any ſort appears without. This has long ſleeves that reach to their finger ends, and wraps round them like a riding hood. By this means they are ſo diſguiſed, that a woman of the firſt rank cannot be diſtinguiſhed from her ſlave: and it is impoſſible for the moſt jealous huſband to know his wife when he meets her; no man daring to touch or follow a woman in the ſtreet.

Notwithſtanding this ſeeming reſerve, the Turkiſh women lead a life of pleaſure, exempt from cares. Their whole time is ſpent in viſiting, bathing, or the agreeable amuſement of ſpending money, and inventing new methods of adorning their perſons. A huſband would be thought mad, that exacted any degree of œconomy from his wife, whoſe expences are only limitted by her fancy. It is his buſineſs to get money, and hers to ſpend it; and this prerogative extends to the meaneſt of the ſex. Indeed, they have no places of reſort but the bagnios, and there can only be ſeen by their own ſex. However, they are fond of dreſs, and take great pleaſure in frequenting the baths.

With reſpect to food, the Turks are not ſo abſtemious as is generally imagined. They uſe the ſame articles, and obſerve the ſame forms and ceremonies, with reſpect to fare, times of eating and drinking, manner of ſerving, &c. as already deſcribed under the article of Aleppo, together with other particulars, which we ſhall therefore paſs over, and advert only to ſuch as are not ſpecified under that head.

Thoſe among the Turks who have once given themſelves up to the immoderate uſe of opium, are eaſily known by a kind of rickets which this poiſon never fails to produce at laſt. Not able to exiſt agreeably, except in this ſpecies of intoxication, theſe perſons are particular objects of curioſity, when they are aſſembled in a part of Conſtantinople called *Terikay Tcharchiſſy*, or the market for the takers of opium.

There, towards the evening, the lovers of this drug are ſeen coming down the ſtreets which lead to the *ſolimany*. Their pale and melancholy figures would be ſufficient to raiſe pity, did not their lengthened necks, their heads turned on one ſide, their back bone diſtorted, their ſhoulder raiſed up to the ear, and a number of other extravagant attitudes which reſult from their diſeaſe, exhibit a picture of the moſt ridiculous nature.

A long row of little ſhops are built againſt one of the walls that ſurround the ſquare within which is the moſque. Theſe ſhops are ſhaded by an arbour which reaches from one to the other, and under which the maſter takes care to place a little ſopha, to accommodate his gueſts, without ſtopping up the paſſage. The cuſtomers arrive and place themſelves in order, to take the doſe which the habits each of them have contracted renders neceſſary.

The pills are diſtributed. Thoſe moſt uſed to the practice, perhaps, ſwallow four very large ones, and each immediately drinking a glaſs of cold water, waits in his particular attitude. An agreeable reverie at the end of three quarters of an hour, or an hour at moſt, never fails to animate theſe mere moving figures, cauſing them to throw themſelves in a thouſand different poſtures, but always extravagant, and always merry. This is the moment when the ſcene becomes moſt intereſting. All the actors are happy, and each returns home in a ſtate of local irrationality, but likewiſe in the entire and full enjoyment of happineſs not to be procured by reaſon. Diſregarding the ridicule of thoſe they meet, who divert themſelves by making them talk abſurdly, each imagines, and looks, and feels himſelf poſſeſſed of whatever he wiſhes. The reality of enjoyment often gives leſs ſatisfaction.

Though intoxication impels and enables the Turks to commit many outrages, and though their laws forbid the uſe of wine, there are, and have been for years paſt, in their capital cities, public taverns, and government impoſes a tax on, and protects them. Thoſe of the Turks who go there generally get drunk; and the conſumption of the wine becomes a revenue of the treaſury, and is farmed by an intendant. This officer receives the entrance duties; but the regulation of the taverns, and the tax they pay, appertains to the firſt magiſtrate and particular governor of the quarters where they are ſituated. Their police affixes the ſeal to the door of every tavern; but a little wicker is contrived underneath, which they pretend to overlook, and affords an entrance always open and public. It requires only a little ſtooping to evade the law, and get drunk unmoleſted.

The Turks have no inclination to exerciſe, either for the preſervation of health, or curing of diſeaſes. They laugh at the Europeans for taking a walk, deeming it ridiculous to walk merely for the ſake of amuſement. Indeed, it is with reluctance they uſe exerciſe either for buſineſs or pleaſure. An European ambaſſador once giving an entertainment to all the foreign miniſters and Europeans ſettled at Conſtantinople, excited the curioſity of ſome Turks of diſtinction, who expreſſed the greateſt wonder and aſtoniſhment (not to ſay contempt) at ſeeing ſome of the firſt characters among the Europeans ſtand up to take a part in the dances on the occaſion. To walk or ride to their gardens, where they are ſituated at a ſmall diſtance, once or twice a week, at the proper ſeaſons, is as much as moſt of them care to do. The people of rank, however, though not fond of walking, are very active on horſeback, and dexterous at ſeveral equeſtrian manœuvres.

The Turkiſh muſic conſiſts of two ſorts, one for the field, and the other for the chamber. The firſt is performed before the great military officers, and alſo uſed in their garriſons. It conſiſts of trumpets, cymbals, heautboys, and large drums, the upper head of which is beat upon with a heavy drum-ſtick, and the lower with a ſmall ſwitch. Beſides theſe, they have ſmall drums, which are beat upon after the manner of our kettle-drums, and this muſic has a good effect at a diſtance. Their chamber muſic conſiſts of a guittar, an Arab fiddle, a dulcimer, the derviſes flute, which is blown in a very particular manner, a couple of ſmall drums, and the diff, an inſtrument which ſerves to beat time to the voice, which is frequently the worſt of all their muſic; for many of them bellow ſo hideouſly, as to ſpoil what would otherwiſe be harmonious. As the Turks are unacquainted with the method of writing muſic by notes, they are obliged to learn entirely by the

the ear. However, when ſeveral perſons play together, they keep exact time, all playing the alike; for they have neither baſs, nor any other parts in muſic. The Turkiſh ballets are very pleaſing and entertaining, both for their figures, and the variety of their ſteps; and the dancers are elegantly and lightly habited.

In all the capital places of Turkey are numbers of public bagnios, frequented by people of all ſects and conditions, except thoſe of very diſtinguiſhed rank, who have generally baths in their own houſes. The conſtruction of theſe private baths are worthy deſcription.

Two ſmall chambers, built with brick, and faced with marble or plaiſter, communicate, and are each enlightened by ſmall cupolas, cut in chequers. This little edifice is commonly joined to the houſe by a ſmall room, in which they undreſs. Double doors, folding over and liſted with telt, ſhut in the firſt and ſecond part of the ſtove.

A wood fire is kept up in a ſubterraneous vault, the entrance of which is without. This fire-place is under the farthermoſt chamber, and heats a cauldron immediately beneath the marble floor, which ſerves as a ceiling to the vault. Pipes, placed within the walls, come from the inſide of the cauldron, and go out at the cupola, to evaporate the water, which is kept continually boiling. Other tubes, communicating with a reſervoir, are likewiſe contained within the brick work, and furniſh the inſide with cold water, by means of cocks placed at the ſide of thoſe which yield the warm water. Small ſeats of ſmooth wood are made to ſit on; and drains cut in the marble, to carry off the water which is thrown down.

Theſe private baths thus heated twenty-four hours before they are uſed, by being thus conſtructed, have ſo great a degree of heat, that, after being entirely undreſſed in the exterior chamber, and having put on very high ſandals of wood, to keep the feet from being burnt by the marble floor, it is impoſſible to enter the firſt room, without ſtopping a moment between the two doors, and let the lungs dilate; after which it is impoſſible to enter the ſecond ſtove, under which the heat is moſt active, without taking the ſame precautions; and it is probable that the air of this room bears the ſame proportion to that of the firſt, as this does to the external air. A ſudden perſpiration ruſhing through all the pores, is felt immediately as they are entered: but the violence of this heat does not prevent the women from ſtaying in theſe baths five or ſix hours together, and returning to them very frequently.

Thoſe who have not private baths, go to the public ones, which are always prepared, and contrived in ſuch a manner, as to contain a great number of people. Some of the women, more delicate and ſcrupulous than the reſt, take the bath for themſelves alone, and go thither with their particular friends. To complete the entertainment, they carry with them their proviſions. Their pleaſures conſiſt in enjoying greater liberty than they could otherwiſe proſibly procure.

Bathing women, named *tellecks*, with their hands wrapped in little bags of ſerge, rub the ſkin till it is dry. They likewiſe make uſe of a very fine clay, mixed with roſe leaves, and afterwards dried in the ſun, as a kind of ſoap, with which they rub the head, pouring on it warm water from large metal baſons. The womens hair thus cleanſed and perfumed is afterwards tied up in a great number of ſmall treſſes.

Theſe public baths are likewiſe frequented by the men, but at different hours from thoſe ſet apart for the women; as it is death for any of the former to enter the bath when the latter are there. It is moſt certain that a too frequent uſe of theſe ſtoves, at length opens the pores to ſuch a degree, as to render them viſible. It is equally certain, that ſo violent an opening of the fibres brings on decripitude before old age.

The Turkiſh women are inexorable, when the audacity of a man means nothing more than an inſult; but it is impoſſible to conſider, without horror, the diſmal conſequences of the blind paſſions to which they are ſometimes a prey.

We do not here ſpeak of thoſe women who ſo frequently ſell their charms, and whoſe mutilated dead bodies are ſo often ſeen in the environs of cities, a circumſtance that may be accounted for on the principles of avarice or fear in the men, but of thoſe women of a more exalted rank, whom an irreſiſtible fury overpowers, and who eſcape ſecretly from their harams or ſeraglios. Theſe unfortunate creatures always carry off with them their jewels, and think nothing too good for their lover. Blinded by their unhappy paſſion, they do not perceive that this very wealth becomes the cauſe of their diſtruction. The ſeducers to whom they fly ſeldom fail, at the end of a few days, to puniſh their temerity, and inſure the poſſeſſion of their effects, by a crime which, however monſtrous, the government is leaſt in haſte to puniſh. The bodies of theſe miſerable women, ſtripd and mangled, are frequently ſeen floating in the ports under the very windows of their murderers; and theſe dreadful examples, ſo likely to intimidate the reſt, and prevent ſuch madneſs, ſeldom terrify or amend.

With reſpect to literature in general, the Turks are extremely ignorant, ſome few of thoſe who are bred to divinity and law excepted, the profeſſors of both which pretend to have ſkill in phyſic. The few who underſtand aſtronomy, ſo far as to be able to calculate the time of an eclipſe, and are looked upon as extraordinary perſons: but there are many pretenders to judicial aſtrology, in which the Turks have great faith.

They have many colleges, but few proficients in ſcience. Their phyſicians are native Chriſtians, and a few Jews; for the Turks rarely make this their profeſſion. They have a very imperfect idea of anatomy, and are totally ignorant of the uſe of chemiſtry in medicine. Their libraries in fine are few, and the uſe of them rare.

The Turkiſh government is deſpotic in the extreme, and military authority held in the utmoſt awe, even that of ſubaltern degree.

An ancient cuſtom, the origin and uſe of which are ſcarcely known, has mixed the moſt inſipid buffoonry with the act of aſſembling together the forces of this vaſt empire. This ridiculous ceremony is called by the Turks *ala*, that is, "the triumph." It conſiſts in a kind of maſquerade, in which each trade ſucceſſively preſents to the ſpectators the mechanical exerciſe of its reſpective art. The huſbandman draws his plough, the weaver handles his ſhuttle, and the joiner his plane; and theſe different characters, ſeated in cars richly ornamented, commence the proceſſion, and precede the ſtandard of Mahomet, when it is brought out of the ſeraglio to be carried to the army, in order to inſure victory to the Ottoman troops.

The banner of the Turks is ſo revered among them, that, notwithſtanding its reputation has been ſo often tarniſhed, it ſtill retains their implicit confidence, and is the ſacred ſignal unto which they rally. Every thing proclaims its ſanctity. None but the emirs, who are its guards, are allowed to touch it, and it is carried by their chief. The Muſſelmen alone are permitted to look upon it. If touched by other hands, it would be defiled: if ſeen by other eyes, prophaned. In fine, they maintain the moſt ridiculous opinions concerning it.

Tyrannically deſpotic as is this government, the oppreſſed ſubjects have, upon all occaſions of public rejoicing, intervals of tranſient happineſs. It is plain that a government which ſeems in its own nature deſtructive of joy, can no otherway produce its appearance, than by diſappearing itſelf; and mankind, ever eaſy to be deceived, and ready to graſp at each flattering illuſion, as ſoon as they looſe the ſight of tyrants, take advantage of the opportunity to enjoy the feeble and tranſitory ſemblance of felicity. Theſe people, therefore, give themſelves up, on theſe occaſions, to all the intemperance of mirth, and paſs at once from oppreſſion to happineſs, and from humiliation to inſolence.

We ſhall give a deſcription, as brief as poſſible, of this ſcene.

Upon a public rejoicing, the manſions of the great are elegantly decorated, and ſuperbly illuminated. The houſes of private perſons are likewiſe embelliſhed according to the importance or vanity of the proprietor.

The palace of the viſir, and that of the janiſſary aga, are above all remarkable for the ſumptuouſneſs of the decorations, and the profuſion of toys which are abſurdly mixed with the richeſt ornaments. It is impoſſible to ſee, without aſtoniſhment, the hall of the divan, that dreaded tribunal, decked out in the moſt ludicrous manner for ſome days. Perſons who might be expected to be moſt grave, from their age, and the importance of their employments, are pleaſed as much as the vulgar with ſuch trivial and puerile repreſentations. Profuſion ſo great amongſt the miniſters and grandees muſt, no doubt, lead us to imagine, that in this particular, the illumination of the ſeraglio exceeds all the reſt. But in this, by ſo judging, we greatly err; for every thing in the city proclaims deſpotiſm to have looſed its reins to the utmoſt extent of fantaſtic joy. It is eaſy to be perceived by the melancholy aſpect of the firſt court of the ſeraglio, that within this formidable circle ſtill remains the impenetrable receſs in which that dreaded power waits in reſtleſs expectation, for the inſtant when it ſhall diſpel this intoxication of momentary liberty, which has ſeized on every individual.

The exceſſive gaiety of the common people muſt indeed be conſidered as a tranſport of phrenzy. Many perſons in office have comedies acted before their houſes the whole time. The ſubjects of theſe are various, but always indecent, and give great ſatisfaction to the people. If morals are but little regarded in theſe diverſions, the government meets not with more reſpect. Nor are the manners of the prince, and thoſe of his attendants, exempt from raillery.

An European ſpectator obſerves, that their fire works are very indifferent, and give no indication of the genius of the artificers. The applauſe, however, is reſerved for the moment when the unfortunate Greeks or Jews, who are hired to wear the European habit, and defend an aſſault with ſome ſerpents, which ammunition being ſoon exhauſted, they are attacked and buffeted on account of their dreſs, with as many blows as the laws of war authoriſe, and which they are not allowed to return. During the whole time of rejoicing, which uſually continues about three days, deſpotiſm is conſtrained to pay reſpect to liberty, till the time having expired, the rod of authority again appears, and order is re-eſtabliſhed.

With reſpect to the Turkiſh legiſlature, the firſt law is, that every thing muſt be decided by the teſtimony of witneſſes. With theſe, then, both plaintiff and defendant muſt be equally provided: but there are few law-ſuits without falſe witneſſes. The art of the judge is employed in diſcovering to which of the parties he ſhall allow the right of affirming, and this firſt judgement decides the cauſe; for if one party denies, the other is permitted to prove. If, therefore, a man is ſued by another he never ſaw, for a debt he never owed, he will be obliged to pay the ſuer, on the depoſition of two Turkiſh witneſſes, who ſhall affirm their knowledge of the debt. The only defence that can be made in ſuch a caſe, is to admit the debt was due, but aſſert that it had been paid. If the judge will admit of the party's producing witneſſes, they may eaſily be procured, and it will not only coſt a trifling compenſation to thoſe who have taken the trouble to perjure themſelves, and ten per cent. to the judge by whoſe means the cauſe is gained. He who gains the day always pays the coſts. The puniſhment appointed for falſe witneſſes, is to be led through the ſtreets upon an aſs, but it is rarely executed.

One apparent good property of the civil law among the Turks, is the right which every individual poſſeſſes of pleading his own cauſe. But this privilege is of very little advantage in a country where the judgement is arbitrary.

With reſpect to the law of criminals, it is a ſhocking truth that theſe monſters are more favourably uſed; for that law which condemns the murderer to loſe his life, permits, at the ſame time, the neareſt relations of the murdered to grant him a pardon. The criminal is conducted to the place of puniſhment: the executioner takes on him likewiſe the office of mediator, and negociates till the laſt minute with the next of kin to the deceaſed, or his wife, who commonly follows to be preſent at the execution. If the propoſals are refuſed, the ſentence is executed; if accepted, the criminal is re-conducted to the tribunal to receive his pardon. But an accommodation very ſeldom takes place, as there is a kind of ſcandal annexed to the ſelling the blood of relations.

To render robbers on the highway puniſhable, they muſt be taken in the commiſſion of ſome daring crime. The territories of the Grand Seignor are infeſted with banditti who commit the greateſt enormities; and the efforts of government ſerve too often only to diſperſe them, and drive them farther from the capital. If they commit robberies, or even murders, in a village, the cadi goes thither, and lays a fine on the inhabitants, without troubling himſelf to take the offenders. On this account the country people take care to conceal the robberies that have been committed from the judges, whoſe preſence is more dangerous to them than the thieves.

From the low ebb of commerce, and the oppreſſion of the great, the artiſans are often deprived of work: and the want of employment, joined with poverty, lead the populace to every kind of miſchief. The hope of pillage, and deſire of avenging themſelves of the rich, multiply incendiaries. Theſe, to effect their purpoſe, commonly uſe *coundaks*, which conſiſt of a ſmall bundle of ſplinters of pinewood, in the middle of which are ſome combuſtibles, wrapped up in cotton dipt in ſulphur. This they ſecretly place behind a door which they find open, or in a window, and having ſet it on fire, make off. No more is neceſſary to cauſe the moſt terrible ravages in cities where the houſes being built of wood, and painted with oil of aſpic, are eaſily reduced to aſhes, by the firſt villain who makes the attempt.

The doctrine of the Koran, which enjoins ſubmiſſion to the decrees of Providence, from the following inſtance, ſeems improper to make part of a criminal code. A Turk having killed a Chriſtian by a violent blow with a club on the ſkull, the judge, after conſidering the inſtrument employed in committing the murder, declared it could not cauſe the death of the Chriſtian without the particular interference of Providence, which mortals had no right to oppoſe. If the Chriſtian had committed the murder in queſtion on the body of a Turk, would the Judge have ever conſidered him as the executor of a divine decree?

Each quarter has its tribunal, in which a cadi, attended by a clerk, ſits all day long, to hear complaints, and adminiſter juſtice, which is the more ſpeedy, as the payment of the expences immediately follows the ſentence.

The ſtambol effendiſſi, or effendi, as lieutenant of the police, fixes the prices of commodities, proclaims them, and takes care, either by himſelf or delegate, that the weights and meaſures are honeſt. Delinquents are condemned to the baſtinado, or ſome ſevere puniſhment. Bakers ſometimes have an ear nailed to their ſhop, or are hanged, according to the caprice of the judge. But theſe, for a compenſation, procure ſubſtitutes, who become amenable to the law in their ſtead, which, if they cannot evade, they muſt of courſe ſuffer. There is an inſtance on record, of a baker, who, having been proved guilty of making bread deficient in weight, as well as being concerned with others in raiſing the price of that neceſſary article of life, was by order of the Grand Seignior, baked alive in his own oven. Puniſhments, however, are not ſo frequently inflicted in general caſes as they are deſerved.

The following anecdote will furniſh an idea of the value of property in Turkey. One of the Ottoman princes having determined to build a moſque upon a particular ſpot, found no difficulty in making the neceſſary purchaſes with the houſes on the premiſes, till a Jew, who poſſeſſed a houſe of ſmall value in the center, refuſe to part with it at any price. Large offers were made, but the Jew remained inflexible, his obſtinacy prevailing over his avarice. The courtiers pleaſed themſelves with the expectation of ſeeing the Jew's houſe eraſed, and himſelf dragged to puniſhment. But, contrary to general example, the prince deſcended from the throne to conſult the law, and wrote thus to the Mufti: "A man deſires to build a temple; all the Muſſelmen, proprietors of the ground on which it is to be erected, are in haſte to participate of ſo good a work. One man only, and he a Jew, refuſes all offers. What puniſhment does he deſerve?" None, replied the Mufti: property is ſacred without diſtinction of individuals, and a temple may not be erected in violation of ſo holy a law. As it appears to be the deſire of the Jew to tranſmit his property to his deſcendants, and it is the right of the ſovereign to inſiſt on hiring any ground he may chooſe, a contract for the hire of the ground muſt be made out to this Jew and his deſcendants: then the houſe may be pulled down, and the temple built, without fear that the prayers of the Muſſelmen offered therein ſhould be rejected. The decree of the Mufti was executed.

The law concerning ſlaves ſubmits them to the will of the buyer, exhorts to uſe them well, and ſell them when diſſatisfied. The evidence of ſlaves cannot be received either for or againſt their maſters.

The ladies of the haram, or ſeraglio, are a collection of beautiful young women ſent as preſents from different provinces. Their number depends on the taſte of the reigning monarch. It has been from 200 to 300. On their admiſſion they are committed to the care of eunuchs and old ladies, taught every accompliſhment, and furniſhed with the richeſt clothes. They ſleep in ſeparate beds, and between every fifth there is a preceptreſs. They are allowed no ſervants, and therefore obliged to wait on one another by rotation. They are ſcarcely ever ſuffered to go abroad, except when the Grand Seignior removes from one place to another, when a troop of black eunuchs conveys them to the boats, which are encloſed with lattices and linen curtains. When they go by land they are put into cloſe chariots, and ſignals are made at certain diſtances to give notice that none approach the roads through which they march. Among the emperor's attendants are numbers of mutes, who act and converſe by ſigns, and ſome dwarfs for his own diverſion.

The Turks have their forbidden meats as well as the Jews. Their law obliges them to waſh and drain the blood from thoſe animals which they eat. It likewiſe forbids them certain parts of the animal, ſuch as the liver, lights, &c. The butchers muſt, therefore, provide for the ſale of theſe articles, which can only be of uſe to the Chriſtians.

The dgiherdgis (or ſellers of liver) carry on their ſhoulders a long ſtick, to which they hang their commodity, and cry it through the ſtreets, by no means ſparing for noiſe, but never diſtribute it gratis. The number of ſheep killed (as the Turks are not fond of beef) neceſſarily produces many of theſe dealers in liver, who go about and ſell it wholeſale to the Chriſtians, who eat it, and in ſmall quantities to the old women who are fond of their cats.

In treating of the religion of the Turks we ſhall not enter into a detail of the particular doctrines of Mahometaniſm, as that has been given in our account of Perſia, in which we have alſo pointed out the difference between the religion of the Perſians and the Turks.

The Turks name their children as ſoon as they are born: they do not circumciſe them till they are eleven or twelve, and ſometimes fourteen or fifteen years of age. The operation is attended with ſome ceremony and much pain. Thoſe who are uncircumciſed, whether Turkiſh children or Chriſtians, are not allowed to be preſent at public prayers, and if they are found in moſques they are liable to be burnt.

The Turks obſerve the Feaſt of Ramezan in the ſame manner as the Perſians, the next new moon after which they keep the Feaſt of Bairam, which is publiſhed by firing of guns, bonfires, and other rejoicings. The feſtival laſt three days, during which the people are entertained with muſic vocal and inſtrumental, and fireworks; and many women, who are, in a manner, confined the reſt of the year, have liberty to go abroad. At this time they forgive their enemies, and become reconciled to them; for they think they have made a bad Bairam if they harbour the leaſt malice in their hearts againſt any perſon whatever.

To our learned and ingenious correſpondent mentioned on a former occaſion we are indebted for the following account of the feaſt of Tulips, ſo called becauſe it conſiſts in illuminating a garden, and this flower is that which the Turks moſt admire. The account, indeed, was communicated to his lady by a ſultana, whoſe good graces ſhe poſſeſſed; for no European could poſſibly gain admittance to the interior part of the haram.

The garden of the haram which is very extenſive, and laid out in elegant taſte, is the place where theſe nocturnal entertainments are given. Vaſes of various kinds, filled with natural and artificial flowers, are brought for the occaſion, and add to the ſplendor of an illumination cauſed by an infinite number of lanterns, coloured lamps and wax candles, in glaſs tubes reflected on every ſide by mirrors diſpoſed for that purpoſe. Shops erected for the rejoicing, and furniſhed with different kinds of wares, are occupied by the women of the haram, who repreſent in proper dreſſes dealers, and offer the goods they contain to ſale. The ſultanas, whether ſiſters, neices, or couſins of the emperor, are invited by him to partake of this amuſement, and they as well as his highneſs purchaſe in theſe ſhops trinkets and toys, of which they make each other preſents. They likewiſe extend their generoſity to the women of the Grand Seignior, who are admitted to the diverſion, or who occupy the ſhops. The dances, muſic, &c. prolong the entertainment till night is far advanced, and ſpread a kind of momentary gaiety over a place which ſeems, in every other reſpect, devoted to ſadneſs and diſcontent.

They have other feſtivals, on all which the ſteeples of the moſques are adorned with lamps placed in various figures. They pray five times a day, and uſe the ſame ablutions as the Perſians.

The greateſt cement of friendſhip and aſſurance of fidelity among the Turks conſiſts in this ceremony. The party who wiſhes to pledge his faith to another calls for ſome bread and ſalt, which being brought, he takes a little of the ſalt between his fingers, and putting it with a myſterious air on a piece of bread, eats it with a devout gravity, aſſuring his friend that he may implicitly rely upon him. The Turks hold it the blackeſt ingratitude to forget the man from whom they have received food, which is ſignified by the bread and ſalt in the ceremony.

There are a few monaſteries of derviſes, of which in Turkey there are two kinds. The difference ariſes from the difference of the rules impoſed on them by their reſpective founders. That of the Mewliach derviſes is to turn round like a whirligig, and ſeek a kind of religious intoxication in the giddineſs which muſt naturally reſult from this abſurd exerciſe. The rule of the other derviſes, named Tacta-Tepen, is more melancholy, and borders on barbarity. It conſiſts in walking ſolemnly in a row, and uttering a religious invocation with a loud voice and much exertion at each ſtroke on a drum beaten for the purpoſe. They ſometimes undergo violent labour of the lungs, and many at the cloſe of the proceſſion vomit blood. Their appearance is ſad and ſurly, and there is an auſterity in their general deportment which indicates that they look upon the reſt of mankind with the utmoſt contempt.

There

There are likewiſe in Turkey other monks who, under the maſk of religion, practiſe the moſt flagrant enormities, and levy contributions on the fanatical and deluded public, nor are the moſt enlightened exempt from their impoſitions.

The marriages of the Turks, as among other eaſtern nations, are uſually brought about by the women, who treat for the reſpective ſexes. When the preliminaries are ſettled, the father of the young man makes a formal demand of the female, and a licence is procured from the cadi for their marriage. Each of the parties then appoint a proxy, who meet the Imaum, or prieſt, and ſeveral of the male relations, and after examining witneſſes to prove that thoſe proxies are regularly appointed, he aſks the one if he will be willing to purchaſe the bride for ſuch a ſum, and the other if he be ſatisfied with the ſame. Being anſwered in the affirmative, he joins the hands, and the money being paid, the ceremony is concluded with a prayer out of the Koran. The nuptials are then celebrated with feſtivity. Among the Turks it is a greater diſgrace to be married and not fruitful, than it is with Europeans for a woman to be fruitful before marriage.

Upon the death of a Turk the women burſt into ſhrieks which they continue till the corpſe is interred. In carrying it to the grave a number of men with tattered banners walk firſt; then come the male friends, and after them the corpſe upon mens ſhoulders. The women cloſe the proceſſion with dreadful ſhrieks, while the men are all the way employed in chanting prayers out of the Koran. In this order they proceed to a moſque, where the bier is ſet down in the court-yard, and ſervice is ſaid by the Imaum, after which the corpſe is carried in the ſame order to the burying-place, which is generally in the fields, and there entered with the face towards Mecca.

The neareſt relations pray at the grave on the third, ſeventh and fortieth days after the interment, and alſo that day twelvemonth after the perſon's deceaſe, and on each of thoſe days a quantity of proviſions is dreſſed and given to the poor.

The men wear no mourning, but the women dreſs in their graveſt coloured cloaths, and wear a head-dreſs of a dark colour. Their jewels, and all other ornaments are laid aſide for the ſpace of twelve months when they mourn for a huſband, and ſix if it be for a father. Theſe periods are not, however, very ſtrictly obſerved upon all occaſions: but before the widow can marry again, ſhe muſt mourn for forty days without leaving the houſe, or ſpeaking to any perſon more than is abſolutely neceſſary: and this prohibition extends even to her neareſt relations.

SECTION XXII.

A compendious Hiſtory of the Turks.

THAT warlike and hardy race of people, who inhabited the vaſt country known to the ancients by the name of Scythia, have, at different periods, extended their conqueſts over the more ſouthern and fertile parts of Aſia. One tribe of theſe people called Turks, or Turcomans, which ſignifies *wanderers*, who uſed to ramble from one country to another with their flocks and herds, but reſided chiefly north of the Palus Mæotis and the Euxine Seas, in the eighth century travelled ſouthward, and ſettled in Georgia, between the Euxine and the Caſpian Seas, where they continued about 200 years.

About the year of Chriſt 1000 they removed farther ſouthward into Armenia, the name of which they changed for that of Turcomania. They ſoon after ſubdued Bagdad, ravaged Perſia, and made themſelves maſters of the northern provinces of Arabia: they were at this time all pagans; but their leader Tangrolipire thought proper to turn Mahometan through political motives, well knowing that a ſovereign of a different religious perſuaſion is never agreeable to the generality of the people. The Turks then proceeded to invade the territories of the Grecian emperor in Aſia Minor, where they conquered ſeveral cities, as the Saracens had done in Syria, Paleſtine and Egypt.

The Chriſtians being greatly oppreſſed, the emperor of Conſtantinople, who was then at the head of the Aſiatic Chriſtians, implored the aſſiſtance of the different ſovereigns of Europe, in order to oppoſe both the Turks and Saracens.

The pope intereſted himſelf in the affair, and the clergy in general did their endeavours to excite an emulation, by which the Holy Land might be reſcued from the hands of the infidels.

All Europe took the alarm, and in the year of Chriſt 1096 the firſt cruſade commenced, when an aſtoniſhing multitude, to the number of near 800,000, engaged in the enterprize, and proceeded towards Paleſtine: but, as they had not conſidered the length of the journey, nor how they were to ſubſiſt till they arrived in the enemies country, above half of them periſhed by the way; ſome being taken off by ſickneſs, others by famine, and others by the ſword, even in Chriſtian countries through which they marched: for as they obſerved but little order, and committed many depredations, the natives were frequently obliged to ſtand upon the defenſive, and repel force by force.

Many of thoſe who arrived at Conſtantinople, were, indeed, but a confuſed multitude, without diſcipline, or ſubordination in their leaders. The more regular troops followed, and proceeded with greater caution, under the conduct of Godfrey of Boulogne, and other commanders celebrated for their military exploits. Theſe arrived at Conſtantinople in tolerable order; but their numbers greatly ſurpriſed the Grecian emperor, who began to be more afraid of them, than he had before been of the infidels; and, inſtead of joining his armies to them, as he had previouſly promiſed, contrived, by every ſiniſter means, to diſtreſs them. He durſt not deny the ſhipping which he had promiſed to tranſport the troops, leſt he ſhould feel the reſentment of the commanders, who had great reaſon to be diſpleaſed at his treacherous conduct.

On muſtering the troops, it appeared that the Chriſtians had 100,000 horſe, and near twice that number of foot. This vaſt army began its operations by beſieging Nice in Bithynia, to relieve which, Sultan Solyman marched, but was totally defeated, when the place ſurrendered, and was put into the Grecian emperor's hands, as had been previouſly agreed.

The Chriſtians then proceeded towards Antioch, when Sultan Solyman, at the head of 200,000 men, gave them battle, but was totally defeated. Antioch was ſoon after taken; but the Chriſtian leaders did not chooſe to put it into the hands of the emperor of Conſtantinople, as his perfidy had repeatedly diſguſted them. They then marched to Jeruſalem, which they inveſted with only 50,000 men, their numbers being ſo far reduced; and the garriſon at the ſame time was more numerous than the beſiegers. The arrival of a fleet of Engliſh, Norman, Flemiſh, and Genoeſe ſhips, however, gave new ſpirit to their operations, by bringing them a freſh ſupply of men. The outward wall was ſoon carried by ſtorm, and the city itſelf was ſoon after taken ſword in hand, when Godfrey of Boulogne was crowned king of Jeruſalem. This ſovereign ſoon ſubdued Ptolemais, Ceſaræa, Antipatris, Aſkalon, &c. but he died within a year after his coronation, and Baldwin of Brugenſis ſucceeded him, A. D. 1100. In his reign the Chriſtians took the city of Tyre, and obtained three victories over the infidels: he then laid ſiege to the city of Damaſcus, but proved unſucceſsful in his attempt. After reigning 30 years he died, and was ſucceeded by Fulk, earl of Anjou, in the year 1131. In this reign the Chriſtians began to quarrel among themſelves; but Fulk, being killed by a fall from his horſe, his eldeſt ſon was elected king in the year 1142, under the title of Baldwin the Second, but being then only 13 years of age, his mother was joined with him in the adminiſtration of public affairs. The

The Chriſtians, who had been in poſſeſſion of the Holy Land, and countries adjacent, more than forty years, had eſtabliſhed four diſtinct kingdoms, viz.

1. The kingdom of Edeſſa, which comprehended the countries on the banks of the Euphrates. 2. The kingdom of Tripoli, which was near the ſea coaſt. 3. The kingdom of Antioch. 4. The kingdom of Jeruſalem.

Sanguin, ſultan of Aleppo, and afterwards Noradin, his ſon, took advantage of the continual diſcords among the Chriſtians, and retook many of the conquered places, which occaſioned the Chriſtians again to call in the aſſiſtance of the European ſovereigns. Upon which invitation, Conrad, emperor of Germany, at the head of 100,000 men, undertook the expedition. But the Grecian emperor proving as great an enemy to him as the infidels, he loſt the greateſt part of his army, and returned home greatly diſappointed.

Saladin, ſultan of Damaſcus, had great ſucceſs againſt the Chriſtians, and, in 1187, took Jeruſalem. This engaged Frederic, emperor of Germany, in another cruſade. But the imperial forces, who were for ſome time ſucceſsful, were at length viſited by the plague, which deſtroyed the army.

Richard I. of England, and Philip Auguſtus of France, were then ſtipulated by the pope, to carry their arms into Paleſtine, which they did in 1190; but the two kings diſagreeing, this, like the preceding enterprizes, likewiſe failed.

In the year 1200 Conſtantinople was taken by the Latins; and Baldwin, earl of Flanders, being elected emperor thereof, ſoon after laid ſiege to Adrianople: but the Greeks inviting the Tartars to their aſſiſtance, the Chriſtian army was defeated, and Baldwin himſelf taken priſoner. They cut off the hands and feet of the unhappy monarch, and left him to periſh miſerably in the field, where he died three days after, in the 33d year of his age, and firſt of his reign.

Henry, the brother of Baldwin, being then elected emperor of Conſtantinople, by the aſſiſtance of the king of Theſſaly, drove the Tartars out of Thrace, and recovered all the places they had taken.

The ſultan of Egypt was now the moſt formidable Mahometan power; therefore the Chriſtians determined to invade Egypt, which they did under the conduct of Lewis, king of France, commonly called St. Lewis, who departed from Europe with a fleet of 1800 ſail, containing an army of 60,000 men, including about 13,000 knights, Engliſh, French, and Cypriots. The army landed near Damietta, which they entered without oppoſition, the infidels having previouſly abandoned it.

Lewis left his queen at Damietta with a conſiderable garriſon, and began his march towards Grand Cairo, at the head of 20,000 horſe, and 40,000 foot; but they were ſo harraſſed by the infidels, that they were above three months in advancing 40 miles. At length the Mahometans taking an advantage of the van of the Chriſtian army being ſeparated from the main body, attacked the cruſaders with great fury, totally defeated them, took the king of France priſoner, and all the troops who were not ſlain in the engagement. It was at firſt debated by the Mahometans, whether they ſhould not cut the throats of all their priſoners; but avarice getting the better of revenge, they determined to ſpare them, in order to exact a large ranſom for the recovery of their liberty. They therefore agreed to enfranchiſe the king of France, and the reſt of the priſoners, upon the delivering up Damietta, and paying ſuch an immenſe ſum of money, as almoſt drained France of its treaſures.

About this time an army of Tartars, under the conduct of Haalon, came down like a torrent from the northward, and took Bagdad, Aleppo, Damaſcus, and Iconium. The ſultan of Egypt at the ſame time invaded and took the principal places in Syria. This ſucceſs of the infidels occaſioned another cruſade to be undertaken in the year 1271, by Prince Edward, afterwards Edward I. king of England. He took Nazareth, and defeated the Turks in ſeveral engagements: but not being properly ſupported by the Chriſtian princes, he returned to England, after having been a year and a half in Paleſtine; whereupon Elphis, ſultan of Egypt, invaded Syria, took Tripoli, Tyre, Sidon, Berethus, and all the towns poſſeſſed by the Chriſtians, except Ptolemais. A truce was, however, agreed upon for five years; but being broken by the Chriſtians, the ſultan of Egypt laid ſiege to Ptolemais; but dying before the place, his ſon Araphus took it by ſtorm, and gave the plunder to his ſoldiers: after which the Chriſtians were entirely expelled from Paleſtine, 192 years ſubſequent to the taking of Jeruſalem.

But Caſſanes, the Tartar, who was ſovereign of Perſia, revenged the quarrel of the Chriſtians, by falling upon the ſultan of Egypt, defeating his armies, recovering moſt of the places in Syria and Paleſtine, which he had taken, and rebuilding the city of Jeruſalem, which he did at the inſtigation of his queen, who was an Armenian Chriſtian. He likewiſe offered to join the Chriſtian princes, and re-eſtabliſh them in the Holy Land; but the principal ſovereigns in Europe were unhappily engaged in a war among themſelves, and could not, therefore, ſpare any forces to ſend to Paleſtine; upon which Caſſanes retired into Perſia, and the ſultan of Egypt recovered all he had loſt.

Upon the death of Aladin, the laſt prince of the Selzucian family, the Turkiſh lords divided the country among themſelves, the principal of whom was Ottoman, or Othman, the ſon of Erthogrul.

The Chriſtians of Bithynia, when the Turks were drove out of Perſia by the Tartars, permitted their flocks and herds to graze upon their mountains; but the Turks, after having been here for ſome time, began to claim the place as a matter of right, and to diſpute the poſſeſſion of it with the Chriſtian natives, which naturally led the latter to complain to the governors of the neighbouring Grecian caſtles, that thoſe they had ſuccoured through compaſſion, wanted now to be their maſters. The Grecian governors, therefore, aſſembled a body of forces, in order to compel the Turks to acknowledge the ſovereignty of the Grecian emperor, or to relinquiſh the place: but Ottoman, putting himſelf at the head of a body of troops, defeated the Chriſtians, and took Cara Chiſar, a fortreſs ſituated on the frontiers of Bithynia and Phrygia. He afterwards plundered all Bithynia, which ſo greatly alarmed the Chriſtians, that they prevailed upon the governor of Belezugar to invite Ottoman to the ſolemnization of a wedding at his caſtle, that they might have an opportunity of taking him off. Ottoman, being apprized of the deſign, contrived to introduce a party of ſoldiers in diſguiſe, who killed the governor and all his gueſts, and took poſſeſſion of the caſtle. He then made himſelf maſter of many other places in Phrygia, and even laid ſiege to the city of Nice. The emperor of Conſtantinople ſent an army to relieve the places but it was defeated by Ottoman, who, from this time, viz. A. D. 1300 took upon himſelf the title and ſtate of ſultan, and made Neapolis the ſeat of his government. The Chriſtians invaded the territories of this new ſovereign, but were defeated.

Ottoman, now growing old, conſtituted his ſon Orchanes generaliſſimo, who ſubdued all the remaining place, in Bithynia and Phrygia, and ſucceeded his father, who died A. D. 1328, as ſultan, or king.

Orchanes having taken Abydos, at the entrance of the Helleſpont, on the Aſian ſhore, from thence tranſported his army into Europe, and took Gallipoli in 1338, which was the firſt town the Turks ever poſſeſſed in Europe.

At the death of Orchanes, which happened in 1359, his ſon Amurath ſucceeded him, who, in the beginning of his reign, was diſturbed by a confederacy between the leſſer Mahometan princes in Aſia, and the Chriſtians; but ſuppreſſing theſe, he tranſported his army into Europe, where he took many places from the Gre-

cian emperor, particularly Adrianople, which he ſubdued in 1362, and made the capital of all his Aſiatic and European dominions.

About this time the body of janiſſaries was eſtabliſhed; for every fifth captive, not above fifteen years of age, was, by Amurath's order, retained in his ſervice, and educated in the ſeraglio; when, at a proper ſeaſon, thoſe of the larger ſtature were to be ſelected for the ſultan's guard.

Amurath returned into Aſia to ſuppreſs an inſurrection, when the Servians, Bulgarians, and Illyrians, invaded his European dominions; but the emperor of Conſtantinople not joining them at this critical juncture, Amurath, at the head of 200,000 men, croſſed the Boſphorus, and totally defeated them. Amurath, however, ſurvived this victory but a ſhort time; for a Chriſtian ſoldier, pretending to beg his life of him, took an opportunity of ſtabbing him with a dagger which he had concealed under his cloaths, of which wound the ſultan immediately died, in the year 1373.

Amurath was ſucceeded by his ſon Bajazet, who, to have no rivals, began his reign by the murder of his brother. He then invaded Servia, and laid ſiege to Crotava, which ſurrendered on condition that the garriſon ſhould have leave to march unmoleſted away, and join the Chriſtian army. They were, however, no ſooner out of the town, than Bajazet ordered a detachment of his troops to put them all to the ſword, which bloody injunction was immediately executed.

The enſuing year the Turkiſh generals plundered the countries north of the Danube, while Bajazet himſelf, paſſing the Helleſpont, took the city of Philadelphia in Lybia, conquered Caramania, Ionia, and the coaſt of Natolia. The complaiſance which the Grecian emperor had ſhewn the Turks was not of any ſervice to him; for Bajazet, unmindful of his obligations to that monarch, laid ſiege to Conſtantinople, which was ſo well defended, that he blockaded it for eight ſucceſſive years, till Sigiſmund, king of Hungary, aſſiſted by the French, compelled him to raiſe the ſiege. But Bajazet ſoon after defeated the Chriſtian army, and took ſuch a multitude of priſoners, that every Turkiſh ſoldier had a ſlave to his ſhare. After this victory Bajazet again laid ſiege to Conſtantinople, but was obliged a ſecond time to raiſe the ſiege, on account of the approach of a vaſt army under the command of Tamerlane, commonly called the Great, who had been invited to march againſt Bajazet, not only by the emperor of Conſtantinople, and other Chriſtian princes, but by the Mahometans themſelves, who were greatly oppreſſed by that tyrant.

Tamerlane marched firſt to Sebaſtia, which he inveſted, and ſummoned to ſurrender; but the Turk truſting to the numerous garriſon, and the ſtrength of the place, treated the meſſage with contempt. Tamerlane, therefore, began the ſiege, and having made a conſiderable breach by undermining the wall, he carried the place by ſtorm.

Bajazet, hearing of Tamerlane's ſucceſs, marched at the head of an army conſiſting of 1,000,000 ſoldiers, when a bloody battle was fought in the plains of Stella, in which the Turks were totally defeated, and Bajazet himſelf was taken priſoner.

Tamerlane at firſt treated his royal captive with great humanity, but being provoked by his inſolence, he confined him in an iron cage, and carried him with him wherever he went. The haughty Turk, not being able to endure this ignominious kind of puniſhment, daſhed his brains out againſt the bars of his moveable priſon.

Tamerlane ſoon after ſubdued the greateſt part of the Leſſer Aſia, took the city of Pruſa in Bithynia, conquered Syria, ſubjugated Egypt, and returning back to his own country, died A. D. 1404.

Bajazet's five ſons then diſputed for the ſovereignty of the Ottoman empire for ten years. Solyman, the eldeſt, reigned for a ſhort time; but at length Mahomet, the youngeſt, proving ſucceſsful, was unanimouſly acknowledged ſole ſovereign of the Turkiſh dominions. Having rendered Wallachia and Tranſilvania tributary to him, he died in the year 1422, and was ſucceeded by his ſon Amurath, commonly called Amurath II. This prince, after ſuppreſſing ſeveral domeſtic inſurrections, ſubdued great part of Greece, recovered Servia and Caramania, and then invaded Hungary with an army of 80,000 men but was repulſed by the Prince of Tranſilvania, who, being joined by the king of Poland, paſſed the Danube, drove the Turks out of Servia, and advanced to mount Hermus. The paſſes of the mountains were, however, ſo well guarded, that the Chriſtians, not being able to penetrate into Romania, were obliged to retreat. The Turks purſued them, and coming up with their rear, a general battle enſued, when the Chriſtians obtained a complete victory. It was during this engagement that the celebrate Scanderbeg, who commanded a body of Turkiſh troops, deſerted to the Chriſtian army.

This prince was the ſon of John Caſtriot, prince of Epirus, whoſe territories Amurath invaded, and compelled him to deliver up his four ſons as hoſtages for his fidelity. Amurath then ordered all the young princes to be circumciſed, and inſtructed in the Mahometan ſuperſtition, and, on the death of their father, ſeized the country of Epirus as his own, after putting to death the three elder princes. He, however, affected to have a great regard for the younger, on whom he conferred the title of Scanderbeg, which ſignifies Lord Alexander; *Scander*, in the Turkiſh language, implying Alexander, and *Beg* being the titular appellation for lord.

The Turk's pretended kindneſs could not, however, efface from the young prince's boſom the ſenſe of the wrongs he and his family had ſuſtained from the infidel. He was a Chriſtian in his heart, and long meditated to eſcape from the Mahometan. The above-mentioned battle preſented him with an opportunity, when he not only enticed 3000 ſoldiers, who were natives of Epirus, to deſert with him, but brought off the Ottoman ſecretary at war. He afterwards proceeded towards Croia, the capital of Epirus, and compelled the ſecretary to write an order in the name of the baſhaw, his maſter, to the governor, commanding him to deliver up that city to the care of Scanderbeg. The governor, not ſuſpecting but what the order really came from the baſhaw, and was written with the concurrence of Amurath, delivered up the place without heſitation. Scanderbeg, being joined by the inhabitants, immediately put all the Turks in the place, who refuſed to turn Chriſtians, to the ſword; and having aſſembled an army of 12,000 men, he marched to Petrella, which ſurrendered upon the firſt ſummons; and Stelluſa followed the example, which ſucceſs gave him encouragement to invade Macedonia, and lay it under vaſt contributions, raiſing, by this means, a ſufficient ſum of money, in the enemy's country, to pay, and even augment, his army.

Amurath, being alarmed at the proceedings of Scanderbeg, ſent Ali-Baſhaw, at the head of 40,000 men, to prevent his excurſions; but Scanderbeg had the good fortune to defeat him. The Turkiſh monarch, dreading the conſequence of theſe ſucceſſes, patched up a peace with the Hungarians, that he might have an opportunity of bending his whole force againſt Scanderbeg. The Hungarians ſoon became ſenſible of the error they had committed, in making a peace with the Turks at the time the prince of Epirus was ſo ſucceſsful, and conſequently enabled to make a powerful diverſion in their favour. Theſe ſentiments were followed by a breach of the treaty. They were, however, totally routed at the battle of Varna, and their king, Uladiſlaus, was ſlain in the field.

Amurath now determined that his forces ſhould plunder Epirus; but three armies, which he ſent for that purpoſe, were ſeverally defeated by the fortunate Scanderbeg: and it is remarkable, that, in all theſe engagements, Scanderbeg's forces never amounted to above a third part of the number of the Turks.

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Engraved for Bankes's New System of Geography. Published by Royal Authority.

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Diſtracted at length with his continual loſſes, diſappointments and defeats by an handful of men, Amurath, in a rage, raiſed an army of 140,000 men, at the head of which he himſelf marched, and laid ſiege to the capital city of Croia, which was defended by a ſtrong garriſon, and a brave governor, on whom Scanderbeg could depend, while that prince commanded a flying army in the mountains, which continually harraſſed the Turkiſh forces. Amurath aſſaulted the city many times with great fury; but not being able to carry it, he died before its walls, in the 30th year of his reign, and in the year of our Lord 1450, and was ſucceeded by his eldeſt ſon Mahomet, ſurnamed, Mahomet the Second. This prince, immediately after the death of his father, raiſed the ſiege, and returned to Adrianople.

Mahomet began his reign by murdering his brothers, and then proceeded to beſiege Conſtantinople, which he took on the 20th of May, 1453. The laſt Grecian emperor, Conſtantine Palæologus, was killed in the aſſault; and all his relations, with the principal citizens, were afterwards put to death in cold blood by Mahomet. The plunder of this wealthy city was given to the troops; and the ſeat of government was transferred from Adrianople to Conſtantinople. Having thus added the Grecian empire to his own, he aſſumed the title of emperor, which the ſucceeding ſovereigns of the Turks have ever ſince retained.

Irene, a beautiful Grecian virgin, was taken among other captives in Conſtantinople, with whom Mahomet became ſo enamoured, that he neglected all public affairs for the enjoyment of her ſociety in private. This remiſſneſs with reſpect to the buſineſs of the ſtate occaſioned a dangerous mutiny among the janiſſaries: but Mahomet's temper was ſo fierce and ſavage, that none durſt mention to him the ſituation of his affairs. It may, perhaps, ſurpriſe many, that ſuch a ſoul was capable of a tender impreſſion.

At length one of his baſhaws ventured to acquaint him with his dangers. Mahomet ſeverely reprimanded him for his inſolence, as he termed it; but being ſenſible of the ſeaſonableneſs of his advice, he told him, "That his ſubjects ſhould find that he could rule his paſſions as well as he could rule kingdoms." He then gave orders that the principal officers of the army, and all the great officers of ſtate, ſhould attend him the enſuing day in the divan.

At the time appointed every one attended with wondering expectation. The emperor appeared, and with him the beautiful Irene, dreſſed with the moſt coſtly care, in all the extravagance of Aſiatic elegance. The emperor then ordered the lovely Greek to ſtand upon a raiſed floor, and ſternly demanded of all preſent, if they thought he was blameable for devoting himſelf to ſo charming an object. They unanimouſly agreed that it was impoſſible for any man to reſiſt ſo much beauty. "Then (ſaid he) you ſhall find that I am more than man." So ſaying, he inſtantly ſeized the fair Irene by her beautiful locks of hair, and ſtruck off her head with his ſcymetar, to the great aſtoniſhment of all preſent. Some have greatly commended, and others have ſeverely blamed, Mahomet, on account of this ſingular tranſaction. Whether Mahomet was ſated by the long uninterrupted poſſeſſion of Irene's charms, or was really that patriotically heroic monarch he wiſhed to be thought, is immaterial; but it is our opinion, that he might either have parted with the lady, or evinced his regard for his ſubjects, without proceeding to ſuch a barbarous extremity. His ferocious conduct plainly proved that all his paſſions were of the brutal kind; his love being founded on ſenſuality, and his pretended ſentiments of honour on a ſavage parade of dignity.

Being entirely roufed from his lethargy by his late danger, he deprived ſome of the princes of the Morea of their territories, ſubdued Servia, and laid ſiege to Belgrade, but was defeated by Huniades, the brave prince of Tranſilvania, who unhappily died the ſame year. Mahomet then attacked the Mahometan princes on the ſouth-eaſt coaſt of the Euxine Sea, particularly the prince of Sinope, whoſe capital he beſieged by ſea and land, which being ſurrendered to him, he inveſted Trebizonde, took it, and put an end to that little empire.

Mahomet then extended his conqueſts in Europe, and ſubjugated Wallachia. His prodigious ſucceſs obtained him the name of Great. Nevertheleſs, he was a moſt abandoned cruel wretch, and guilty of almoſt every crime which could debaſe human nature. He died A. D. 1481, in the 33d year of his reign.

Bajazet II. his eldeſt ſon, ſucceeded him; but ſpent ſo much time in a pilgrimage to Mecca, that he was near being ſupplanted by his brother Zemes. This ſo much alarmed him, that he had his brother murdered, and rewarded the aſſaſſin with the poſt of prime miniſter, though he was only a barber. He took ſeveral towns from the Venetians; but was continually alarmed with domeſtic plots againſt him, which at length ſucceeded; for he was dethroned by the janiſſaries, and his ſon Selim made emperor.

Selim began his reign by murdering his father, his brothers, and all their children. He then ſubdued the Mamalukes, and put an end to their empire in Egypt, which from that time became a Turkiſh province. Selim died A. D. 1520, in the 54th year of his age, and 10th of his reign, as he was preparing to invade the Chriſtian princes.

Solyman II. or Solyman the Magnificent, ſucceeded his father Selim, and immediately after his acceſſion, laid ſiege to Belgrade, which he took on the 29th of Auguſt, 1521. He invaded the Iſland of Rhodes the year enſuing, the capital of which ſubmitted to his arms on Chriſtmas-day 1522. Solyman then invaded Hungary, defeated the Hungarians, and took the cities of Buda, Peſt, and Segedin. In 1529 he penetrated into Auſtria, and laid ſiege to Vienna, but it was ſo well defended, that he was obliged to raiſe the ſiege and retire. He, however, returned again into Auſtria with an army of 300,000 men; but the emperor, and other Chriſtian princes, being well prepared to receive him, he again retreated to Conſtantinople.

The celebrated Genoeſe admiral, Andrew Doria, joining the fleets of ſeveral Chriſtian powers, particularly that of the Spaniards, invaded the Morea. Solyman, in return, ordered his fleet, under the command of his admiral Barbaroſſa, to plunder the coaſts of Italy and Sicily. Theſe orders being obeyed, the Turkiſh admiral ſtood over for the African coaſt, where he depoſed the deys of Algiers and Tunis, and had thoſe kingdoms confirmed to him by Solyman.

In the mean time Solyman, with a large army, invaded Perſia, but met with very little ſucceſs in this expedition. He then ſent a fleet to the Red Sea, to attack the Portugueſe ſettlements in the Eaſt Indies; but this deſign likewiſe proved abortive.

The French, who were contending with the emperor of Germany for the Milaneſe, now made an alliance with the Turks, whoſe fleet again plundered the Italian and Sicilian coaſts; and the Ottoman armies met likewiſe with great ſucceſs in Hungary and Italy.

In 1548 Solyman again invaded Perſia; but the Perſians deſtroyed the country before him as he advanced, by which means moſt of his army periſhed, and he was obliged again to retreat: but, to make him ſome amends, he, in 1551, took the ſtrong city of Temeſwaer in Hungary, and the territories belonging to it.

Solyman, who was now advanced in years, was ſo abſurdly fond of his concubine Roxalana, that he put his eldeſt ſon, Muſtapha, to death to oblige her, and even conſented to marry her; though no Turkiſh ſovereign, ſince the time of Bajazet, had ever been married, as it was contrary to the policy of the Turkiſh government.

Bajazet, the youngeſt ſon, ſoon after underwent the ſame fate at his brother Muſtapha, for being concerned in a plot againſt the government. The Turks now made a fruitleſs attack upon the Iſland of Malta, but ſtill

ſtill continued ſucceſsful in Hungary; when death put an end to Solyman's progreſs A. D. 1566, and took him off by means of a bloody flux, in the 77th year of his age, and 47th of his reign.

Selimus, or Selim II. the only ſurviving ſon of Solyman, ſucceeded him, whoſe firſt expedition was to invade the Iſland of Cyprus. He laid ſiege to Nicoſia, which he took by ſtorm, A. D. 1570: and the enſuing year he inveſted Famaguſta, which capitulated upon honourable terms; but the garriſon were no ſooner marched, than a great number of the inhabitants were maſſacred, and the brave governor, Bragadino, was flayed alive. The baſhaw Muſtapha found here an immenſe treaſure, which he put on board three ſhips, together with many lovely captives, among whom was a young lady of exquiſite beauty, who, dreading the thoughts of being ſacrificed to the embraces of a Turk, ſet fire to the powder, which blew up the ſhip in which ſhe was, and the two others that were near it, together with herſelf, all the Chriſtian captives, and the Turkiſh ſailors. In the mean time the Turkiſh admiral proceeded to make deſcents on many of the Venetian Iſlands, as Epirus, Dalmatia, &c. from whence he carried many thouſands of the inhabitants into captivity. It is affirmed that the town of Curzola was forſaken on the approach of the Turkiſh fleet, by the governor and all the men, but that the women taking up arms, defended the place till a ſtorm aroſe, and obliged the Turks to retire to their gallies, in order to preſerve them.

In the year 1571, the Turks fitted out the largeſt fleet that ever they ſent to ſea, which was engaged, at the entrance of the Gulph of Lepanto, by the united Chriſtian fleet, commanded by Don John, brother to the king of Spain, in conjunction with the Venetian admiral. The fight was obſtinate and bloody, and laſted five hours, when the Ottoman fleet was totally defeated. The Turkiſh admiral, with 15,000 of his men, were killed, and 160 gallies taken or ſunk. The Chriſtians, on their part, loſt about 6000 men, among whom were many brave and diſtinguiſhed officers.

After this defeat Selim equipped another fleet, and took Tunis, on the Barbary coaſt, from the Spaniards, which was the laſt conſiderable action of his life, for he died on the 9th of December, 1574, in the 52d year of his age, and 9th of his reign, and was ſucceeded by his eldeſt ſon, Amurath III.

This prince, like his predeceſſors, began his reign by the murder of his five brothers; and, to prove himſelf a true Turk, and not inferior in cruelty to any of his anceſtors, he had them executed in his preſence. That nothing might be wanting to complete the ſpectacle, he obliged his father's favourite ſultana to be preſent, who was ſo affected at the maſſacre of the young princes, that ſhe ſtabbed herſelf to the heart, and expired in the preſence of the young tyrant.

Amurath attempted to reduce the Perſians, but loſt three fine armies in the attempt. Theſe diſappointments ſo chagrined him, that, in 1589, he aſſembled an army of 180,000 men, and gave the command of it to the Grand Vizier. In this expedition the Turks loſt 80,000 by the ſword and famine: for the Perſians always waſte the country when they are invaded, which renders a Perſian war much more diſagreeable to the Turks than any other. In 1592, as the ſultan found that his troops carried on this war with great reluctance, he withdrew the army from Perſia, in order to employ it in Hungary. Nothing deciſive, however, was done; and Amurath died January the 18th, 1595, in the 33d year of his age, and 20th of his reign.

Mahomet III. ſon of the above ſultan, began his reign, according to the Ottoman cuſtom, by putting his brothers to death, who were no leſs than twenty in number. This, however, did not ſatisfy him; for he ordered ten of his father's concubines, whom he imagined to be pregnant, to be thrown into the ſea. As ſoon as he was ſeated upon the throne, finding that his general, Ferat Baſſa, had been unſucceſsful in Hungary, he ordered him to be ſtrangled. The Chriſtians, however, ſtill proving victorious, Mahomet aſſembled an army of 200,000 men, put himſelf at their head, took the city of Agria, where he practiſed unheard of cruelties, and afterwards defeated the Chriſtian army, by which means he recovered Moldavia and Wallachia. Being obliged to march back into his own country, to quell ſome domeſtic tumults, the Chriſtians ſeized the opportunity, and recovered many of the places they had loſt; while, on the other ſide, the Perſians retook Tauris.

Mahomet's cruelties had rendered him ſo obnoxious to the people, that a conſpiracy was formed to depoſe him, and place his eldeſt ſon upon the throne. Being apprized of the affair, he had his ſon ſtrangled, and put all the conſpirators to death, who were ſo unfortunate as to fall into his power. But now being every where unſucceſsful, and many of the inſurgents continuing in arms, he began to think that the wrath of God purſued him for his manifold crimes. To avert, therefore, the vengeance of heaven, he ordered prayers to be put up for him throughout his dominions, and ſent two mollas, or prieſts, barefoot, on a pilgrimage to Mecca. He, however, died in 1604, with all the horrors of a guilty conſcience upon him, in the 45th year of his age, and 9th of his reign, and was ſucceeded by his ſon Achmet.

In this reign the Turks gained ſome advantages over the Chriſtians, being joined by the Proteſtants of Auſtria, Hungary, and Tranſilvania, who were ſo cruelly perſecuted by the Roman Catholics, that they were obliged even to receive ſuccour from infidels.

Achmet's principal ſultana underſtanding that the emperor had taken one of his ſiſter's ſlaves to his bed, was ſo inflamed with jealouſy, that ſhe cauſed her to be ſtrangled. This Achmet reſented by ſtabbing her, and trampling upon her body. At length he departed this life on the 15th of November, 1617, in the 31ſt year of his age, and 13th of his reign, and was ſucceeded by his brother Muſtapha.

The acceſſion of Muſtapha was extremely ſingular. The brothers of the ſultans had uſually been put to death by the reigning ſovereigns, through the abſurd idea of rendering themſelves ſecure; but Achmet being only thirteen years of age when he began his reign, was adviſed to ſpare his brother Muſtapha, till he ſaw whether he ſhould have any children of his own, as no other prince of the Ottoman family was then living. Thus Muſtapha was ſecured by the policy of the ſtate till Achmet had children, when it was debated in council, whether he ſhould not be put to death, and the execution was agreed upon accordingly: but Muſtapha was again providentially ſaved; for Achmet dreaming that he ſaw his brother executed, was ſo terrified at the viſionary ſpectacle of horror, that he would never ſuffer the ſentence to be put in execution. Muſtapha, however, reigned but five months; for the baſhaws finding him totally unqualified to govern, they confined him to the ſeraglio, and advanced his nephew Oſman to the throne.

Soon after the commencement of his reign, Oſman marched to the frontiers of Poland; but the janiſſaries refuſing to march any farther, he was obliged to patch up a diſhonourable peace with the Poles. This ſo enraged him, that he determined totally to aboliſh the body of janiſſaries, which thoſe regular bravos underſtanding, they murdered him in 1622, and reſtored his uncle Muſtapha to the throne. But he being no better qualified to govern than before, was a ſecond time depoſed, and Amurath, Oſman's younger brother, advanced to the imperial dignity.

The reign of this prince, Amurath IV. which commenced in 1623, was not only filled with inſurrections and mutinies, but the Perſians ravaged the Turkiſh frontiers, and took Bagdad, which the Ottoman forces beſieged three years, without being able to recover. This emperor was a cruel tyrant; but he was certainly impartial in his brutality, equally oppreſſing and murdering Chriſtians and Turks. A dramatic writer very juſtly obſerves, that the moſt ſavage animal in the whole creation is a human creature without feeling.

A dreadful

A dreadful fire happened at Conſtantinople during this reign, which conſumed upwards of 20,000 houſes. Amurath, however, determined on a Perſian war; but being in great want of money, he encouraged a number of informers to accuſe the richeſt people he could get intelligence of, with being guilty of various crimes. This gave him a pretence to put them to death, and ſeize their effects. By theſe infernal means he was enabled to raiſe an army of 300,000 men, when marching to the frontiers of Perſia, he took Tauris, ordered it to be plundered by his ſoldiers, marched back without atchieving any thing farther, and then ordered a feſtival of ſeven days to celebrate his wonderful conqueſts!

The cruelties of Amurath now grew dreadful to every one: the murders he committed were incredible, and the modes of execution were ſhocking to human nature. Among the reſt, his brothers, Bajazet and Orchan, fell victims to his ferocious diſpoſition. Indeed, murder was his ſupreme delight: for his moſt favourite amuſement was to ſit in a pavilion in the palace gardens, and fire upon thoſe who paſſed by in boats, by which means he killed a prodigious number. Indeed, it muſt be admitted, that he ſeldom performed theſe frolics but when he was drunk; but the worſt affair for his ſubjects was is ſeldom being ſober.

In 1637 he again prepared to invade Perſia; but, before his departure, cauſed another of his brothers to be ſtrangled, who was a moſt accompliſhed and promiſing young prince. He then inveſted Bagdad, when the garriſon ſurrendered on condition of receiving no perſonal injury. Amurath ſolemnly promiſed to ſpare their lives; but they had no ſooner laid down their arms, than he ordered them all to be cut to pieces, including in the bloody mandate not only men, but women and children. For this conqueſt he cauſed a feſtival to be proclaimed of twenty days continuance, at which he very happily (for his ſubjects) drank himſelf into a fever, that took him off on the 8th of February, 1640, in the 18th year of his reign, and only the 32d of his age, when he was ſucceeded by his brother Ibrahim.

Some ſuppoſe that the reaſon why Ibrahim was not murdered as well as the reſt of his brothers, was owing to there not being any other prince of the Ottoman line living; but others ſay, that he was an ideot, on which account Amurath deſpiſed him too much to think him dangerous

Ibrahim, however, had more cunning than was ſuppoſed; for it appeared that he had acted with folly only to ſecure his life; and pretended ideotiſm, only to preſerve himſelf from being murdered.

In the beginning of his reign he put an end to the ravages of the ſavage Coſſacks, took the city of Aſoph, and added the greateſt part of the Iſland of Candia to the Turkiſh dominions. He was, however, depoſed by his mother and the janiſſaries in 1648, and murdered ſoon after; his ſon, (Mahomet IV.) then a child of ſeven years of age, being placed on the throne.

The ſultana mother, the vizier, and the aga of the janiſſaries, were inveſted with the adminiſtration during the minority of the emperor; but affairs turning out a little unſucceſsful, the grand vizier was ſoon depoſed, as were ſeveral others who ſucceeded him; for whoever is in fault, the miniſter there is ſure to bear the blame. In 1658 a formidable inſurrection was, with difficulty, ſuppreſſed. The Turks were next viſited by the plague, which uſually carried off 1400 or 1500 people every day in the city of Conſtantinople only. In Hungary an obſtinate battle was fought between the Chriſtians and the Turks, in which the latter were totally defeated, and left 17,000 men dead on the field of battle. This occaſioned a peace between the Porte and the emperor of Germany. However, to recompenſe the above loſs, the ancient Chaldea was ſubdued, and added to the Turkiſh empire, and the Iſland of Candia totally conquered.

In 1672 the Turks invaded Poland, conquered many of its towns, and obliged the government to conſent to pay 70,000 dollars annually; but, on the failure of the ſtipulated payment, the war began again in the enſuing year, when the Poliſh general Sobieſki had the good fortune to gain a ſignal victory over the Turks. About the ſame time the people of Tripoli, in Barbary, killed the baſhaw, and threw off the Turkiſh yoke, by which they became independent of the Porte in every thing, a trifling tribute excepted.

In 1683 the Turks laid ſiege to Vienna, but were attacked in their trenches, and routed by John Sobieſki, king of Poland, at the head of the Germans and Poles.

The city of Buda was afterwards inveſted by the Imperialiſts, and taken the 22d of Auguſt, 1686. King George I. then elector of Hanover, was preſent at this ſiege; and from thence brought the two Turks who afterwards conſtantly attended him when he was king of England. Several other noble volunteers were preſent, particularly Lord Cutts, who took a young Turk priſoner, to whom he gave the name of Budiana. This Mahometan afterwards turned Chriſtian, and became an officer in the Engliſh ſervice.

In the ſame year the Venetians recovered great part of the Morea: prince Lewis, of Baden, totally defeated the Turks; and the Poles gave a great overthrow to the Tartars. Theſe, and other ſubſequent ill ſucceſſes, ſo diſpirited the troops, that they demanded the grand vizier's head. This the Grand Seignor ſent them, with the heads of ſeveral other great officers, without which they did not appear diſpoſed to be ſatisfied. But, after all his compliances, they depoſed him in the 39th year of his reign, and the 53d of his age. He was not, however, murdered, but died in the ſeraglio five years after.

Solyman III. the brother of the laſt emperor, was advanced to the throne in 1687. In the beginning of this reign the duke of Bavaria took Belgrade; prince Lewis, of Baden, obtained a victory over the Turks at Boſnia; and the Venetians extended their frontiers in Greece and Dalmatia.

This run of ill luck induced the Turks to offer very advantageous terms of peace to the Chriſtians; but the treaty was broken by the machinations of the French king, Lewis XIV. who promiſed to invade Germany, and divide it with the Turks: but neither the Turks or French were able to compaſs their deſigns; and Solyman died in the 4th year of his reign, and 53d of his age; his brother, Achmet II. ſucceeding him in 1621.

A numerous army now paſſed the Danube; but, on the 19th of Auguſt, 1691, the Turks were defeated by prince Lewis, of Baden, when the grand vizier and 28,000 men were ſlain. Achmet died in the 4th year of his reign, and the 51ſt of his age, and was ſucceeded by his nephew, Muſtapha II.

This prince raiſed an army of 120,000 men, took Lippa, and defeated the Imperialiſts. His fleet was likewiſe ſucceſsful againſt the Venetians. But, on the other hand, the Ruſſians took Aſoph from him, and opened a communication to the Black Sea.

In 1692 prince Eugene defeated the Turks at Olach, when the prime vizier and 30,000 men were ſlain. A diſhonourable peace being now concluded, the ſultan was depoſed in 1703, and his brother Achmet advanced to the throne.

The firſt thing that Achmet III. did, was to diſplace all the great officers of ſtate, who had brought about the revolution in his favour, by reaſon, as it was ſaid, of their aſſuming too much upon that account.

The king of Sweden, in 1709, after his defeat at Pultowa, took refuge in the Turkiſh territories, and had ſufficient intereſt to ſtir up the Grand Seignor to declare war againſt the Czar of Muſcovy. The czar raiſed a large army, but not acting with prudence, he was ſoon compelled to ſign whatever conditions the Grand Seignor pleaſed to preſcribe.

In 1715 the Turks ſubdued the Morea, on which the emperor of Germany declared war againſt them; and the Ottoman army, in 1716, was defeated at Carlowits,

lowits, by prince Eugene. In this battle the grand vizier, the aga of the janiſſaries, a great number of baſhaws, and 100,000 men were ſlain. Temeſwear was taken by the Imperialiſts this campaign: and, in 1717, prince Eugene took Belgrade, and again defeated an army of Turks, conſiſting of 200,000 men. A peace, however, was concluded in 1718, by the mediation of Great Britain and Holland.

In 1722 the Turks invaded Perſia, and had ſome ſucceſs, till compelled to retire by the celebrated Kouli Khan. Achmet's ill ſucceſs occaſioned him to be depoſed, and his nephew, Mahomet, was, in 1730, advanced to the throne.

Mahomet V. on his acceſſion, made peace with Perſia, and entered into a war with Ruſſia.

In the year 1737 the Turks defeated the Imperialiſts at Crotſka, and took Orſova. In 1739 they beſieged Belgrade. But a treaty being entered into between the Germans, French, and Turks, it was unanimouſly agreed that the Turks ſhould have Belgrade, but the fortifications were to be demoliſhed. The Danube and Saave were to be the northern boundaries of the Turkiſh territories; the river Atalanta, and the iron gate mountains, the eaſtern boundary; and the river Unna the weſtern limits towards the German dominions.

The Ruſſians, by another treaty, were obliged to demoliſh all their forts on the Palus-Mæotis and Euxine Sea, and to deſtroy the fortifications of Aſoph.

This monarch was of a pacific and juſt diſpoſition, and on that account reſpected much by the Chriſtian princes. Nothing material, but what is above related, happened during his reign; and on the 13th of December, 1754, about one o'clock, he died ſuddenly of a fit of the aſthma. About three o'clock the ſame afternoon, his brother Oſmond was proclaimed from the minarets of the moſques.

Oſmond III. began his reign in a time of profound tranquillity, and nothing material occurred till his death, which happened in 1757, when he was ſucceeded by his brother Muſtapha.

Muſtapha III. began his reign with every perſonal advantage. He was of a different diſpoſition from any of his predeceſſors, being of a liberal way of thinking, a lover of learning, and the firſt who introduced the art of printing into the Ottoman empire. In the year 1766, a general ſpirit of liberty ſeemed to diffuſe itſelf through many parts of the world. The Turkiſh empire was affected by its influence. The Georgians began to aſpire at independence; and many inſurrections happened in Egypt and Cyprus, which, though ſuppreſſed, evinced the ſpirit of the people.

In 1768 a war broke out between Ruſſia and the Porte. A confederacy was formed againſt the Ruſſians among their own ſubjects and dependents, which was fomented and increaſed by the Ottomans. The confederates were, however, obliged to retreat into the Turkiſh territories. The Ruſſians formed a line of troops along the frontiers of Poland; large bodies of Tartars appeared along the Ruſſian ſhore; and a Turkiſh army was aſſembled between Choczim, Bender, and Oczakow.

In June, 1769, the Ruſſian admiral Spiritdoff ſet ſail for the Levant with a powerful ſquadron. Admiral Elphinſtone ſoon followed with another conſiderable fleet, and arrived in the Morea in 1770. Count Orloff, in a ſhort time after, joined the Ruſſian fleet off Paros, with another ſquadron.

An engagement ſoon after happened between the Turkiſh and Ruſſian fleets near Napoli-de-Romain, in which the former were totally defeated, and took ſhelter in the harbour of the above-mentioned place, whither admiral Elphinſtone purſued, and did them great damage.

During this time count Orloff was acting by land in the Morea; but he ſoon after joined the other ſquadrons, and the whole fleet, on the 7th of July, 1770, engaged that of the Turks, when the Ottomans received a total defeat. In this fight, which was very bloody and deſperate, admiral Spiritdoff engaged the Capitana of 100 guns, yard-arm to yard-arm, when the Turkiſh ſhip taking fire, the flames communicated to the Ruſſian ſhip. Both unhappily blew up, and the crews, a few officers and men excepted, periſhed, either in the exploſion or the waves.

The Turks now fled, in order to ſecure themſelves in the bay of Schiſma, where, a few nights after, their fleet was fired by means of three fire-ſhips. A perſon who was upon the ſpot, mentioning this action, ſays, "A fleet, conſiſting of 200 ſail, almoſt in one general blaze, preſented a picture of diſtreſs and horror dreadfully ſublime. While the flames, with the utmoſt rapidity, were ſpreading deſtruction on all ſides, and ſhip blowing up after ſhip, with every ſoul on board, that feared to truſt to the waves to ſwim for ſhore, the Ruſſians kept pouring upon them ſuch ſhowers of cannon balls, ſhells, and ſmall ſhot, that not one of the many thouſands of their weeping friends on land, who ſaw their diſtreſs, dared venture to their relief. Nothing now remained but united ſhrieks, and unavailing cries, which, joined to the martial muſic, and the loud triumphant ſhouts of the victors, ſerved to ſwell alternately the various notes of joy and ſorrow, that compoſed the ſolemn dirge of their [the Turks] departing glory."

The loſs on the part of the Ruſſians was admiral Spiritdoff's ſhip, and between 700 and 800 men. On the ſide of the Turks, beſides the deſtruction of their whole fleet, above 9000 men periſhed.

The Turks, in great conſternation, quitted Schiſma, and haſtening to Smyrna, murdered an incredible number of Greeks, and other Chriſtians, whom they ſuppoſed to be well affected to the Ruſſians, ſparing neither age or ſex.

The Ruſſians, in this expedition, ſpread deſolation through the coaſts of Greece, Aſia, and the Iſlands of the Archipelago, and greatly injured the trade of the Levant. But they acquired little benefit to themſelves by their ſucceſſes.

This year, likewiſe, the Turkiſh army on the Danube, under the command of the grand vizier, was attacked in its trenches at Babadagh, and totally routed.

In 1772 negociations were ſet on foot in order to bring about a peace, but the plenipotentiaries not agreeing, the whole fell to the ground. Nothing, however, was performed this year deciſive, or worth mentioning, by either army.

In Egypt and Syria the people were in open rebellion. Ali Bey was, however, defeated, and driven out of Egypt, by Mahomet Aboudaab, when he ſought refuge in Syria, and was affectionately received by his friend Chiek Daher, an Arabian prince.

On the 21ſt of January, 1774, the emperor, Muſtapha III. departed this life at Conſtantinople, in the 58th year of his age, and 17th of his reign, with the character of having been the wiſeſt, beſt, moſt humane, and diſintereſted monarch that ever ſat upon the Ottoman throne.

Abdul-Hamet, the brother to the late emperor, ſucceeded him. Some commotions were made in favour of the young prince Selim, but they were eaſily ſuppreſſed. The war upon the Danube was carried on with vigour; and the Ottoman miniſtry did not fail to encourage as much as poſſible, the rebellion of Pugatſcheff againſt the Ruſſian government. The Turks were, however, defeated in various engagements. Diſorder, mutiny, and deſertion, prevailed among the troops. The grand vizier, being abandoned by the greateſt part of his forces, was obliged to accede to the terms preſcribed by the enemy, who had ſurrounded him at Schumla. Theſe ill ſucceſſes threw the whole Ottoman empire into confuſion. The Porte, however, under the preſent complexion of affairs, thought proper to ratify the articles of peace; the principal of which were,

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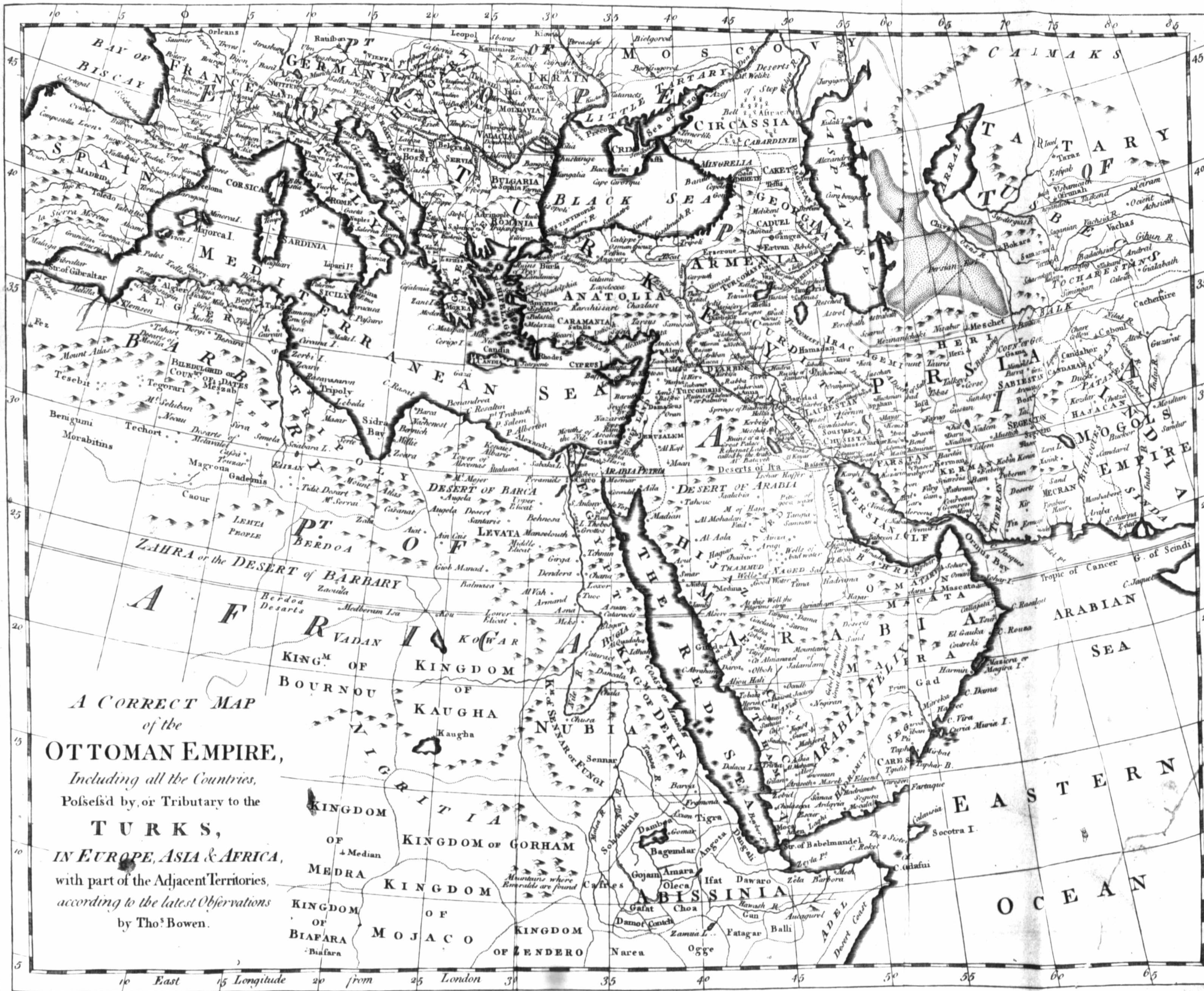
A CORRECT MAP
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OTTOMAN EMPIRE,
Including all the Countries,
Posseſs'd by, or Tributary to the
TURKS,
IN EUROPE, ASIA & AFRICA,
with part of the Adjacent Territories,
according to the latest Obſervations
by Thos. Bowen.
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and all the diſtrict between the Bog and the Dnieper. 3. A free navigation in all the Turkiſh ſeas, including the paſſage through the Dardanelles, with all the privileges and immunities which are granted to the moſt favoured nations.

In return for theſe conceſſions, Ruſſia was to reſtore all ſhe had conquered, Aſoph and Taganrok excepted.

The grand vizier died, as is ſuppoſed, of a broken heart, on his return to Conſtantinople: and public rejoicings were made at St. Peterſburgh, for the uncommon ſucceſs of the Ruſſian arms.

The rebel Pugatſcheff was ſoon after defeated by the Ruſſian army, taken priſoner, and put to death.

The year 1775 proved fatal to the old and brave Chiek Daher, the Arabian prince, his country being conquered by Mahomet Aboudaab, with an army of Egyptians. But Aboudaab dying in the midſt of his ſucceſſes, Chiek Daher was in hopes to have retrieved his affairs, when a baſhaw arrived upon the coaſt of Syria with a very conſiderable reinforcement. Chiek Daher was ſoon ſubdued, his treaſures ſeized, and his head ſent to Conſtantinople.

Since the above period the Turkiſh empire has, at various times, been greatly agitated. Inſurrections have taken place in different parts; and the greateſt efforts have been made by the people to ſubvert the power of the Ottoman government, and procure independence. Even at the preſent time the empire is in a general ſtate of commotion; and Abdul-Hamet, the emperor, is under the greateſt apprehenſions for the ſafety of his dominions. Should the Ruſſians, or other powers, interpoſe in favour of the inſurgents at this critical period, or engage in a war with the Turks, it might be productive of ſuch conſequences as to produce a total overthrow of the Ottoman empire.

To finiſh our account, therefore, of the hiſtory of the Turkiſh empire, as the ſtate of affairs are at preſent in that quarter, would be far from compleating our deſign in the preſent undertaking. From what has been obſerved, it is not only probable, but, indeed, moſt likely, that ſome material alterations, if not an abſolute revolution, will take place among them, between the preſent period, and that which will terminate our work. We ſhall not, therefore, at preſent, purſue any farther relation of the hiſtory of this vaſt empire: for as ſuch a length of time will elapſe between this and the cloſe of the work, as may probably produce an iſſue to the preſent diſturbances, we ſhall give the whole particulars at the cloſe by way of ſupplement. We ſhall alſo pay the like attention to the hiſtory of every other empire and kingdom. So that our deſigns will be amply accompliſhed by furniſhing the reader with a more complete hiſtory of the various empires of the world down to the very lateſt period, than ever did, or could appear, in any other work of a ſimilar kind.

CHAP. IX.

ARABIA.

SECTION I.

Former and preſent State. Antiquity. Geographical Deſcription. Convent of St. Catherine on Mount Sinai.

THIS country, famed in ancient hiſtory, both ſacred and profane, as a ſcene of moſt important tranſactions, the birth-place of renowned characters, and ſeat of the liberal arts, is now become totally degenerate, the inhabitants in general being as depraved in morals as ignorant in ſcience.

Hiſtorians moſtly agree as to its antiquity; and ſome divines, from ſcripture authority, ſay, that its ancient inhabitants were a mixed people, formed of Midianites, Amalekites and Iſhmaelites. To confirm this aſſertion they cite the word Arab, which, in the Hebrew language, ſignifies to *mix* or *mingle*. The weſtern part of the country was called by Moſes, *Arabah*, which name was afterwards applied to the whole by the Iſhmaelites, when they became entirely poſſeſſed of it.

Arabia comprizes in length about 1300 miles, in breadth 1200, and is between 35 and 60 deg. long. Eaſt, and 12 and 30 deg. lat. North. It is bounded on the eaſt by the Gulph of Perſia, on the weſt by the Red Sea, on the north by Syria and Diarbec, and on the ſouth by the Indian Ocean. Its diviſions are, Arabia Petræa, or the Stony; Arabia Deſerta, or the Deſert; and Arabia Felix, or the Happy. They are ſo denominated from the different face of the country in the reſpective diviſions. The firſt being mountainous and rocky, and the laſt comparatively ſerene, fertile and pleaſant.

As great part of this country lies under the torrid zone, and the tropic of Cancer extends through Arabia Felix, the air of courſe is exceſſive dry and hot, and often proves fatal, eſpecially to ſtrangers. In ſome parts the ſoil is entirely compoſed of immenſe ſands, forming a loneſome deſolate wilderneſs; but the ſouthern part, called, in diſtinction from the reſt, "the Happy," is in general mild and fruitful.

The only remarkable river in Arabia is the Euphrates, which is the north-eaſt limits of it: but it is ſurrounded with ſeas, as the Indian Ocean, the Red Sea, the Gulphs of Perſia and Ormus, and the Straits of Babelmandel, in which are the capes or promontories of Roſalgate and Muſſeldon.

Some writers are of opinion that the Red Sea received its appellation from a kind of refulgence peculiar to its waters being tinged with a red mineral earth, as alſo from its having red ſand on its ſhores. Mariners have declared, that, through the turbulence of the waters, occaſioned by the flux and reflux of the ſea, the ſand has been ſo agitated as to appear of a red colour of the ſtrongeſt dye. The agitation prevented its ſubſiding to the bottom, which of courſe it muſt have done in ſtill water. There is ſuch a dearth of water in this country, that the natives have contended for the poſſeſſion of a ſpring at the hazard of their lives.

The mountains of Arabia are, Sinai and Horeb, lying in Arabia Petræa, eaſt of the Red Sea, and thoſe called Gabel el Ared in Arabia Felix. Mount Sinai has two ſummits, and is called by the Arabs the Mountain of Moſes, becauſe the angel appeared to that Divine legiſlator there in a burning buſh.

Near this ſpot is erected the convent of St. Catherine, which belongs to the Greeks. The monks hold it in great veneration. There is a tower built by the empreſs Helena. It is ſituated in the heart of the convent, and ſtill called St. Helena's tower. This convent is built on a deſcent. The walls and the arches, with the church, are the only ancient buildings. The latter is of coarſe red granite. The walls of the convent are ſix feet thick; but ſome parts of them are in a ruinous ſtate. The ſtructure, upon the whole, is irregular, and compoſed of unburnt brick. There is a ſmall marble ſhrine, in which they pretend to have preſerved the ſkull and one of the hands of St. Catherine.

The convent is ſolely under the juriſdiction of its own biſhop, choſen by the monks, who live here in the moſt abſtemious manner, and attend on their religious duties with great punctuality.

Their

Their vaſſals cultivate their gardens, and do other menial offices. A lay-brother, or caloyer, is appointed to attend upon ſtrangers arriving here, to ſhew them the chapels, offices, and the library, in which are depoſited ſome of the firſt Greek books that were ever printed. The feet of pilgrims, on their arrival here, are waſhed by the lay-brothers; and thoſe of a prieſt by one of equal rank in the church. Dr. Pococke, biſhop of Oſſory, had the ſatisfaction of being preſent at all their Eaſter ceremonies. The church which contains the relics of St. Catherine, is called the Great Church of the Transfiguration. It lies to the north-eaſt, on the loweſt part of the convent, and conſiſts of a nave, an aiſle on each ſide, and three chapels on the outſide lower than the aiſles. The pictures of Juſtinian, and his empreſs Theodora, over the arch of the high altar, are well executed in moſaic: and ſeveral inſcriptions, to the honour of that illuſtrious pair, are carved on the beams that ſupport the roof, which is of cypreſs covered with lead, and is very antique. The Turks deſtroyed the pavement of this church, digging it up in hopes of diſcovering treaſures; but it was elegantly repaired by archbiſhop Athanaſius, in the laſt century.

Mount St. Catherine is ſituated near Mount Sinai; and it was to the former place that the body of St. Catherine was brought after her martyrdom under the tyrant Maxentius. It over-tops Mount Sinai, and its ſoil is a ſpecies of ſpeckled marble, in which are ſeen beautiful configurations of trees, and other vegetable repreſentations.

SECTION II.

Productions. Particular Deſcription of the Coffee Plant and Arabian Camel.

WITH reſpect to the vegetable productions of Arabia, the moſt profitable is coffee, with which a number of ſhips are annually loaded for Europe and India.

The coffee ſhrub grows to the height of eight or ten feet; the twigs riſe by pairs oppoſite to each other, as do the leaves on the twigs, one pair being about two inches diſtant from another. The leaves are about four inches long, and two broad in the middle, from whence they decreaſe in both extremities, ending in a point. They are nearly in the form of a bay leaf, and are ſmooth, with many inciſſures on the edges. The ſhrub has a grey ſmooth back; and the wood is white, and has not much pith. The fruit hangs on the twigs by a foot-ſtalk, ſometimes one, two, or more in the ſame place. Theſe ſhrubs are watered by artificial channels, like other vegetables, and after three or four years bearing, the natives plant new ſhrubs, as the old ones then begin to decline. They dry the berry in the ſun, and afterwards take off the outward huſks with hand-mills. In the hot ſeaſons they uſe theſe huſks roaſted inſtead of the coffee berries, and eſteem the liquor impregnated with them more cooling.

Here are aloes, caſſia, ſpikenard, frankincenſe, myrrh, manna, and other valuable gums, cinnamon, pepper, cardamums, oranges, lemons, grapes, peaches, figs and pomegranates; alſo honey and wax in plenty; and in the ſeas are conſiderable quantities of the beſt coral and pearls.

There are abundance of acacia trees in the plains of Arabia Petræa, from which iſſues a very valuable gum; but there are very few foreſt trees.

Rice and barley are the principal grain; and where they can obtain water they have a great plenty of garden-ſtuff, herbs and flowers. Some of the diſtricts alſo afford excellent paſture for cattle.

The Arabian horſes are the fineſt in the whole world, whether conſidered for their ſwiftneſs, beauty or ſagacity. There are alſo ſheep, cows, oxen, mules, goats, hogs, dogs, &c. But the moſt eſteemed and uſeful animal is the camel, which can carry ſeven or eight hundred weight upon its back, and with this burden will travel at the rate of about two miles and an half in an hour: it is therefore the beaſt of burden moſt in uſe, and is peculiarly ſerviceable in long and tedious journies, which are commonly performed in caravans, eſcorted by guards, to prevent the depredations of the free-booters. This creature is the moſt patient and temperate of the whole quadruped creation; it will travel for many days together with only a few dates, or ſome balls of bean or barley meal, or perhaps only the miſerably thorny plants it meets with in the ſandy deſarts, where not a drop of water is to be met with during a journey of eight or ten days, and where nothing appears but mountains of ſand and heaps of bones of thoſe who have periſhed through want. The camel's power of ſuſtaining abſtinence from drinking ariſes from the conſtruction of its internal parts; ſo that it evidently appears Divine Providence created it purpoſely for the ſultry ſoil of Arabia. Beſides the four ſtomachs, which it has in common with all the other animals that chew the cud, it has a fifth, ſerving as a reſervoir to hold more water than it has an immediate occaſion for: there the fluid remains without corrupting, or without being adulterated by other aliments. When the creature is thirſty, it throws up a quantity of this water, by a contraction of the muſcles, into the other ſtomachs, which ſerves to macerate its dry and ſimple food. It can, by its ſcent, diſcover water at the diſtance of more than half a league, and, after a very long abſtinence, will haſten towards it.

The Arabs train their faithful camels from their births to all the hardſhips they have to undergo during the whole courſe of their lives. They accuſtom them to travel far, and eat little; to paſs their days without drinking, and their nights without ſleep; to kneel down to be loaded, and to riſe the moment they find the burden equal to their ſtrength: and, indeed, they will not ſuffer any greater weight to be put upon their backs than they can bear. Their feet are adapted to the ſands which they are to paſs over, their roughneſs and ſpongy ſoftneſs preventing them from cracking.

Such is the nature of the animal ſo often celebrated in the bible, the koran, and the eaſtern hiſtories; and with which the Arabian robber forms a ſociety, for the purpoſe of carrying on his trade of plunder, in which the man is to have all the profit, an the animal all the fatigue.

When the maſter and his camel are equipped for plunder, they ſet out together, traverſe the ſandy deſarts, and lie in ambuſh upon the confines to rob the merchant or traveller. The man ravages, maſſacres, and ſeizes the pray; and the camel carries the booty.

The Arabian free-booter qualifies his camel for expedition by matches, in which a horſe runs againſt him. The camel, though leſs active and nimble, tires out his rival in a long courſe.

The banditti frequently rob on horſeback as well as on camels. They will alarm and dart upon a traveller when leaſt expected, and gallop away, if under any apprehenſion of a purſuit, with incredible ſwiftneſs.

SECTION III.

Perſons. Apparel. Number. Manner of living. Government. Cookery. Mode of Salutation. Diſpoſitions and Diverſions of the Natives. Remarks on the Privileges of the Arabian Women.

LIKE many of the nations of Aſia, the Arabians are of a middle ſtature, thin, and of a ſwarthy complexion, with black hair and black eyes. They wear long beards as a mark of gravity and conſequence: being ſerious and reſerved, they ſpeak little, uſe no geſture, make no pauſes, and never interrupt each other. Their apparel is a looſe diſorderly kind of dreſs, five or ſix yards long, and not leſs broad: this they wrap round them, and are forced to gird it with a ſaſh;

at night it ſerves them for a bed and coverlid. Their upper garment is generally wove in one piece: it has a cap for the head, is tight about the neck, and grows wide towards the bottom. This garment is only worn in cold and rainy weather. Under this, and the garb that wraps entirely over the whole, ſome of them wear a long cloſe-bodied waiſtcoat, without ſleeves. Their ſaſh or girdle is of worſted, and in it they ſtick their poinards, their ink-horns, or badges of their calling. The women wear a kind of ſhort waiſtcoat and drawers, but ſometimes they have only a towel wrapped round their loins. Whenever they go out, they ſo cover themſelves with the ſame kind of general incloſing garb as is worn by the men, that there is very little to be ſeen of their faces; for jealouſy, that conſtant diſturber of unguarded and impetuous minds, here plays the tyrant in the breaſt of all the male Arabs. Some of the men go almoſt naked in hot weather: others wear drawers and ſlippers, but no ſtockings.

Theſe people are diſtributed into ſeveral clans; and the whole number of inhabitants are ſuppoſed to amount to about 2,000,000. They have (at leaſt the Bedouins, or roving Arabs) no ſettled place of abode, but fix at ſuch places as ſupply them with water, paſture, and fruits, ſubſiſting upon the fleſh or milk of their herds and cattle.

Their greateſt happineſs is in the roving life; and they look upon their more ſettled countrymen as abject ſlaves. They ſleep in tents or huts, which they pitch in the evening in any ſpot preſcribed either by fancy or convenience. Theſe moveable habitations, which are called *illymas*, from the ſhade they afford the natives, are of an oblong form, and differ in ſize according to the number of the people who occupy them. They are covered with the ſkins of beaſts, and ſome ſupported by one pillar, ſome by two, and others by three, whilſt a ſort of curtain or carpet, made of ſkins, divides the tent into ſeparate apartments. The pillars are ſtrait poles, eight or ten feet high, and four or five inches thick, ſerving only to ſupport the tent; but being full of hooks, the natives hang upon them their cloaths, baſkets, ſaddles, &c. When they retire to ſleep, they lay themſelves down upon a mat or carpet in the center, or in a corner of the tent. Such as are married have a corner of the tent divided off by a curtain.

The tents of theſe roving inlanders, though they may be ſheltered from the weather, are, notwithſtanding, attended with their inconveniencies; for the cold and dews, to which the people are expoſed, do not incommode half ſo much as the fleas, vipers, ſpiders, and ſcorpions.

They are under the government of an hereditary chief, who, aſſiſted by a few old men, determines all debates, and puniſhes offenders. If his conduct proves worthy of the approbation of his people, they revere him; if he be guilty of mal-adminiſtration, they put an end to his exiſtence, and elect another of his family in his room. Theſe petty princes are ſtiled *Xerifs* and *Imans*, both of them including the offices of king and prieſt.

What they conſume in coffee, dates, rice, and tobacco, is bought with the butter they take to the frontiers, and with the caſh they get by the yearly diſpoſal of not leſs than 20,000 camels, many of which are ſent to Perſia.

The Arabians retain ſeveral of the cuſtoms and manners we read of in ſacred as well as prophane hiſtory, being, if we except their religion, the ſame people they were two or three thouſand years ago. Upon meeting one another, they ſtill uſe the primitive ſalutation of "Peace be unto you." Before the Mahometan conqueſts, the expreſſion was, "God prolong your life." The inferiors, out of reſpect and deference, kiſs the feet, knees, or garments of their ſuperiors; whilſt the children and other kindred pay the ſame reſpect to parents and relations. The poſture they obſerve in giving one another the ſalute, or aſlemah, is laying the right hand upon the breaſt; while others, who are, perhaps, more intimately acquainted, or of equal age and dignity, mutually kiſs the hand, head, or ſhoulder of each other.

At the feaſt of their Bayram, and other great ſolemnities, the wife compliments her huſband by kiſſing his hand.

It is no diſgrace here for people of the higheſt characters to buſy themſelves even in the moſt menial offices. Nor is the greateſt prince or chief of theſe countries aſhamed to turn drover or butcher, by bringing a lamb from his herd, and killing it; whilſt his lady, or princeſs, makes a fire, and puts on a kettle to dreſs it.

Their food is rice, and any kind of fleſh, except that of the hog: but they have always the blood drained carefully from every vein of the animal when killed. Their moſt delicious food is the fleſh of a young camel; and for their bread, they make thin cakes of flour, which they bake upon an hearth.

They dreſs their victuals by digging holes in the earth, and then making a fire with whatever fuel they can get, or with the dried dung of their camels. They carry their water with them, loading their camels with that neceſſary article.

The wandering Arabs pique themſelves on obſerving the ſtricteſt probity towards one another, and maintain the character of humane, diſintereſted, and beneficent hoſts, in their tents; but, out of them, they are ſavage and rapacious, committing continual depredations in the different towns and villages. If they are purſued, they mount each a camel or horſe, and make a precipitate retreat, driving a whole troop, or rather herd, of camels before them, loaded with plunder.

They frequently carry their incurſions to a great diſtance; and Syria, Meſopotamia, Perſia, and other parts, are not uncommonly the ſcenes of their depredations. Mr. Ives, in his travels from Diarbekir, ſays, "To-day we joined a nation of wandering Arabs, with their families and numerous flocks. The latter conſiſted of the fineſt ſheep, and moſt hairy goats, I ever remember to have ſeen. We wanted to buy ſome of them, but could not ſucceed. The Arabs were juſt come from the Armenian mountains."

The ſame gentleman ſays, "The Arabs are divided into tribes; and, out of as many of theſe as poſſible, it is adviſeable, in croſſing the deſarts, to ſelect men: for no tribe, of whom you have a ſingle man, will hurt or moleſt you. Or if you meet with any of their ſcouting parties, and can prevail with a ſingle one to enter the tent, and drink coffee, or eat rice, or any thing, you will then be ſafe from any inſult, either from them or their brethren; it being an invariable maxim with them never to moleſt thoſe ſtrangers they have eaten and drank with. Should any out-party come up with you, and hang back to their main body, to communicate intelligence, even in that caſe, if one of your men can make greater haſte, and throw himſelf at the feet of their xerif, or prince, and implore protection, you may reſt aſſured of your life and property: for another maxim with them is, that whoſoever ſhall fly to the powerful, and ſupplicate aſſiſtance, has a right to receive it."

The following is an account given of the reception which ſome European merchants met with from a tribe of Arabs, wandering from country to country. "This extenſive encampment of roving Arabs (ſays the author) was under the command of a prince, whoſe tent was in the center: the reſt were pitched about it; not in a circular form, but extending in length as the plain opened, for the convenience of a ſtream that flowed through the encampment. As ſoon as the merchants were alighted, who had previouſly ſent before them ſome native Arabs, they were conducted by ſome of the prince's chief people to a larger tent pitched next to his own, and the prince then viſited them, giving them a hearty welcome. In the evening a ſupper was provided, conſiſting of a diſh of pilau, or boiled rice, and ſeveral diſhes of meat excluſively. Next day a grand entertainment was given by one of the prince's nobles,

at which his highneſs attended, as did the merchants. The dinner, which conſiſted of two young camels, a diſh of camel's bones and ſoup, and ſeveral diſhes of rice dreſſed various ways, was conducted with tolerable decorum; though there were neither knives, forks, or ſpoons; fingers alone being the inſtruments made uſe of."

The life of an Arabian is one continued round of idleneſs or diverſion. When no paſtime calls him abroad, he loiters in his tent, ſmoaks his pipe, or ſtretches himſelf under the ſhade of ſome tree. He has no reliſh for domeſtic pleaſure, and ſeldom converſes with his wife or children. He values nothing ſo much as his horſe, being ſeldom ſo well pleaſed as when he is hunting; and in this diverſion they are excellent; for moſt of them will hunt down a wild boar with aſtoniſhing expedition.

When they hunt the lion, great numbers of the natives aſſemble, who, forming themſelves in a circle, encloſe a large ſpace of ground, of three, four, or five miles in compaſs: then the people on foot advancing firſt, ruſh into the thickets with their dogs and ſpears, to rouſe the game; while the horſemen, keeping a little behind, are always ready to charge upon the firſt ſally of the beaſt. In this manner they proceed, ſtill contracting their circle, till they at laſt either cloſe together, or meet with game to divert them.

The accidental paſtime upon theſe occaſions is ſometimes very great; for the ſeveral different ſorts of animals, ſuch as hyænas, hares, jackalls, &c. that happen to lie within the compaſs, being driven together, afford a variety of excellent diverſion.

The firſt perſon againſt whom the lion flies receives him on his ſpear, which furniſhes the others with an opportunity of attacking him behind. The lion finding himſelf wounded in the rear, turns that way, which gives the firſt man time to recover. Thus he is attacked on all ſides, till at laſt they diſable and diſpatch him.

The eyes of a lion are always bright and fiery, and he retains this aſpect of terror even in death.

The roaring of the lion, when heard in the night, and re-ecchoed by the hills, reſembles diſtant thunder. This roar is his natural voice; his cry of anger being a different growl, which is ſhort, broken, and reiterated. His cry of anger is alſo much louder, and more formidable. He then laſhes his ſides with his long tail, and his mane ſeems to ſtand like briſtles round his head; the muſcles of his face are greatly agitated, and his huge eye-brows cover a great part of his glaring eyeballs. It appears, however, from various accounts, that the indignation of this animal is noble, his courage magnanimous, and his diſpoſition grateful. His courage is tempered with mercy; and he has been known to ſpare the weaker animals, as if they were beneath his attention.

Fowling is a favourite diverſion of the Arabs. They do not ſpring game with dogs, but ſhade themſelves with a piece of painted cloth, ſtretched upon two reeds, and walk thus covered through the ſeveral brakes and avenues where they expect to find game. In this painted cloth are ſeveral holes for the fowler to look through, in order to obſerve what paſſes before him. The ſportſman, on ſight of game, reſts his ſhade upon the ground, and directs the muzzle of his gun through one of the holes, and thus diſcharges it.

We find very early in Arabia the women in high conſideration, and poſſeſſing privileges hardly inferior to thoſe which they enjoy in the moſt enlightened countries of Europe. They had a right, by the laws, to the enjoyment of independent property by inheritance, by gift, by marriage ſettlement, or by any other mode of acquiſition. The wife had a regular dower, which ſhe was to enjoy in full right, after the demiſe of her huſband; and a kind of ſtated allowance, which ſhe might diſpoſe of in her life time, or bequeath at her death, without his knowledge or conſent.

Marriage ſettlements and portions, given with daughters or ſiſters, appear to have been of great antiquity in Arabia; for long before Mohammed, or Mahomet, they had refined ſo much upon them, that it became common, where two men were obliged to give great fortunes with their neareſt relations, to evade payment by making a double marriage, one eſpouſing the daughter or ſiſter of the other, or giving his daughter or ſiſter in return. This practice, probably with the view of encouraging alliances among different tribes, or preventing too much wealth from accumulating in particular families, Mahomet declared to be illegal in the Alcoran. The ſeparate property which the wife enjoyed, ſeems to have been the produce of ſuch preſents as the bride received from her friends, or from her huſband before marriage. Thoſe of the bridegroom had no fixed medium, being proportioned to his affection, to his fortune, and often to his oſtentation: for it was cuſtomary to ſend thoſe preſents a day or two before the nuptials, with great pomp, from his houſe to the dwelling of the bride.

At the celebration of the nuptial rites in the eaſt, even upon ordinary occaſions, it was uſual to throw amongſt the populace, as the proceſſion moved along, money, ſweetmeats, &c. which the people catched in cloths. The bride, on the day of marriage, was conducted with great ceremony to her huſband's houſe; and, immediately on her arrival, ſhe made him a variety of preſents, eſpecially of houſehold furniture, with a ſpear and a tent.

SECTION IV.

Preſent State of the Sciences in Arabia. Feats of Sorcerers. Language. Commerce.

THE preſent ſtate of the ſciences in Arabia is at a very low ebb. The Arabs afford now no monument of genius, no productions of induſtry, that entitle them to any rank in the hiſtory of the human mind. Phyſic, philoſophy, aſtronomy, and the mathematics, for which they were once ſo famous, are ſo loſt to them, that ſcarcely the traces of them are remaining. We, however, muſt ſay, that the preſent Arabs have ſtrong intellects, and that nature has, in general, given them a genius; but application and inclination are both wanting to improve it.

To remove a diſorder, they frequently uſe charms and incantations, or leave it to contend with nature. They pour hot freſh butter into ſimple and gun-ſhot wounds, and this remedy ſometimes ſucceeds. An application of the prickly pear, roaſted in aſhes, is good in ſuppurations.

Time is in theſe countries meaſured by hour-glaſſes: and in ſome parts of Arabia Petræa they have calendars, that were left them by their anceſtors, which are rather curious, and in which the ſun's place, the ſemidiurnal and nocturnal arch, the length of the twilight, and the hours of prayer, are inſerted in their proper columns, and calculated to a moment.

They now know little of algebra, or numerical arithmetic; though their anceſtors furniſhed us with the characters of the one, and with the name at leaſt of the other: yet they have a way of reckoning, by putting their hands into each others ſleeves, and touching one another with a certain joint or finger ſo expreſſively, that, without even moving their lips, they can conclude bargains or agreements.

There are ſome wiſe men, however, amongſt them, who, if you believe them, are ſo ſkilled in figures, as to be able, by certain combinations of numbers, to form even the moſt wonderful calculations.

Here too are ſome famous fire-eaters and breaſt-thumpers, who both pretend to ſorcery. The former put burning wadding, and ſuch ſort of ſtuff, into their mouths; and the latter ſtrike their breaſts with large iron pins; and yet neither of them receive any damage from theſe aſtoniſhing feats.

The language of theſe people is Arabeſk, a very corrupt Arabic. The pure Arabic is only underſtood by

ſome of the ſettled natives on the ſea coaſts, and is taught in the ſchools, as well as uſed in places of worſhip.

The Arabian exportation of coffee may be eſtimated at twelve millions five hundred and fifty thouſand weight. The European companies take off a million and a half; the Suez fleet ſix millions and a half; the Perſians three millions and a half; Indoſtan, the Maldives, and the Arabian colonies on the coaſt of Africa, 50,000; and the caravans a million. The coffee purchaſed by the Europeans and caravans is the beſt that can be procured. And here we cannot omit to mention, that the roving Arabs raiſe a contribution on the caravans. Thoſe which travel from Damar to Mecca procure an uninterrupted journey for the conſideration of an hundred and fifty thouſand livres, to which the Grand Seignor is ſubjected.

Mocha is ſupplied by Abyſſinia with muſk, ſheep, elephants teeth, and ſlaves; by the eaſtern coaſt of Africa, with gold, amber, ivory, and ſlaves; by the Perſian Gulph, with corn and tobacco; by Surat, with linens; by Pondicherry and Bombay, with copper, lead and iron, carried thither from Europe; and by Malabar with rice, ginger, and other articles. None of theſe branches of trade, however, thus carried on at Mocha, can be ſaid to be under the management of the natives; the warehouſes are occupied and regulated by the Banians of Surat or Guzurat.

To the port of Jodda (which is ſituated near the center of the Gulph of Arabia, about 20 leagues from Mecca, and where the Grand Seignor and the Xeriff of Mecca ſhare the authority and revenues between them) Surat ſends annually three ſhips, laden with ſilks, cotton, linens, ſhawls, &c.

SECTION V.

Religion of the Arabs. Prevalence of impoſture and ſuperſtition. Tenets and ceremonies. Deſcription of the pilgrimage to the temple of Mecca.

WITH reſpect to the religion of the ancient Arabs, ſome of them had more enlightened notions of the Deity than others; ſo that their worſhip was proportioned to their knowledge.

The celebrated Dr. Wells obſerves, "Chriſtianity was taught here by St. Paul and his diſciples; ſo that it received the light of the goſpel very early; but, in many parts it was much clouded, if not totally eclipſed, long before the grand impoſtor Mahomet, their countryman, made his appearance; and upon their being ſubdued by the Turks, they embraced his religion. But, in more ancient days, they were idolaters: hence Alexander the Great was induced to attempt the conqueſt of them, that he might be worſhipped by them as a deity; for though great numbers had an exalted idea of one all-ruling omniſcient and omnipreſent Being, yet many had other deities."

Many of the modern Arabs carry about with them a paragraph of the koran, which they place upon their breaſts, or ſew under their caps, to prevent faſcination; ſo addicted are they to ſuperſtition.

They have a great veneration for the Marabbats, who are deemed ſaints, and are perſons of a rigid and auſtere life, continually employing themſelves either in counting over their beads, or elſe in prayer and meditation.

So infatuated were theſe people in favour of Mahomet, that, on his death, they would not ſuffer the dead body of the impoſtor to be interred, till Abubeker, the ſucceeding caliph, produced ſeveral paſſages from the koran, convincing the deluded multitude, that, according to the nature of things, Mahomet muſt be really and abſolutely dead.

The four fundamental points of religious practice required by the koran are, prayer, giving of alms, faſting, and making a pilgrimage to Mecca.

There is purification performed by rubbing, and which is enjoined in fiftieth chapter of the koran. It is called Al Tayamon, denoting properly the action of taking any thing from the ſurface, as fine ſand from the ſurface of the earth; whence the parts of the body are ſometimes rubbed with fine ſand, inſtead of being waſhed with water. The words of the koran are, "If ye be ſick, or on a journey, or if ye have touched women, and ye find no water, take fine clean ſand, and rub yourſelves therewith."

Beſides theſe purifying ceremonies, there is the ceremony of circumciſion; which, though not directly required in the koran, is yet held by the Mahometans to have been originally of Divine inſtitution, and is exerciſed on children as ſoon as they are able to pronounce the profeſſion of their faith.

It is a maxim, too, with the muſſulmen, that as combing the hair, paring the nails, and plucking out the hairs of the arm-pits, are all points of cleanlineſs, they are eſſentially neceſſary to internal purification; and theſe therefore are looked upon as indiſpenſible duties.

Every ſtrict and conſcientious muſſulman performs public prayer five times a day, in conſequence of the Divine command pretended to have been given to Mahomet for that purpoſe: this he does either in a moſque, or in ſome other place that is clean, after a preſcribed form, and with a certain number of praiſes or ejaculations.

The muſſulmen of Mecca, when in a moſque, muſt, when they pray, turn their faces towards the temple of Mecca.

The Mahometans do not attend divine ſervice in elegant apparel, but dreſs themſelves only with a becoming and conſiſtent decency; and are, for the moſt part, predeſtinarians.

Of the article of predeſtination the impoſtor Mahomet made a very political uſe, eſpecially at the battle of Ohod, in which he was repulſed by the Coraiſchites. He calmed the minds of his party after their defeat, by repreſenting to them, that the time of every man's death was decreed and predetermined by God; and that, therefore, thoſe who fell in the battle of Ohod could not poſſibly have lived had they ſtaid at home, for the inevitable hour of their diſſolution was arrived.

There is annually a moſt numerous and ſolemn pilgrimage of the Mahometans to the Masjad-Al-Haran, or Sacred Temple of Mecca; which pilgrimage was inſtituted by Mahomet.

To this holy temple, in the ancient city of Mecca, a prodigious concourſe of people reſort. The temple ſtands in the center of the town, and hath a famous caaba, or ſquare ſtructure, peculiarly hallowed, and ſet apart for worſhip: its door is of ſilver, and a golden ſpout carries off the water from the roof. It is 24 cubits in length, 23 in breadth, and 27 in height. On the north ſide, within a ſemicircular incloſure, is a celebrated white ſtone, ſaid to be the ſepulchre of Iſhmael, which reſerves the water that falls from the golden ſpout. The caaba has a double roof, ſupported within by octangular pillars, between which hang ſilver lamps: the outſide is covered with rich black damaſk, adorned with an embroidered band of gold, which is changed every year, being provided by the Grand Seignor. Juſt without the incloſure, on the ſouth, north, and weſt ſides of the caaba, are three buildings, in which three particular ſects aſſemble to perform their devotions.

To this antique and celebrated edifice the pilgrims, in prodigious numbers, annually reſort, when there is a fair held for all ſorts of merchandize; people, in crouds, from different nations, aſſembling, to the amount generally of not leſs than 20,000, at which time even the very vaults of moſques, and the caves of neighbouring mountains, are ſtored with rich commodities,

It muſt be obſerved, that the holy temple is opened four times in the year; but it is at the ſolemn feaſt of the Bayram, or Eaſter, when the greateſt multitude aſſemble, who purchaſe relics of the old black damaſk covering,

covering, previous to its being ſucceeded by a new one from the Grand Seignor.

The pilgrims bound to Mecca commonly wear a ſort of black cloak, which is faſtened about the neck with a long hoop, and hangs looſe behind. As ſoon as they have got into the city, they proceed to the holy temple, and walk round it ſeveral times; the three firſt in a very quick pace, to manifeſt their readineſs to fight for the true worſhip of God.

From the mountain of Mina the prieſts deliver their pious harangues, and afterwards in the vale make freſh ſacrifices of ſheep, the fleſh of which is diſtributed among the poor.

Thevenot aſſerts, that when he was in this part of the globe, upwards of 6000 perſons belonging to one caravan died in the road between Cairo and Mecca, by the hot winds, and other calamities; and that the effects of ſuch as die devolve to the prieſts.

As the northern Arabs owe ſubjection to the Turks, and are governed by baſhaws reſiding amongſt them, they receive conſiderable gratuities from the Grand Seignor, for protecting the pilgrims from being plundered by their countrymen.

Having had frequent occaſion to mention the arch impoſtor Mahomet, we ſhall now preſent our readers with on account of the life of that diſtinguiſhed hypocrite, which we ſhall conclude with the hiſtory of the caliphs, his ſucceſſors; and then proceed to a deſcription of ſuch of the cities of Arabia as are worthy attention.

SECTION VI.

Memoirs of the Grand Impoſtor Mohomet, from his Birth to his Death.

THAT ſingular character Mahomet, or Mahomed, as ſtiled by the Arabians, was born at Mecca, in the ſixth century, in the reign of Juſtinian XI. emperor of Conſtantinople. Mahomet, though illiterate, and of mean birth, poſſeſſed a moſt ſhrewd underſtanding. He was left an orphan at about eight years of age; and Abuteled, his uncle, took him under his care. Till the age of twenty he lived with his uncle, who was a factor, and afterwards entered into the ſervice of a wealthy merchant, who dying, Mahomet made his addreſſes to Cadiga, his widow, and married her.

During the time he was in the ſervice of his uncle, Mahomet travelled into Syria, Paleſtine, and Egypt, where he made particular obſervations on the great variety of religious ſects, whoſe antipathy againſt each other ſeemed inveterate, at the ſame time that, in many points, the majority of them evidently concurred.

He continued his commercial connections for ſome years with great ſucceſs after his marriage with Cadiga, but at the ſame time was forming a project of inſtituting a new ſyſtem of religion, more general than any which had hitherto been eſtabliſhed.

As Mahomet well knew the genius of his countrymen, he entertained the moſt ſanguine hopes of ſucceſs. He was aware that the Arabians were fond of novelty, and that they were addicted to illuſions and enthuſiaſm.

He was powerfully aided in his grand deſign by Sergius, a monk, who, being of looſe morals, had relinquiſhed his cloiſter and profeſſion, and was a ſervant under Cadiga, at the time that Mohomet married her. This monk was exceeding well calculated, by his erudition, to ſupply the defects of his illiterate maſter. When the latter had maturely weighed the chief articles of the worſhip he intended to eſtabliſh, he made a beginning in his own family; and, ſenſible that no religion would be looked upon as true without ſome ſanction, his firſt ſtep was to make his wife Cadiga believe, that he had an intimate correſpondence with heaven.

In order to bring this about, he made an artful uſe of an infirmity to which he was ſubject, viz. the epilepſy. Whenever he was attacked with fits, he uſed to caution Cadiga not to form any erroneous opinion of the convulſive ſtate in which ſhe ſaw him; for that, ſo far from being a calamity, it was a bleſſing from heaven; that theſe fits were trances, into which he was miraculouſly thrown by the Divine Being, and during which he received inſtructions from him; which inſtructions he was to make public to the ſons of men.

His wife, either really believing, or affecting to believe, this curious ſtory, propagated a report that her huſband was inſpired: and the impoſtor, living very abſtemiouſly, acquired a character for ſuperior ſanctity throughout his neighbourhood. The vulgar implicitly believed that he really held converſe with the Almighty; and they looked upon his epileptic fits as an inconteſtible evidence of his inſpiration. In a little time Mahomen boldly declared himſelf a prophet ſent by God into the world to teach his will, and to compel mankind to pay obedience to it.

His diſciples rapidly increaſing, the magiſtrates of Mecca thought it highly expedient to exerciſe their authority on this occaſion, and ſignified a deſign of bringing Mahomet before them. The latter, however, being ſoon apprized of their intention, made his eſcape in the night, accompanied by many of his deluded people, to whom he made very eloquent and pathetic harangues, touching the obſtacles raiſed by the wiles of Satan, to the propagation of thoſe tenets that had been revealed to him.

The ignorant people, captivated with the force of his language, devoted themſelves entirely to his will, with offers of ſacrificing their all in defence of him and his doctrine.

Mahomet, therefore, finding himſelf very formidable, and ſecure in the attachment of the ſoldiery as well as others, meditated an attack upon Mecca. His followers approved of his deſign; and accordingly he ſent forth a conſiderable force under the command of one Hamza, an uncle of his, and whom he thought worthy of his confidence, in conſideration of the zeal the latter had ſhewn for his doctrine. Hamza, who, to the blindeſt zeal, joined the moſt conſummate natural bravery, marched at the head of a numerous body, and laid ſiege to Mecca, but was repulſed with conſiderable loſs.

This repulſe, however, was ſo far from diſconcerting the beſiegers, that it ſpurred them on to the reſolution of a ſecond attack. They improved themſelves in the military art with the utmoſt aſſiduity.

They began their march for Mecca a ſecond time, and on their road they fell in with a caravan of Coraiſchites, whom they furiouſly attacked, defeated, plundered, and killed thoſe who refuſed to embrace the doctrine of their leader, who then proceeded on to Mecca, and forced that city to ſurrender. But he was afterwards defeated at the battle of Ohod.

Abu Sofian, is implacable enemy, having put himſelf at the head of the Coraiſchites, cauſed his troops to advance towards Medina, and poſſeſſed himſelf of Mount Ohod, diſtant about four miles from that city. Mahomet made a moſt furious attack upon him, to drive him from his poſt, and, in the beginning of the action, obtained ſome ſmall advantage; but being wounded, was obliged to quit the field. His followers, finding their leader had deſerted them, were ſtruck with a general panic, and a terrible ſlaughter enſued; the victors perpetrating the moſt horrid cruelties on the vanquiſhed. Mahomet, however, had recourſe to his deluſive arts to ſilence the complaints of his infatuated adherents, who, reaſſuming their arms, obtained important conqueſts over their opponents, ſo that the impoſtor, encouraged thereby, turned his force againſt the Jews, ſeized ſeveral of their towns, and, amongſt others, Kaibar, one of the ſtrongeſt; but, after that, had like to have met with death. Having taken up his lodgings at the houſe of one of the principal citizens, whoſe name was Hareth, among other things a poiſoned ſhoulder of mutton was ſerved up at table, of which he eat, and was ſoon taken ill. Proper remedies were, however, applied, and his life preſerved, though the poiſon was never totally eradicated. Who committed this atrocious offence nobody then knew. However,

ever, after his death it was diſcovered that Zainab, daughter of Hareth, had given him the poiſon on this principle, that if he was the great prophet he pretended to be, the poiſon could have no effect on him.

Part of the poiſon lurking in his body, notwithſtanding many remedies had been applied, he, at intervals, was much indiſpoſed. This, however, did not prevent him from purſuing the victory of his arms. He marched againſt the Greeks, and lighted up the firſt ſpark of that fatal war which his followers ſo rigorouſly carried on for ſeveral centuries.

Mahomet delegated the command of this war to an intrepid general, named Kaled Walid, who, after a repulſe at firſt from the enemy, attended with the loſs of moſt of his officers, had recourſe to the arts of his maſter, and thereby inſpired his men with ſuch an enthuſiaſtic ardour, that they fell furiouſly upon the enemy, and obtained a complete victory.

After the above battle Mahomet went in pilgrimage to Mecca, attended by a vaſt concourſe of Muſſulmen. The pomp and magnificence he diſplayed in his journey, and the ſurreptitious ſhew of religion with which he viſited the Caaba, made a great impreſſion on the inhabitants of Mecca, and eſpecially the Coraiſchites, numbers of whom embraced his religion. The example of theſe, however, did not ſeduce the reſt of the Coraiſchite tribes. They, on the contrary, broke the truce that had been made, and gave Mahomet battle, but were totally defeated; and ſuch as did not, in conſequence of this defeat, embrace his religion, were maſſacred on the ſpot.

Mahomet then cauſed himſelf to be acknowledged ſovereign of Mecca: and the beginning of the year following, which was the eighth of the Hegira, ſome few ſcattered diffidents, who had eſcaped the ſword of the tyrant, contrived, with great judgement and diligence, to form a conſiderable party, and, as ſoon as they found themſelves ſufficiently formidable, took the field, ravaging many of thoſe parts that had ſubmitted to his power.

The tyrant, enraged at the inſolence of this preſumptuous faction, put himſelf at the head of his forces, and marched to give them battle. Accordingly a bloody engagement enſued, at a place called Honaim, in which the troops of Mahomet, though ſuperior in number to the enemy, were vigorouſly repulſed; upon which, flying to the yielding ranks, and re-animating them with his perſonal courage, he rallied them, and obtained a moſt deciſive victory.

Mahomet then cauſed himſelf to be acknowledged ſovereign of all Arabia. He deſtroyed all the idols and monuments of paganiſm, and ſuffered no other religion to be profeſſed but his own.

He now made a ſecond pilgrimage to Mecca, conſiderably more ſolemn and magnificent than the firſt, and performed all the ceremonies with great appearance of devotion. He erected courts of juſtice, appointed proper officers, and conſtituted a pontiff or high prieſt. He no longer appeared the dreadful conqueror, but the mild legiſlator, and the Arabians were ſoon reconciled to his government.

Mahomet took a proper advantage of this general tranquillity, ſtrengthened his armies, and exerciſed them himſelf; and the good policy of ſuch precaution was ſoon apparent: for the Greeks, who ill brooked the diſgrace they had ſuffered, reſolved on revenge, and advanced to Balka, a city on the frontiers of Syria. Mahomet, at the head of 30,000 men, went to meet them: but the Greeks, alarmed at ſo numerous an army, thought proper to retreat; and the impoſtor ſpent the remainder of the year, which was the 10th of the Hegira, in reviſing the ſeveral laws he had made for the government of the ſtate. He then made his third and laſt pilgrimage to Mecca, which far exceeded the two former in pomp and magnificence. Some of the moſt conſiderable perſons in Arabia accompanied him; and his wives (for he had more than one) alſo attended him in ſtately litters, borne by camels.

To inſpire the people with the moſt awful veneration for his doctrine, and at the ſame time to evince to them that he was the ſupreme head as well in ſpirituals as temporals, he now performed the office of pontiff himſelf; preached in the temple, and concluded his harangue with the propoſition of new regulations, which he afterwards publiſhed, touching the rites and ceremonies of the newly eſtabliſhed religion.

He cauſed ſeveral camels to be ſlain, and offered as ſacrifices, which feſtival was concluded by a general farewell that he took of the people. He now found his health much on the decline. The poiſon that he had ſwallowed ſome years before, operated with greater violence than ever. He perceived that his diſſolution was not far off.

On his return to Medina, his illneſs conſiderably increaſing, he repaired to the houſe of Aiſka, who was his favourite wife, and there died at the age of ſixty-three. He was buried at Medina; ſo that the opinion which ſome have maintained, that his body was placed in a ſepulchre at Mecca, is entirely erroneous.

Mahomet, with the advantage of an engaging countenance, and well proportioned figure, poſſeſſed a moſt comprehenſive genius, and a firmneſs of ſoul ever capable of combating the greateſt difficulties. Stedfaſt and reſolute in the purſuit of the moſt amazing projects, he was poſſeſſed of the means of procuring ſucceſs. His deep penetration, his excellent judgement, his never-failing courage, his unwearied perſeverance, and refined ſagacity, ſupported and directed him to a ſtate of proſperity and triumph in almoſt every thing he undertook. He made no ſcruple of acknowledging that he had not received any education, though principal author of the Koran. He was, however, one of the fineſt and moſt eloquent ſpeakers in the whole country. He had not only a very good memory and lively conception, but was of a chearful and even temper. He could ſuit himſelf to all times, circumſtances, and diſpoſitions. He was as familiar with the nobility, as he was popular with the commonalty, and could lend an ear of real (or affected) commiſeration to the ſupplications of the diſtreſſed.

It may not be unworthy of remark here, that after the deciſive battle of Honaim, when Mahomet made a ſecond pilgrimage to Mecca, a poet, who had ſeverely lampooned him, ſolicited the honour of being introduced to him, that he might repeat ſome verſes he had written in his praiſe; for the face of things was now conſiderably changed. The conqueror could not forget the ſeverity with which he had been treated by the poet: to ſhew reſentment, however, would have been a degradation of dignity; he therefore granted him permiſſion to approach. The poet came trembling to his new ſovereign, and on his knees imploring forgiveneſs for the raſh freedom he had taken in his ſatires, began to pronounce his verſes, being encouraged therete by the mildneſs and complacency that ſat on his countenance. The verſes were ſo maſterly, ſo graceful, pathetic, eulogical, and elegant, that Mahomet not only moſt freely and readily pardoned him, but preſented him with a rich mantle from off his own back, and which he himſelf placed on the back of the poet. So ſingular and diſtinguiſhed an honour immortalized Caab, (for ſuch was the poet's name,) who wore it till his death, with all the exulting pride and ambition natural to a human being on ſo remarkable, ſo memorable, and ſo great an occaſion.

As Mahomet died without male iſſue, and had not nominated any ſucceſſor, different parties roſe, claiming an excluſive right of appointing one. Abubeker, however, who had always been the friend of peace and good order, propoſed two perſons, Omar and Abou-Obeid, for their choice of one of them: but this propoſition created ſtill greater diviſions, and the election remained undetermined, till Omar, to the aſtoniſhment of every perſon preſent, addreſſed himſelf to Abubeker, and kiſſing his hand, deſired that he (Abubeker) would aſſume the ſovereignty himſelf. The latter was ac-

cordingly chosen amidst the acclamations of the assembly: but he refused, from an inviolable veneration to the memory of his late master, to take on him the title of sovereign, chusing that of Caliph, signifying *successor*; which was afterwards the title of all who reigned over the Arabs.

Abubeker reigned only two years, during which time he made himself master of part of Syria.

On the death of Abubeker, Omar was elected caliph without opposition, having been nominated by his predecessor. This monarch compleated the conquest of Syria, and marching his army into Egypt, reduced that country. He lost his life by assassination, the particulars of which are as follow. A native of Persia, named Firouz, refusing to embrace Mahometism, a tax was levied upon him; upon which he made his complaints to the caliph, soliciting that the tax might be taken off, or at least retrenched, as he was incapable of paying it. "What trade do you follow?" said Omar. The man replied that he had three. "Very well (added the caliph) then you are taxed very moderately." Firouz, however, who possessed a most wicked vindictive soul, entered the mosque a few days afterwards while the caliph was there, and took an opportunity of stabbing him in three different parts of his body with a knife. Instantly the wretch was surrounded; but he defended himself with the bloody instrument, and stabbed thirteen others, seven of whom died in a few hours. Fresh efforts, however, were made to secure him; and the assassin at length discovering he should be overpowered, plunged the knife into his own bowels, and expired.

On the death of Omar, Othman succeeded to the caliphship. He was also assassinated, as was likewise his successor, Hali, who left two sons, on the eldest of whom the Arabians bestowed the crown.

Hassan, son and successor of Hali, after a reign of only about six months, abdicated his throne in favour of Moawiyah, who was the first of the dynasty of the Ommiyans, so called from Ommiyah, the head of that prince's family. As soon as this prince was firmly seated on the throne, he adopted measures to render the dignity of caliph hereditary, which had been before elective, and succeeded in his design. His crown descended to his son, and afterwards to the rest of his posterity.

That dynasty of princes maintained themselves with great glory for fourteen successions. The house of Ommiyah, however, was destroyed by the Abbassians, princes so denominated from their being descended from Abbas, uncle of Mahomet. They took up arms against the Ommiyans, under pretence of revenging the death of Hali, whom, they alledged, had been murdered by them, and Abul Abbas was accordingly proclaimed caliph.

Abdallah, uncle of Abul Abbas, caused an act of grace to be published, in the caliph's name, for all the Ommiyans who should appear before him, and take the oaths of allegiance to the new caliph. A day was fixed for the meeting of the chiefs or princes, and Abdallah attended them; but while he was preparing to tender the oaths, a party of soldiers, appointed for the purpose, drew up behind them, and destroyed them all on the spot, except one, who escaped, and fled to Spain. Immediately after this barbarous deed, the soldiers put to the sword a great number of Mussulmen, known to be devoted to the house of Ommiyah: and Abdallah having put an end to the slaughter, completed his bloody transactions with a most horrid entertainment.

The above infernal monster caused the bodies of the Ommiyans, who had been slaughtered by the soldiers, to be placed close to one another, and covered with boards, over which he ordered carpets to be laid; and upon this flooring, formed by dead carcases, he gave a sumptuous feast to the officers of the army. "Perhaps (said he) all of them may not be quite dead: in that case we shall have the happiness to hear them groan."

Such was the beginning of the reigh of Abul Abbas, who, however, did not enjoy the throne long; for he was seized with the small pox, died at the age of eighteen, and was succeeded by his brother, Abul Giaffer, surnamed Almanzor, or Victorious.

Almanzor built the city of Bagdad, which was the capital of the empire till the race of Abbas became extinct; on which account the Abbassians have been commonly called caliphs of Syria.

The Abbassians, who stiled themselves the true children of the house of Mahomet, possessed the diadem for more than 500 years, under 37 princes. During their reigns, part of their empire was at several times granted away; and the territories thus dismembered were erected into as many dynasties. Of these were the Thaherians and the Soffarides, who reigned in Persia, Transoxtana, and Turkestan; as also the Tholanides and Aschidians, who ruled Egypt under the title of the sultans; though at the same time they acknowledged the supremacy of the caliph of Bagdad. The Aschidians were succeeded by the Fatimites, who, pretending to be the true and rightful successors of Mahomet, as descended from Hali by Fatima, assumed the title of caliph.

After the extinction of the Fatimites, a new dynasty arose, called Gengiskanians, from Gengiskan, their founder. This prince, who became highly renowned on account of the rapidity of his exploits, put himself at the head of an army of Moguls and Tartars, and soon conquered an immense track of land. His successors, who inherited his bravery, as well as his antipathy to Mussulmen, added to their crown almost all the states which had been seized by the princes of the other dynasties, and at length made themselves masters of Bagdad, massacred the caliph and his children, and, by their deaths, put a final end to the illustrious house of Abbas, which had sat on the throne for upwards of 500 years. At this period the history of the caliphs properly concludes; for we cannot include, among the caliphs, Ahmed, who was three years afterwards proclaimed caliph by the Mamalukes of Egypt, under the name of Mostanzer Billah. They called him the son of Daher Ben Nasser, the Abassian; and Bibars, who was then sultan of the Mamalukes, caused him to be recognized in Egypt; so that a second dynasty of Abbassians was formed, if the name of dynasty can be allowed to a race of princes who were only looked upon merely as the heads of the church. This pretended dynasty subsisted till the end of the reign of the Mamalukes, in the 923d year of the Hegira, and 1517th of the Christian æra; when Selim the First, emperor of the Ottoman Turks, annexed all Egypt to his empire.

SECTION VII.

Description of the chief Cities of Arabia, and of the Mosque and Tomb of Mahomet in Medina.

MECCA, the capital of Arabia, and birth-place of Mahomet, is situated in a valley, and surrounded by mountains, from whence the stone of which it is built was taken. It is about two miles in length, and a mile broad. The temple is in the middle of the town, and is called Masjad Al Haram, or, *The Sacred Temple*. The houses here make no great figure; nor is it a place of any strength, not having any kind of fortifications. The principal support of the city is the great concourse of pilgrims who come hither. The Xerif of Mecca generally resides at his castle of Marbaa, about three miles distant: his troops are entirely infantry, called Al Harrabah. There are scarce any springs in or about this city, except the Zemzem, the waters of which cannot be drank for any continuance, being rather brackish, and causing eruptions in those who drink too freely of it; so that the inhabitants are forced to use rain water catched in cisterns. Many attempts have been made to convey water to the city by means of aqueducts, but have all proved ineffectual.

Mocha is a large, populous trading city and sea-port, situated at the entrance of the Red Sea. It contains

about 1000 inhabitants, moſtly Mahometans: and here are great numbers of Jews; but theſe are obliged to live in the ſuburbs. The city, which is ſurrounded by a wall, has four gates, and ſeveral towers, ſome of them mounted with cannon, and garriſoned by ſoldiers. The ſtreets are ſpacious, and the houſes built of brick or ſtone, conſiſting of two ſtories, with terraces on the tops. The ſhops are judiciouſly built for trade, and ſtored with all ſorts of commodities. Here arrives annually the great ſhip Manſouri, ſent by the Grand Seignor, laden with the richeſt merchandizes, and carrying back ſpices, ſilks, callicoes, and other valuable articles. Caravans alſo arrive here yearly from Turkey and Egypt. The port of Mocha is formed by two ſlips of land, on each point of which is a fortreſs, at the diſtance of about three miles from each other. A conſiderable branch of commerce of this city is coffee, which is cultivated at Betel-fagui, in the territory of Yenen. Mocha was no more than a mean village of fiſhermen, till the king of Yenen drove the Turks from Aden, and removed its trade principally to the above-mentioned city.

Aden is a large and populous city, containing about 6000 inhabitants, and was a place of prodigious reſort till its trade was chiefly removed to Mocha. It is ſituated between the Perſian Gulph and the Red Sea. Aden is ſo called, according to the Arabians, from its founder Aden, the ſon of Saba, and grandſon of Abraham. It is ſurrounded by mountains, the ſummits of which are fortified with cannon, and from which an aqueduct conveys water into a capacious reſervoir, about half a mile from the city. There are many handſome houſes, with terraces on their tops, in Aden; and the place is well ſecured by its advantageous ſituation, and proper fortifications. The Turks became maſters of this city, through treachery, in 1538, and, with their uſual cruelty, hung up the prince of it. They committed further acts of inhumanity, till the prince of Yenen extirpated them.

Medina, which is about fifty miles from the Red Sea, is ſituated in a plain, and ſurrounded by a wall of brick. Here are the moſque and tomb of Mahomet. The moſque is ſupported by 400 pillars, and ſupplied with 300 ſilver lamps, which are kept continually burning. Near the tomb of Mahomet is alſo the tomb of Abubeker.

Medina has ſeveral other grand moſques, but that of Mahomet is ſtiled the Moſt Holy. The houſes are in general low; and this city contains about 1200 families.

Mahomet's tomb, which is in one of the angles of the magnificent moſque, is of fine white marble, covered with a grand cupola. The roof of the moſque itſelf is a kind of tower, covered with plates of ſilver; and on its flooring is thrown a rich gold cloth. The inſide of the tomb is enriched with precious ſtones, of great ſize and beauty. Over the foot of the coffin is a golden creſcent, ſo curiouſly wrought, and adorned with ſuch precious ſtones, that its value is immenſe. The coffin is covered with a rich pall of gold and ſilver tiſſue, over which is a canopy of the ſame. Both are annually ſent from the baſhaw of Egypt, by order of the Grand Seignor, with the greateſt pomp imaginable, on the back of a camel; which animal derives a kind of ſanctity from it, and is never afterwards uſed in any ſort of drudgery.

SECTION VIII.

Deſcription of the venerable Ruins of Palmyra.

AS Palmyra is ſituated in a dreary deſart, quite from any common road, and beyond the Grand Seignor's protection, there is no part of a tour through the eaſt ſo difficult as a journey to it. An enquiry, however, into the ruins of this place, was reſolved on by the ingenious Mr. Dawkins, who was ſoon joined by Mr. Wood, and Mr. Bouverie, the latter of whom died before the deſign was carried into execution. The fourth perſon who had engaged in this peculiar undertaking, was an Italian of experienced ſkill in architecture and drawing. The rendezvous of this ſcientific ſociety was at Rome, where they ſpent a winter in ſtudying the ancient hiſtory and geography of the places they intended to viſit.

As ſoon as they had embarked for this expedition, they made ſail for the Archipelago, and viſited every thing worthy their obſervation there, as well as in parts of Greece, Europe, the coaſts of the Helleſpont, Propontis, &c. up to the Black Sea; as alſo the inland parts of Aſia Minor, Syria, Phœnicia, Paleſtine, and Egypt. They copied every inſcription they met with, and bought up all the Syrian, Greek, and Arabic manuſcripts they could poſſibly get.

The chief deſign of Mr. Dawkins in his tour, was to compile an hiſtory of the three Greek orders of architecture, at leaſt with reſpect to the changes, from the days of Pericles to thoſe of Dioclesian. With this view no difficulties whatever could deter our adventurers from proſecuting their truly laudable plan. In the courſe of their peregrinations, during which they inſpected every piece of antique architecture, they viſited Damaſcus by the way of mount Libanus, over which they croſſed, and were here informed, that neither the name or power of the baſhaw of Damaſcus could be any ſecurity to them, Palmyra being entirely out of his juriſdiction, and under that of an aga, who reſided at Haſſia, a village on the great caravan road from Damaſcus to Aleppo, and from which the Orontes is but at a ſhort diſtance.

They went to Haſſia, and were moſt kindly received by the aga, who expreſſed great ſurprize at the journey they had undertaken, and gave them an eſcort of his beſt Arab horſemen, properly armed, who, in a few hours, conducted them to Sudud, travelling through a deſart ſwarming with antelopes.

Sudud is a miſerable village, conſiſting of huts, built only with mud hardened by the ſun. The inhabitants are Maronite Chriſtians, who juſt cultivate as much land as they have occaſion for, and make tolerable red wine.

They dined at this village, and bought ſome Greek manuſcripts of a prieſt. From hence they proceeded to a Turkiſh village, called Howarcen, a mean place, but which, it was preſumed, had been once a ſituation of ſome conſequence; there being in it a ſquare tower with projecting battlements, and two mouldering churches, in the walls of which were ſeveral Corinthian capitals, as well as large Attic baſes of white marble.

From thence they bent their courſe for Carieteen, a village, in which were ſome few broken columns, and Corinthian marble capitals, with two imperfect Greek inſcriptions. Here they reſted beſt part of the ſecond day, to collect their people, and give their cattle reſt: for in this part of the deſart they may eaſily be loſt, there not being any ſettled ſtages; likewiſe there is not any water.

All the caravans had now time to come up, with whom this kept company, and travelled two days without either reſt or water.

The company were now about 200 perſons in number, with their camels, mules, aſſes, &c. and the chief guide told the travellers, that as they were now in the moſt dangerous part of the way, it was requiſite they ſhould put themſelves entirely under his direction; in conſequence of which, the ſervants, with the baggage, were ordered to fall back to the rear, there to remain protected by the Arab eſcort, from which two or three horſemen, who rode Tartar faſhion, with very ſhort ſtirrups, were diſpatched for diſcovery, to every eminence in ſight. The road was north by eaſt, through a flat ſandy plain, about ten miles broad: nor was there a ſingle tree or drop of water to be ſeen.

When night came on in this gloomy place, the Arabs diſmounted from their horſes, and ſeating themſelves in a circle, ſmoaked their pipes, and drank coffee.

At midnight the caravan halted two hours to refreſh; and on the fourteenth of March at noon it arrived at the

end

end of the plain, where ſome hills appeared; and here a valley was ſoon ſeen, in which was a ruinated aqueduct that once conveyed water to Palmyra; the ſepulchres of the antient inhabitants of which city lie thick both on the right and left, being ſquare towers of conſiderable height: and ſoon after having paſſed them, a ſudden opening among the hills exhibits a prodigious number of grand ruins of white marble, and beyond them a flat waſte, extending quite to the Euphrates.

No proſpect can be conceived more romantic, more ſtriking, more melancholy, or more grand. Here are innumerable piles of Corinthian pillars, without any intervening building, or wall of the leaſt ſolidity.

In this venerable, this ſolemn, ſplendid, romantic ſituation, our virtuoſi ſtaid fifteen days; during which time the Arab inhabitants entertained them in their huts with mutton and goats fleſh.

"The walls of this ancient and ſtupendous city (ſays Mr. Wood) were flanked with ſquare towers in many parts, particularly on the ſouth-eaſt, but nothing of them exiſts; and, from the beſt computation I could make, I imagine their circuit could not have been leſs than three Engliſh miles, provided they include the great temple. But as Palmyra muſt, when in its flouriſhing ſtate, have been much more than three miles round, it is not improbable that the old city covered a neighbouring piece of ground, the circumference of which is ten miles, and in every ſpot of which, the Arabs ſay, ruins are turned up by digging. This is a ſtill more reaſonable ſuppoſition, when we remember that ſuch fragments of antiquity as are found upon the three miles compaſs, juſt mentioned, could have belonged only to magnificent ſepulchres, and public edifices of the grandeſt kind; the moſt evident proofs that can be of an extenſive city. Perhaps the walls, juſt now ſpoken of, incloſed only that part of Palmyra which its public buildings occupied in its moſt proſperous ſtate; and were fortified, if not erected, by Juſtinian, who, according to Procopius, judged this a proper place to ſtop the furious progreſs of the Saracens. By cloſely inſpecting this wall, it appears that two or three of the flanking towers on the north-eaſt were formerly ſepulchral monuments; and this is ſome proof that the walls were poſterior to the monuments, and the work of a Chriſtian æra; for the pagan religion would have condemned the metamorphoſe as profane: beſides, the Greeks and Romans always buried without the walls of their reſpective cities; and the ſame cuſtom was religiouſly obſerved all over the eaſt."

Northweſt of the ruins of Palmyra, on the ſummit of a rocky hill, ſtands an antique caſtle, the aſcent to which is very ſteep and rugged; it is a mean ſtructure, not ſo old as the time of Juſtinian. It hath a ditch round it, which cannot be paſſed without ſome difficulty, the draw-bridge being broken down. There is one building here, the remains of which are truly grand; and this, according to the opinion of Mr. Wood, was the Temple of the Sun, which being much injured by the Roman ſoldiers, when Aurelian took the place, that emperor ordered, for the purpoſe of repairing it, three hundred pounds weight of gold, taken from the treaſures of Zenobia; and one thouſand eight hundred pounds weight of ſilver, levied upon the people; beſides the jewels of the crown. The height and ſolidity of the walls of its court tempted the Turks to convert it into a place of ſtrength; and then on the north-eaſt and ſouth they ſtopped up the windows, dug a ditch to the weſt, and demoliſhed the portico of the grand entrance; building its place a ſquare tower to flank that ſide. To the eaſt and ſouth of this temple are ſome plantations of olives, and ſome ſmall fields of corn, ſurrounded by mud walls, and watered by two ſtreams, which, though hot and ſulphurous, are by the inhabitants deemed very wholeſome. One of theſe ſtreams riſes weſt of the ruins, in a grotto nearly high enough to admit of a man's ſtanding upright: the bottom is a baſon of clear water, about two feet deep; and the place, on account of the heats being confined, is uſed as a bath. By an old inſcription found here, on an altar ſacred to Jupiter, we learn that this ſtream was much eſteemed while Palmyra flouriſhed, and was under the care of certain people elected thereto by ballot.

In the deſart, three or four miles ſouth-eaſt of Palmyra, lies the Valley of Salt, whence Damaſcus and the neighbouring towns are ſupplied with that commodity. In this place David is ſuppoſed to have ſmote the Syrians, as mentioned in 2 Sam. viii. 13. The ground is impregnated with ſalt to a very conſiderable depth; and here they have a method of hollowing the ground to about a foot deep, and from the rain water that lodges in it a fine white ſalt is gathered.

"We have but little information from hiſtory," ſays Mr. Wood, "of either Balbec or Palmyra: the knowledge we have is chiefly from inſcriptions. Does not this defect convey inſtruction, and convince us of the inſtability of human grandeur? The fate of theſe two cities differs from every other; we have no teſtimonies of what they were, but their own noble fragments;" which are deſcribed in the following manner by another author:

"Palmyra, in the deſarts of Arabia, or, as by the Scripture ſtiled, Tadmor in the Wilderneſs, is a moſt awful ſpectacle. As you approach, the firſt object that preſents itſelf is a ruinated caſtle, on the north ſide of the city. From it you deſcry Tadmor, incloſed on three ſides by long ridges of mountains; and to the ſouthward is a vaſt plain extending far beyond the ſight. The city muſt have been of large extent, from the ſpace now taken up by its ruins; among which live about thirty or forty miſerable families, in huts of dirt, within a ſpacious court which once encloſed a magnificent temple. This court has a ſtately high wall of large ſquare ſtones, adorned by pilaſters both within and without; there are about ſixty on each ſide. The beautiful cornices have been beaten down by the Turks. Towards the centre are the remains of a caſtle, ſhrouding the fragments of a temple of exquiſite beauty, as appears by what is ſtill ſtanding of its entrance, viz. two ſtones thirty-five feet long, carved with vines and cluſters of grapes. In the great court are the remains of two rows of very noble marble pillars thirty-ſeven feet high, with capitals finely carved, and the cornices muſt have been of equal elegance; fifty-eight of theſe pillars are entire: there muſt have been many more, as it appears they went quite round the court, ſupporting a moſt ſpacious double piazza. The walks on the weſt ſide of this piazza, which face the front of the temple, ſeem to have been grand and ſpacious; and at each end are two niches for ſtatues at length, with pedeſtals, borders, ſupporters, canopies, &c. carved with inimitable art. The ſpace within this once beautiful incloſure is (or rather was) encompaſſed by another row of pillars of a different order, fifty feet high, ſixteen of which are yet ſtanding. The temple was ninety feet long, and about forty broad: its grand entrance on the weſt appears, by what remains of it, to have been the moſt magnificent in the world. Over a door-way in the remaining walls you trace a ſpread eagle, as at Balbec; and here are the fragments of cupids, as well as of eagles, moſt finely imitating nature, on large ſtones mouldering on the earth. Nothing of the temple ſtands but the walls, the window-places of which are narrow at top, but richly adorned with ſculpture. In the middle is a cupola, all one ſolid piece. Leaving this court and temple, your eyes are ſaluted with a great number of pillars of marble ſcattered for near a mile. To the north you have a ſtately obeliſk before you, conſiſting of ſeven large ſtones beſides its capital, grandly ſculptured: it is more than fifty feet high, and is twelve feet and a half in circumference juſt above the pedeſtal, and it is imagined a ſtatue once ſtood upon it. Eaſt and weſt of this, at the diſtance of about a quarter of a mile, is another obeliſk, that ſeems to have correſponded with the firſt-mentioned; and, according to the fragments of a third, it ſeems as if there had been a continued range of them.

On

On one of these remains of antiquity, which is about forty feet high, is a Greek inscription, commemorating two patriots; and about an hundred paces from it is a large and lofty entrance, leading to a grand piazza, adorned with marble pillars, on most of which are inscriptions. A little farther onward, to the left, are the remains of a stately pile, of remarkable fine marble, twenty-two feet long. On the west side of the piazza are several openings for gates; two of them appear to have been the most superb that ever captivated the human eye, both in point of grandeur of work in general, and the beautiful porphyry pillars with which they are adorned. Eastward of the piazza are a great number of scattered marble pillars, most of which have been deprived of their elegant capitals. A little ruined temple lies mouldering at a short distance, which appears to have been a very curious structure. But of all the venerable remains, none more attract admiration than the magnificent sepulchres, towards the north of the city, extending a mile and more, and which, at a distance, have the appearance of tops of decayed churches, or bastions of ruined fortifications."

The magnificent city of Palmyra is mentioned in the Arabic translation of the Chronicles, as subsisting before the days of Solomon: but John of Antioch, surnamed Malala, says that it was built by Solomon, and on the very spot where his father slew the Philistine chief. He affirms that the city was built in commemoration of that memorable action.

We find in the 9th chapter of the 1st book of Kings, and the 8th of the 2d book of Chronicles, that Solomon erected a city in a wilderness, and called it Tadmor: and we are informed by Josephus, in the first book of his Antiquities, that some time after, the Greeks and Romans distinguished it by the name of Palmyra, even while its first name was still retained by the Syrians: and this is confirmed by St. Jerome, who says, Palmyra and Tadmor are the Syrian and Greek names of the same place: and the country Arabs, even at this time, call it by the former name. In this circumstance they are remarkably particular, preserving the ancient denomination of places through various revolutions. Thus the Acca of the Old Testament is at this day called by them Acca; and the Greek name of Ptolemais, in which that of Acca was for some time immured, is lost through disuse. Not that human judgment can pretend to advance, however, that Palmyra was actually the work of Solomon: an opinion can only be offered, concurrent with that of the present inhabitants, who, among many other particulars, point out the wise man's seraglio, the tomb of his favourite concubine, &c. &c. and say, All these things were done by Solomon, the son of David. However, such structures as might have been erected by Solomon, we will suppose to have been entirely demolished by Nebuchadnezzar, who, in his march to the siege of Jerusalem, destroyed this city. as we are assured by John of Antioch. For it is almost improbable that buildings so elegantly grand could be prior to the footing of the Greeks in Syria; and taking this for granted, we must not be surprised that Xenophon takes no notice of it in his retreat of Cyrus the younger, though he is minutely exact in his description of the desart. Neither must we express the least amazement that it is not mentioned by Alexander, who also crossed the desart in his road to Thepsachus on the Euphrates. From its situation between Antioch and Seleucia, and its being a strong barrier against the Parthians, one would be apt to conjecture, that it was founded by some of the Seleucidiæ; though nothing of it is to be met with in history: and yet no time is more proper to make enquiry about it, than from the demise of Alexander, to the reduction of Syria to a Roman province. That the æra of Seleucus was used at Palmyra, is proved by many inscriptions; whence it may be inferred, that the place submitted to Alexander, and was for some time governed by his successors: but this evidence could not be looked upon as absolute testimony, if not strengthened by collateral facts; for it might with reason be said, that the natives of Palmyra used the æra of the Seleucidiæ only as common with their neighbours. We are told by Appian, that Marc Antony attempted to plunder this city, and that many of the natives made their escape by crossing the Euphrates.

We do not find that Palmyra is taken notice of even when Pompey reduced Syria to a Roman province, and when a taste for the liberal arts began to be prevalent.

Appian, when he speaks of Marc Antony's visit to Palmyra, says, "At this time the Palmyrenes were merchants; they supplied the Romans with the commodities of Arabia and the Indies; and his real motive for attacking them was to enrich his troops; though, to give his conduct the colour of justice, he asserted, they had broken the neutrality subsisting between the Romans and the Parthians.

Pliny, speaking of this noble city, says, "Palmyra, which is on all sides encompassed by an extensive desart, and totally separated from the rest of the world, has preserved its independence between the two great empires of Rome and Parthia. It is distant from the Parthian Seleucia, on the Tigris, 337 miles, from the highest part of the Mediterranean 203, and from Damascus 176. The soil is rich, and it is pleasantly watered."

The streams, of which we have before spoken, may with great truth be said to "pleasantly water the place," being capable of receiving any direction to nurture the soil.

As the Palmyrenes, according to Appian, were merchants, and a wealthy people in the time of Marc Antony, their riches and trade must have been of some standing.

Palmyra, according to the coins of Caracalla, was a Roman colony in that prince's life-time; and by some antique inscriptions we discover, that the people joined Alexander Severus against the Persians.

The greatest figure Palmyra ever made in history was in the reign of Gallienus, under whose shameful indolence the Roman glory in the east became considerably obscured; when Odenathus, joining that emperor's party, collected the poor remains of the discomfited Romans in Syria, whom he led against Sapor, the Persian monarch, put his army to flight, and advanced with his victorious troops to Ctesiphon, the capital of the empire. On his return from this expedition, full of riches and honours, and revered by the Romans as their deliverer, he was unanimously proclaimed Augustus, and co-partner in the empire with Galliennus.

Such of the accounts of Odenathus as have reached posterity, serve rather to heighten than gratify human curiosity. He was a native of Palmyra, and so admirable a politician, that he for a while held the balance of power between the empires of Persia and Rome. He drove the Goths out of Asia Minor, where they had committed the most violent ravages. This was his last great action, in which, it was apprehended, he was treacherously slain by Mæonius, his kinsman. His son, Herodes, suffered the same fate soon after. Nor did Mæonius long survive, being cut to pieces by the soldiery.

Zenobia, the queen of Odenathus, was a character worthy of attention. She possessed extraordinary endowments, both mental and personal, and gave signal proofs of military prowess in attending her husband in the field. On his demise she assumed the reins of government in the name of her children, and renouncing all alliance with Rome, attacked and defeated the army of Heraclianus, the Roman general, who was sent against the Persians. She afterwards displayed other gallant atchievements; but was at length compelled to submit to the power of the Romans, under the emperor Aurelian. Her character, however great and extraordinary as it may appear, is tarnished with the suspicion of her having been privy to the death of her husband and son.

It appears from a Latin inscription still extant, that Palmyra was afterwards governed by the Romans, and that in the year of Christ 400, a Roman legion was quartered there.

CHAP. X.

EMPIRE OF CHINA.

BEFORE we enter on our deſcription of this extenſive empire, together with the cuſtoms, manners, &c. of the inhabitants, it may not be improper to premiſe, that as we have been favoured by an ingenious friend, with his own obſervations and remarks on a voyage ſo late as the year 1786, never heretofore made public, we ſhall have a moſt agreeable opportunity of interſperſing them with the accounts of others in ſuch a manner as, from their novelty and peculiarity, we preſume, will prove highly acceptable to our readers.

SECTION I.

Origin, Diſcovery, Situation, Boundaries, Extent, Rivers, Climate, Soil, &c.

ACCORDING to ancient records, and the prevailing opinion of the learned, this kingdom, or rather empire, appears to have been governed by its own monarchs above 4000 years, during which the laws, manners, language, and apparel of the people, have remained invariably the ſame; ſo that they not only lay claim to antiquity, but a venerable attachment to old cuſtoms peculiar to themſelves.

China is ſaid by many to have been the country of the ancient Sinæ, and ſo called from one of its monarchs of remote date, named Chin, or Cina. But the moſt probable derivation of its name ſeems to have been from a word ſignifying in the Chineſe language *central:* for the natives, till they were convinced of their error by European mathematicians and aſtronomers, imagined the earth to be ſquare, and that their country not only occupied the beſt part of it, but was ſituated exactly in the center. China is divided into 16 provinces, all of which, except one, are within the great wall.

The diſcovery of this remote and opulent empire by the Portugueze ſeems to have dazzled the eyes of its explorers. The Jeſuits, who were the firſt Europeans that have given a deſcription of it, repreſent it, in point of extent, populouſneſs, and riches, as vaſtly ſuperior to any part of the known world.

China is ſituated on the moſt eaſtern verge of the Aſiatic continent. It is bounded on the north by Eaſt and Weſtern Tartary; on the eaſt by the Eaſtern Ocean; on the weſt by part of the Mogul empire, and India beyond the Ganges; and on the ſouth by the Indian Ocean, and the kingdoms of Laos, Tonquin, Ava, and Cochin-China. It extends in latitude, from 20 to almoſt 43 degrees, viz. from north to ſouth about 1200 miles; and in longitude, from 98 to 123 degrees eaſt, making 1600 miles in breadth. If that part of Tartary, now ſubordinate to the Tartarian Emperor of China, is included, the length of the whole empire will be increaſed to 1800 miles.

As the whole empire of China extends from the ſecond to the fifth climate, its air and ſoil muſt conſequently be various. The longeſt days in the northern parts are 14 hours and 45 minutes, and the ſhorteſt about 10 hours and 45 minutes; ſo that throughout this very extenſive empire, the difference in length of days is only four hours. Towards the north the air is colder than, from its ſituation, might be naturally ſuppoſed. This frigidity, however, is cauſed by the ridges of mountains that run along thoſe parts, which are exceſſive high, and commonly covered with deep ſnows. The ſouthern parts are ſultry; but the climate in general is temperate and ſalubrious.

Of the many rivers in this country, we ſhall only ſpecify thoſe that are moſt worthy of notice. The principal of theſe are as follow. The Hoambo, or Yellow River, ſo called, becauſe, after heavy rains, the waters are muddy, and tinged with a yellow colour, owing to the peculiar quality of the ſoil through which it flows. It takes its riſe towards the frontiers of Indoſtan, in the intermediate mountains between Tartary and the province of Suchan, and after maintaining a ſerpentine courſe of near 1900 miles, diſcharges itſelf into the Eaſtern Ocean. The Hoambo is rapid in the extreme, and, together with the effect of torrents of rains from the adjacent hills, ſwells to that degree, that, notwithſtanding the exertion of the indefatigable pains and labour which characterize the Chineſe, it frequently overflows its bounds, and does irreparable damage.

The Ky-am, or Blue River, takes its riſe in Thibet, maintaining a courſe from eaſt to weſt, and empties itſelf into the Eaſtern Ocean. It is remarkable for its breadth and depth.

There are in China, alſo, the Bloody River, ſo called from the redneſs of the ſand; and the Pearl River, ſo called from the number of precious ſtones found among its gravel, which, by moonſhine, overſpreads its waters with ſo uncommon a luſtre, as gives their ſurface the tranſparent gloſs of waving pearl.

The River Tomin, in harveſt time, turns blue, of which the adjacent inhabitants avail themſelves, by uſing its waters for the purpoſe of dying, which, at that ſeaſon, afford an admirable tinge. The waters of a river near Pomgaw are ſo thin that timber will not float on them; and thoſe of another, in the neighbourhood of Ching-tien, are odoriferous. The River Kin-xa has gold ſand in its bottom. The waters of the River Xo are of a medicinal quality, and much reſorted to by the diſeaſed for the cure of ſundry diſorders.

But the moſt remarkable river in China is one near the city of Hang-chen, which riſes yearly upon a certain day to a ſtupendous alitude. Multitudes repair to behold this phænomenon; though neither Aſiatic or European philoſophers have yet defined the cauſe of it. When the ſurges ſubſide, the adjacent people pare off the ſurface of the ſhores, which they covered, and this part becomes excellent ſalt, a commodity uſeful and ſalutary to the inhabitants of an inland diſtrict, who would be greatly diſtreſſed, were they not ſupplied through the means of this inundation. This adds to other inſtances of the ſingular bounty of Providence, in adapting various bleſſings to various climes, as may ſuit the exigencies of the creatures which inhabit them.

The bays of this country are thoſe of Nankin and Canton. The canals claim the greateſt attention, are equally admirable in deſign and execution, and exhibit the moſt ſtriking proofs of human invention, diligence, and aſſiduity, as well as the excellence of the legiſlature, and provident care of the ancient Chineſe. Some of theſe canals extend ſeveral hundred miles, and are deep enough to contain veſſels of conſiderable burthen. They are diſpoſed in wonderful proportion, and the banks on each ſide are lined with hewn ſtone. When the wind admits, the veſſels are navigated in them by the uſual means of ſails; and in calms they are towed by men. The whole country is chequered, as it were, and watered by ſluices from the large canals, over which are erected a great number of bridges, with the center arches ſo conſtructed, as to admit of the paſſage of veſſels without the leaſt obſtruction. The moſt ſuperb of theſe canals is that called Yun-lean, or the Royal Canal, a moſt ſtupendous work, that divides China into two parts, north and ſouth, and thereby opens an uninterrupted communication between the two extremities of the empire. As the low lands are rendered fertile by innumerable canals, the higher grounds are cultivated by the indefatigable labour of the people; ſo that the liberal hand of a bountiful Providence, as well as viſi-

ble effects of human exertion, are every where to be traced. They have levelled hills with infinite labour: the ſurfaces of others they have increaſed by flattening them at the ſummit. They have divided a great number into ſeparate ridges, regularly ſecured with ſtone walls; and the ſurface of theſe terraces are ſown with divers kinds of grain, and watered by machines curiouſly adapted to the purpoſe.

Some of the hills are cut into the moſt fanciful ſhapes, ſo as to reſemble, at a diſtance, a variety of animal figures, as elephants, camels, leopards, boars, tygers, &c. Thoſe, by way of eminence, called, "The hills of five horſes heads," have great affinity to their appellation, and may be deemed a ſtupendous production both as to nature and art.

Nor are they only expert at levelling natural hills, but equally adroit in raiſing artificial mounts; ſo that every cultivated part is thereby ſecured from colds, heats, blaſts, or droughts, in the moſt effectual manner. From this conciſe view of the natural fertility of the ſoil, and ingenuity, as well as induſtry, of the people, the reader muſt be led to infer, the production of a ſuperabundant ſupply, not only of the neceſſaries, but delicacies of life; and alſo the opulence and health, populouſneſs and pleaſantry, of a country thus ſituated, and thus cultivated. It might afford an admirable deſign for the pencil of the ingenious artiſt, as the agreeable variety of its landſcapes ſurpaſſes imagination fully to conceive. Such is the variegated proſpect of its verdant lawns, bending blades, delightful groves, ſequeſtered bowers, wonderful canals, winding ſtreams, trees covered with delicious fruits, together with caſcades, turrets, &c. that the eye cannot behold it without rapture, and entertaining the idea of a perfect Elyſium.

The only mountains of China are thoſe which ſeparate it from Tartary, and are craggy, ſteep, and almoſt inacceſſible.

SECTION II.

Natural Hiſtory, and various Productions of China.

WE deem it incumbent on us, before we enter upon the ſubject before us, to obſerve, that much honour is due to the memory of the late John Bradby Blake, Eſq. one of the Engliſh Eaſt India Company's reſident ſupercargoes at Canton in China, for his curious reſearches, and valuable diſcoveries, in the natural hiſtory and manufactures of China, and other parts of Aſia; as alſo for his great and ſucceſsful endeavours to render his diſcoveries uſeful to mankind in general, and his fellow ſubjects in particular. His plan was to procure the ſeeds of all the vegetables produced in China, which are uſed in medicine, manufactures, or food, and forward to Europe not only ſuch ſeeds, but the plants producing them, in order to be propagated in Great Britain and Ireland, and ſuch parts abroad as appertains to them. Nor did he confine himſelf to the produce of that empire only, but eſtabliſhed an intercourſe (by means of the junks) with Japan and Cochin-China, and ſucceeded ſo well, that, through his means, the ſeeds of the fine Cochin-China rice, and thoſe of the tallow-tree, were propagated in Jamaica, and ſome parts adjacent, and proved of great utility to the inhabitants. An eminent phyſician and naturaliſt, who received by the ſame means, ſeeds of two ſorts of China indigo, the lacquer tree, the oil tree, (uſed to mix up the lacquer for cabinets,) the alcea, which is an article of vegetable food, and many other ſeeds from Pekin, and more northerly provinces of China, very candidly declares, that much advantage muſt accrue from a plan of this kind, at leaſt ought to accrue from it, if as well ſeconded on this ſide the Atlantic. All the plants before-mentioned, with a variety of others, from ſeeds ſent to England, were prudently diſtributed, and afterwards flouriſhed in his Majeſty's garden at Kew, and in the gardens of ſeveral eminent phyſicians and botaniſts in the vicinity of London.

Mr. Blake alſo ſent home, at various times, above fifty drawings of choice plants, moſt curiouſly delineated from nature, with all their parts of fructification diſſected by himſelf, and coloured. Theſe drawings were ſhewn to many of the curious, and particularly to that ingenious and learned botaniſt the late Dr. Solander, who declared them to be excellent performances.

Nor was Mr. Blake's genius confined to botanic ſubjects; he had began to collect, or rather procure, foſſils and ores. Mineralogy was likewiſe a branch of his reſearches. He ſent a ſpecimen of lead ore, from a mine the Chineſe had of late diſcovered in the interior parts of China; and alſo a ſpecimen of the ore *paaktong*, or white copper; as alſo the proceſſes by which this beautiful metal is made into divers utenſils in China, in order for experiments to be made thereby in England, under the direction of the Secretary to the Society for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce. He alſo ſent ſpecimens of the earths, clays, ſands, ſtones, and other materials uſed in making the true Nankin porcelain, from which an ingenious Engliſh artiſt produced ſome pieces of excellent porcelain; and declared the earths, &c. were ſo complete a ſet of ſpecimens, and yet ſo ſimple, as to be, beyond a doubt, the true porcelain materials. Mr. Blake, in fine, collected models of machines, various arts practiſed, and manufactures carried on, by the Chineſe, in order that his country might receive benefit by the ingenuity of their invention.

From what has been premiſed, it is not to be wondered that in China, are to be found the products of moſt other countries, as well as many peculiar to itſelf. In ſome of the provinces they have two, but in moſt three, harveſts in the year. It produces grain of every kind in rich abundance, excellent oranges, grapes, ananas, figs, pomegranates, and many other fruits.

The meadows and paſtures are extremely rich, and feed vaſt numbers of cattle: nor is any country better furniſhed with horſes, oxen, ſwine, buffaloes, and game in general, and in particular deer of ſundry kinds, whoſe furs are a very profitable commodity. Here are ſome elephants, and numbers of tygers, very ferocious, that range for prey in large herds, and are extremely dangerous when preſſed by hunger, in entering villages, and attacking the inhabitants with the moſt ſavage fury. Leopards, and other wild creatures, ſome peculiar to the country, are very numerous. Here is alſo the muſk-cat, which carries that valuable perfume in a kind of bladder, under the navel, and is therefore of great importance to the commerce of the country.

The Chineſe camel is about the bigneſs of a middle-ſized horſe, of a dun or aſh colour, well made, and has two bunches upon its back.

The bears of China naturally walk upon their hind legs, in their face reſemble monkies, have long beards, great cunning, are very docile, and, through the management of their tutors, capable of performing a variety of tricks highly laughable and entertaining. There are abundance of mules here wild in the mountains, but ſometimes they venture into the plains, where they are hunted, and, if taken, killed, and eaten; their fleſh being ſweet, tender, and much admired. They are ſo untractable, that they cannot be rendered otherwiſe ſerviceable. They reſemble ours in point of ſhape and ſize, but are of a lighter colour, and very fleet.

Of the animal curioſities the greateſt is the dwarf ſtag, reſembling exactly a ſtag in form, and being no bigger than a dog in ſize. This little animal is chiefly domeſtic, few perſons of any conſideration being without them in their houſes or gardens.

The breed of the Chineſe horſes, which originally were but ſmall, has been greatly improved by the introduction of Tartarian, Arabian and Perſian horſes, inſomuch that the natives are now not only poſſeſſed of good horſes, but are become expert in the management of them.

With reſpect to birds, eagles, cranes, ſtorks, birds of paradiſe, pelicans, peacocks, pheaſants, geeſe, ſwans,

ſwans, ducks, and a great variety of others, are found here in abundance.

Among the reſt, the pheaſant is ſingularly remarkable for the beauty of its plumage and the delicacy of its taſte. It is, therefore, as much prized by the voluptuary in China as in other parts, and therefore falls a general ſacrifice. The hait-ſing, a bird peculiar to China and part of Tartary, has feathers admirably variegated and curiouſly interſperſed.

From the multitude of its rivers, canals and lakes, as well as its proximity in ſome parts to the ſea, this country cannot but abound with fiſh, and that in the greateſt variety.

Moſt of the opulent ſtock the ponds in their gardens with gold or ſilver fiſh, or keep them in their houſes in fine china veſſels by way of ornament. At preſent they are as well known in Europe as in China. They are in length from three to about nine inches, and proportionably thick. Some are of a gold, others of a ſilver colour, the luſtre of which is inconceivably beautiful, and many are elegantly variegated with fine ſhining gold and ſilver tints, and delicately ſtreaked with an admirable gold. In mild weather they generally ſwim near the ſurface of the water, and give an exquiſite brightneſs and variety to it. They are very tender, and eaſily killed by heat, cold, ſtrong ſcents, the report of cannon, thunder, &c.

In England they will breed in ponds, but not in the glaſs globular veſſels in which they are uſually kept in houſes. When kept in glaſſes, the only trouble is to change the water about once a week; and the expence is ſo trifling, that three pennyworth of millet-ſeed will ſupply a ſcore of them with food for a twelvemonth. There prevails an error that the gold fiſh is the male and the ſilver the female. This has been refuted by a correſpondent in the vicinity of London, who has now great numbers of the gold ſort only in one pond, which every year have increaſed their ſpecies; a full proof that there are the male and female of the gold ſort as well as of others.

Some of the rivers of China produce a yellow fiſh, which is delicious food. They are very large, and only to be caught at ſtated ſeaſons. The meal fiſh is much eſteemed, and the eyes are remarkable, being ſurrounded by a black ring, which is again encloſed by two white circles of an admirable bightneſs. There is the armour-fiſh, ſo termed from the vaſt number of ſcales with which it is covered: it is deemed excellent food; and there is a ſaying concerning it among the Chineſe, which is, "that the armour is fit for a ſoldier, and the fleſh food for an emperor."

There are various modes of fiſhing practiſed in China. They catch the young fry in order to ſtock their ponds and reſervoirs in their gardens, by placing hurdles, mats and net-work acroſs the rivers and lakes to intercept them. They alſo uſe nets and lines as in Europe; ſometimes catch fiſh by diving, and ſometimes transfix them with darts. They have a cuſtom of going in boats in the night-time, when the beams of the moon reflecting on the varniſh with which they are painted, the fiſh being thereby deluded, leap into the boats, and become an eaſy prey.

Ducks are taken upon the canals by the following ſtratagem. Being fond of pecking at the gourds, melons, and other fruits, that fall from the trees which overhang the ſtreams, and float upon the waters, they ſcoop a large gourd out clean, and cut holes ſo as to come exactly before the eyes and mouth. A man then puts the gourd on his head, and goes into the water up to his chin. The ducks, imagining it to be a gourd floating on the water, ſwim to and peck at it, when the man ſeizes them by the legs, and with great eaſe catches numbers in a ſhort time.

In China there is a particular bird, trained to decoy fiſh, as ducks are to decoy their own ſpecies in the fens of Lincolnſhire. Theſe birds follow the fiſhermen to the rivers or lakes, dive at a ſignal given, ſeize the fiſh, fly with it to the boat, and immediately diſgorge it, which they cannot but do, a ring being placed upon the neck to prevent their ſwallowing it. If the fiſh proves too large for one, ſeveral ſeize it together, and convey it to the fiſhermen.

Of inſects the moſt remarkable is the ſilk-worm, of which we ſhall treat hereafter; a butterfly of amazing ſize and beauty; and a ſpecies of lizard, called wall-dragons. The fields in the ſummer are infeſted with locuſts, which do conſiderable damage. The natives, however, uſe divers means either to deſtroy or expel them.

Agriculture in China is held in a degree of veneration: they revere the memories of thoſe huſbandmen who ſowed the ſeeds of the happineſs and ſtability of the empire in the fertile boſom of the earth, that inexhauſtible ſource of whatever conduces to the nouriſhment, and conſequently to the increaſe of mankind. It is remarked by the Abbe Raynal, in his Philoſophical and Political Hiſtory, that, to do honour to this profeſſion, the emperors of China become huſbandmen officially. It is one of their public functions to break up the ground in the ſpring; and the parade of magnificence that accompanies this ceremony draws together all the farmers in the neighbourhood of the capital. The example of the prince is followed in all the provinces, and at the ſame ſeaſon the viceroys repeat the ſame ceremonies in the preſence of a numerous concourſe of huſbandmen. The Europeans, who have been preſent at this ceremony at Canton, never ſpeak of it without emotion; and it has been regretted that this feſtival, the political aim of which is the encouragement of labour, is not eſtabliſhed in our climate. In fine, the rural induſtry and œconomy of the Chineſe may be propoſed as an example to all other nations in the univerſe.

But notwithſtanding this deſerved eulogium on their rural induſtry and œconomy, it is obſerved by botaniſts, that they are unacquainted with the nature of grafting trees, or meliorating the earth when they are planted, the fruit in general being of an inferior flavour, and leſs delicious than that of Europe. They have divers trees appropriated to divers uſes. There are the orange, lime and citron trees; a kind of date tree; the pea tree, which produces a fruit that reſembles and is as delicate to the taſte as the pea of Europe; the meal tree, the pulp of which yields excellent flour; the pepper tree, the berries of which are ſo ſtrong as to overcome by the ſcent thoſe who pluck them. There are two kinds of varniſh tree, called by the natives the Tſi-chu and the Tong-chu: the former produces an excellent varniſh that is univerſally admired; the latter furniſhes a varniſh of an inferior kind. From the Kou-chu, or ſize-tree, is extracted a matter reſembling milk, which is of great uſe in gilding. The willow is merely to gratify the view, and therefore planted on the ſides of their rivers and canals; and is alſo the ſubject of paſtoral poetry with them as well as with other nations. The red leaves and white fruit of the tallow tree form a ſtriking contraſt: of the kernels, which have the properties of tallow, candles are made, but their light is rather dim. Swarms of inſects, as ſtated ſeaſons, cover the white wax tree, and leave on its branches their threads of wax. Delicate pickles are made from the mango, and admirable ſweet-meats from the produce of the tſe-tſe tree.

It is agreed by naturaliſts, that the polomie tree (not peculiar to China) bears the largeſt fruit in the univerſe. The kernal, when roaſted, is delicious, and makes an excellent diſh when dreſſed in cocoa-nut milk. The moſt extraordinary property of this tree is that the fruit grows from its trunk: indeed, it is of ſuch bulk that the branches could not ſuſtain it.

The Chineſe form their anchors of the wood of the iron-tree, which is ſo very hard and durable, that they affirm they are more laſting than thoſe made of the metal from which the tree derives its name. The tret-ham is admired for the beauty of its wood, which is of a bright red, variegated with fine veins, which appear like the effects of art.

The

The bamboo, or cane-tree, is appropriated to many uſeful purpoſes. The bud has an agreeable flavour, and the pith is fine eating. It is uſed in buildings, and the tubes is uſed for water-pipes. The ſplinters make baſkets; and when it becomes rotten, it is reduced into a paſte, of which they make paper. The nan-mu tree, however, furniſhes the chief wood for building: though they have oak, lime, ſanders-wood, ebony, camphire, and other large and lofty trees.

Amongſt a vaſt variety of ſhrubs is the *tea-plant*, or *ſhrub*, of which production, as ſo generally eſteemed throughout Europe, we ſhall give a particular deſcription. There are ſeveral kinds of *tea*, ſome finer, ſmoother, and more fragrant than others, according to the ſoil they grow in. That named Singlo is deemed the moſt elegant, and uſed by the more opulent. Some are denominated from their particular colours or qualities; as the Vowi (i. e. Bohi or Boheé) ſo called from its dark or brown colour. This ſort is much eſteemed in China for taſte, flavour, and medicinal qualities. It is originally the ſame plant with the Green, and only differs from it by its being gathered ſix or ſeven weeks ſooner, that is in March, when in its full bloom, and the leaves are full of juice: whereas the other, by being left ſo much longer on the tree, loſes part of its juice, and contracts a different colour, taſte, and virtue, being more rough to the palate, and raking to the ſtomach. The Bohea, or firſt bud, is gathered as aforeſaid; the Imperial in April; and the Singlo in May or June: ſo that the general diviſion of teas is into two ſorts, viz. Green and Bohea; though they are diſtinguiſhed by other appellations, according to the time of gathering, province where produced, or method of curing, as Congo, Souchong, Singlo, Bloom, Imperial, Hyſon, Gunpowder, &c.

The proceſs of curing or preparing it is as follows. After the leaves are plucked, they are infuſed in water for a certain time, by which the reſinous particles are diſſipated, and rendered palatable: for without ſuch preparation, they would be ſo exceedingly bitter, that ſcarce any quantity of ſugar would be ſufficient to correct the taſte. After this infuſion, the Bohea is expoſed to the heat of the ſun, or dried by the fire, till it is criſped or contracted into the ſmall compaſs in which we ſee it. But the Green having been aſſiduouſly turned and ſtirred about the whole time, is ſtrewed upon ſheets of copper, (which are gently warmed by embers beneath them,) and rolled up and down by perſons, whoſe hands are defended by thick leather gloves from the effluvia, which, without precaution, would prove of the moſt pernicious conſequence. Though the Green tea confeſſedly derives the principal part of its tincture and flavour from the baleful vapours that exhale from the heated copper, theſe very circumſtances, inſtead of rendering it obnoxious, are the principal recommendations of it, not only to the Europeans, but the Aſiatics: for ſuch is the infatuation of mankind, that they would rather pleaſe the eye, and gratify the palate, than attend to the conſtitution of their frame, though ſo eſſential to its preſervation. This is evident in the particular inſtance of the general preference given to the unwholeſome Green over the more ſalubrious Bohea. A writer of allowed authenticity, however, affirms, that the Bohea, in curing, is ſometimes mixed with another herb. This may probably be an adulteration of which the Chineſe, who are very avaricious, and practiſed in moſt kinds of fraud, may be reaſonably ſuſpected. The price of the Green is enhanced not only on account of the greater degree of trouble in preparing it than the Bohea, but alſo becauſe when the young leaves are plucked, the tree receives ſo much injury, that it is allowed two or three years to gain its ſtrength and vigour; during which time the leaves that accidently fall are gathered up, and methods uſed to convert it into Bohea.

The Chineſe neither drink it in the manner we do, nor ſo ſtrong, but uſe it only as their common drink. It is ſaid they were firſt obliged to have recourſe to it to correct the unwholeſome brackiſhneſs of their waters, which, in ſome places, were not only diſtaſteful, but productive of diſtempers; ſo that when its virtues became known, it grew into univerſal uſe. It is deemed by them a ſingular diluter, and purifier of the blood, a great ſtrengthener of the brain and ſtomach, and promoter of digeſtion, perſpiration, and other ſecretions; and particularly a great diuretic, and cleanſer of the reins and urethra. They drink it in great quantities in high fevers, in cholics, and other acute diſeaſes; and think it a ſure, though ſlow, remedy againſt thoſe of the chronic kind, from its admirable ſalubrious qualities.

The faculty are divided with reſpect to the qualities of this celebrated exotic plant. Dr. Quincey ſpeaks of tea, particularly the Green, as one of the moſt wholeſome vegetables that was ever introduced into food or medicine: while Dr. James, on the other hand, affirms, that whatever virtues may be aſcribed to tea, or however uſeful as a medicine it may be in China, he is very certain, that either the tea, the water, or both, are very prejudicial as an habitual drink in England, inſomuch, that he has known many hyſterical caſes relieved by diſcontinuing the uſe of it, without taking any remedy whatever, and in one in particular attended with ſhocking convulſions.

But theſe eminent profeſſors may have carried their reſpective opinions to the extreme; for it is generally admitted, that tea has many of the virtues attributed to it by the Chineſe, without being ſo univerſal in its effects as Dr. Quincey would perſuade us. It may likewiſe be in ſome inſtances unwholeſome, without being ſo pernicious as Dr. James would repreſent it. If to theſe we add the probable adulterations of the Chineſe merchants, and our own retailers, together with the virtues it may loſe in a voyage from a variety of accidents to which it is expoſed, it will tend to render us more candid in our opinions concerning the particulars for which theſe profeſſors ſo warmly contend.

The tea-tree commonly bears leaves from top to bottom, which are indented like our roſe leaves, or ſweet-briar; and the flower is very much like that of the latter, with ſix upper and ſix under leaves. The fruit is of the ſize of a ſmall pippin, finely flavoured, and taſtes ſomewhat like a clove. The ſeed is round, blackiſh, and about the ſize of a large pea, when dry and ſhrunk. Being put into the mouth, it yields at firſt a ſweet, but being kept longer in it, a bitteriſh taſte, and yields likewiſe a quantity of oil, which, in ſome parts, they uſe as ſauce to food. It ſeldom, if ever, grows to above the ſize of a roſe buſh, or, at moſt, a filberd-tree. It is worthy of notice, that the Dutch dry and prepare their ſage like other teas, and ſell it to the Chineſe, who are ſo fond of it, and prefer it ſo far to the beſt of their own growth, that they give four pounds of the latter for one of the former.

The uſe of tea was introduced into our country before the Reſtoration, as mention is made of it in the firſt act of parliament that ſettled the exciſe on the king for life in 1690. Catherine of Liſbon, wife of Charles II. rendered the uſe of it common at his court.

The ginſeng, ſo famous among the Chineſe, as the univerſal remedy, and monopolized even by their emperors, is now found to be but a common root, and is plentiful in Britiſh America.

There are ſeveral vegetables in China of a medicinal nature, particularly rhubarb, *touling*, or China-root, and tobacco.

The mountains of China are ſtored with iron, copper, quick-ſilver, lead, white copper, or tutanague, which the natives call *pe-tong*, load-ſtones, pit-coal, ſalts of various kinds, and quarries of ſtones, particularly marble, many veins of which are finely variegated. As one of the fundamental maxims of the Chineſe government is that of not introducing a ſuperabundance of gold and ſilver, for fear of hurting induſtry, their gold mines are but ſlightly worked; and the currency of that metal is ſupplied by the grains the people pick

up in the ſand of rivers and mountains. The ſilver ſpecie is furniſhed from the mines of Honan.

SECTION III.

Perſons, Dreſs, Diſpoſitions, Cuſtoms, Manners, Marriage and Funeral Ceremonies, &c. of the Natives.

THE paintings of the Chineſe are ſo extremely deficient in point of reſemblance of feature, that the Europeans have thence conceived a leſs favourable opinion of their perſons than they really deſerve. In general they are comely and graceful. In the northern parts their complexions are fair; but to the ſouthward they are ſwarthy. They are of the middle ſtature, their faces broad, their eyes black and ſmall, and their noſes rather ſhort. The women have little ſparkling eyes, plump roſy lips, regular features, and a delicate, though florid, complexion. The ſmallneſs of their feet is deemed a principal part of their beauty; and no ſwathing is omitted, when they are young, to give them that accompliſhment; ſo that when they grow up, they may be ſaid to totter rather than walk. This fanciful ornament, or piece of beauty, if it may be ſo called, is ſaid by ſome to have been invented by the ancient Chineſe, to reſtrain women from viſiting and rambling too much abroad; while others affirm that the faſhion was taken from an empreſs, called Takia, who naturally having very ſmall feet, took infinite pains to make them worſe, and the court ladies imitating her example, the faſhion became general, inſomuch, that no expreſſion was thought ſo ignominious, as to reproach a Chineſe woman with having large feet.

The Tartarian women have not given in to this abſurd practice.

The Chineſe, in many inſtances, have particular ideas of beauty. In youth the men pluck out moſt of the hair of their beards by the roots; but when they advance to the age of forty, they ſuffer what remains to grow long, as they imagine its appearance gives them an air of wiſdom and dignity. On the crown of their heads they wear a ſingle lock of hair; the Tartars having obliged them to cut off the reſt. Men of quality and learning let the nails of their fingers grow to an enormous length, to ſhew that they are not employed in manual labour. In the ſummer they wear a conical cap made of ſplinters, lined with ſatin, and adorned with the tail of a red cow, the hair of which deſcends from the top to the edges. But the cap of the ſuperior order is made of paſteboard, adorned with a tuft of red ſilk, and covered within ſide and without with the richeſt ſatin.

The dreſſes of both men and women are much alike, and ſeem calculated for eaſe and freedom, conſiſting of a veſt and ſaſh, and a kind of gown with long ſleeves thrown over them. Their drawers are wide, and they have buſkins quilted with cotton. In ſummer their necks are bare, and their veſts without lining; but in winter they are covered with ſilks or ſkins, according to their different circumſtances. The women of quality (though ſeldom ſeen by the Europeans) take much pains in decorating their heads with artificial flowers, and gold and ſilver ſpangles. Sometimes their hair is drawn up in a net, and ſometimes diſhevelled. The women in common wear it tied in a bunch at the top of the head. Their garments are of all colours except yellow, which none but the royal family are permitted to wear. The females adopt a moſt diſagreeable cuſtom of chewing betel to darken their teeth, as black teeth are deemed ornamental in this country. Thoſe who live upon the water, or follow the employment of fiſhing, are clad in cocoa-nut leaves, and have a ſort of umbrella made of the ſame fixed cloſe to the head. The faſhion of uſing fans is univerſal throughout China, and has hence been tranſplanted to ſeveral other places, particularly Europe.

The Chineſe merit great applauſe, and are highly worthy of imitation, with reſpect to their induſtry and perſeverance in the accompliſhment of whatever they undertake. Their public works are founded upon rational principles, utility being the leading point in view, and pleaſure and ornament but ſecondary conſiderations. As their laws preſcribe modes of behaviour for perſons of all ranks and degrees, theſe people are ceremonious to an extreme, and appear very polite and affable: but theſe exterior accompliſhments are clouded by duplicity and fraud; and as avarice is their leading paſſion, they can neither be influenced by motives of honeſty or humanity. They are very artful in evading the law, are not daring enough to commit a public robbery, but excel every nation upon the earth in privately cheating. Nay, they take as much delight in over-reaching and cozening one another, as they do the greateſt ſtrangers.

Captain Cook obſerves, that (the danger of being hanged for any crime being excepted) there is nothing, however infamous, which a Chineſe will refuſe to do for gain, and in this opinion he concurs with every preceding writer; ſo that theſe people have taken no ſmall pains to eſtabliſh themſelves in their reputation for infamy.

When the Reſolution and Diſcovery, on the laſt voyage, performed by order of his Britannic Majeſty, anchored off the town of Macao, Captain King was ſent by order of Captain Gore [to whom the command of the expedition devolved on the demiſe of Captain Cook] with a party to Canton, to procure, if poſſible, ſome neceſſary ſupplies of proviſion and cordage. Here he had an opportunity of diſcovering the genius of the Chineſe for trade. Apprehending that Canton would be an advantageous market for furs, he had taken with him about twenty ſea-otter ſkins, and being directed by ſome of the Engliſh ſupercargoes to a member of the *hong*, (an appellation given to a ſociety of the principal merchants of the city,) was aſſured by him, that he might rely on his integrity in the tranſaction of buſineſs between them.

The ſkins being laid before this merchant, he examined them over and over again, with particular attention, and at laſt informed Captain King, that he could not think of offering more than 300 dollars for them. As the Captain was convinced, from the price at which ſkins had been ſold at Kamtſchatka, that he had not offered one half of their value, he found himſelf obliged to drive a bargain. He therefore, in his turn, demanded 1000 dollars. The Chineſe merchant then advanced to 500; after which he offered Mr. King a private preſent of porcelain and tea, which amounted to 100 more: then he propoſed to give the ſame ſum in money; and at length roſe to 700 dollars; upon which the Captain lowered his demand to 900. Here, each of them declaring that he would not recede, they parted: but the Chineſe ſpeedily returned with a liſt of Eaſt-Indian commodities, which he now deſired that Mr. King would take in exchange, and which (as the Captain was afterwards informed) would have amounted in value, if faithfully delivered, to double the ſum the merchant had before offered. Finding the Captain unwilling to deal in this mode, he finally propoſed, that they ſhould divide the difference, which Mr. King, weary of the conteſt, agreed to, and received the 800 dollars.

That fraud is the prevailing characteriſtic of the Chineſe is corroborated by ſeveral proofs, the laſt of which was ſo late as the year 1786. Our correſpondent, to whom we are under great obligations for divers communications, in the late remarks with which we have been favoured, ſays, as the firſt inſtance of Chineſe impoſition, that the pilot, who came on board to pilot the ſhip to Macao roads, had the aſſurance to aſk forty or fifty dollars, and took only ten. He further adds upon this head, that as all kinds of proviſions, live ſtock, &c. are ſold by weight, it is a common practice with the Chineſe to give the hogs, fowls, ducks, geeſe, &c. plenty to eat and drink juſt before they are diſpoſed of, to make them weigh the more: and alſo, that unleſs a check is kept upon them, they will charge for

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CHINESE DRESSES.

1 a Dignified Bonze. 2 a Nun. 3 The Emperor in his Robes. 4 a Woman of the first Rank.

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CHINESE DRESSES.

1 a Peasant. 2 a Country Woman. 3 a Servant Maid. 4 a begging Bonze.

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for articles not received. As a counterpoiſe to this deſcription, it is candidly obſerved, that the Chineſe women, called by the ſailors waſhay girls, who come along-ſide the ſhips (for they are not allowed to come on board) to get their linen to waſh, are moſt punctual in returning the ſame exactly folded and mended, and that there is ſcarcely ever known an inſtance of their diſhoneſty.

Theſe waſhay girls, as they are called, live in ſampans, which are ſmall boats, and the habitations of whole families. A man, woman, and four children, often dwell in one of them, and have with them their cooking utenſils, furniture, &c. Both men and women ſcull theſe ſampans with one ſculler very rapidly. It is very common to ſee a Chineſe women ſculling with a child at her back, and two or three fat Chinamen in the ſampan ſmoaking within ſide.

Thefts are puniſhed here by either flogging by the mandarin, or cutting off their lock of hair, every China-man having one plaited almoſt down their backs, hadrays or prieſts excepted. If a crime of more conſequence is committed, they are ſtrangled by mutes: but this puniſhment they only inflict when they wrong each other.

It appears from the account of voyagers in general, who have touched at Canton, that the Chineſe are a faithleſs, deceiving, cowardly, thieviſh ſet of people.

Previous to a viſit made to any perſon of quality, a billet is always preſented to the porter, ſetting forth the name and rank of life of the viſitant; and if he be of equal rank with the perſon whom he viſits, he is received at the hall door by the maſter, two of his domeſtics holding before him a large fan, which is removed upon the viſitant entering the hall. It is then ceremony begins, with many bendings of the knee, and bowings of the body on both ſides, complimenting each other with their reſpective titles, and taking the right and left ſide of each other by turns. Theſe ceremonies over, the gueſt is conducted to a chair, and when ſeated declares the intention of his viſit. After a ſhort converſation tea is brought; and when that is over, they make their obeiſance to each other, and take leave with much bowing on both ſides.

Upon the birth-day of a conſiderable mandarin, people of the firſt quality aſſemble, and proceed in bodies to his palace, taking ſweetmeats and other preſents with them. Upon entering the hall they ſtand in rows, and make a moſt profound reverence. One of them then taking a cup of liquor, preſents it to the mandarin, ſaying, "Behold the liquor which gives joy." Another with ſweetmeats, ſays, "Behold the ſugar of long life." Then others of the company repeat the ſame ceremonies.

A mandarin of inferior rank, on meeting his ſuperior, inſtantly ſtops his ſedan, and makes a moſt profound reverence. If two of equal rank meet, they ſalute each other in their ſedans, by croſſing their hands, and raiſing them to their heads, which they repeat till they are entirely out of each other's ſight.

The cuſtom among the great at giving an entertainment is to introduce as many tables as there are gueſts invited, unleſs the great number of viſitants render it neceſſary to place two at a table. Theſe tables ſtand in a line on each ſide of the great hall, which is adorned with pictures, flower-pots, and china-ware. The tables being placed directly oppoſite to each other, the gueſts face one another as they ſit. There are neither table-cloths or napkins, but the fore part of each table is embelliſhed with embroidered ſilk, and the whole of it handſomely japanned. On the tables are large diſhes of meat ready carved, piled pyramidically, with flowers and citrons at the top of the table. They have neither forks or ſpoons, but eat with little ivory ſticks. After ſeveral diſhes have been ſerved, baſons of ſoup are brought, attended with very ſmall loaves, which they break and put into the ſoup. Then tea is brought, and afterwards fruit: but before the fruit is ſerved, the lord of the houſe takes his gueſts into the garden, or ſome other place. In the mean while the ſervants are employed, ſome in carrying water for the gueſts to waſh their hands, others in clearing the tables, and others of them in preparing the deſert, which conſiſts of the richeſt fruits, ſweetmeats, &c.

While the company are regaling themſelves, it is very common for players to introduce themſelves, who, bowing ſeveral times to the very ground, preſent the principal gueſt at the entertainment with a book, in which are written, in golden letters, the titles of ſeveral plays; but the head gueſt refers the choice to a ſecond, the ſecond to a third, the third to a fourth, and ſo on; but all refuſing, he at length chooſes a play that he imagines will beſt pleaſe the company.

During the dramatic entertainment, the women are ſeated in another apartment, where, through a ſilk netting, they ſee the performance without being ſeen themſelves. Between the acts the company are relieved with muſic, both vocal and inſtrumental. Of the latter kind are baſons made of copper, drums which they beat with flat ſticks, and flutes of different ſorts. About the middle of the play one of the actors quits the ſtage, or rather floor, covered with a carpet, and collects money of the company. And at all theſe ceremonious feaſts, the ſervants of the houſe make a collection likewiſe for the maſter's uſe, to reimburſe him in part of the expences of the entertainment.

Parents here have an abſolute controul over their children, no age nor office exempting them from their juriſdiction; hence the reſpect ſhewn by children to their parents.

The mere teſtimony of the father is ſufficient for the conviction of his ſon when cited before a mandarin, without any corroborating circumſtances.

If a ſon attempts the life of his father or mother, his body is cut to pieces and burnt. If he leaves any houſe or dwelling-place behind him, it is razed to the ground, and a monument erected in the place to perpetuate his infamy. Even the houſe, or houſes, adjoining it, are alſo levelled with the earth.

The Chineſe affect vaſt national ſuperiority; even the meaneſt among them have a contempt for other countries; and before they were viſited by the European miſſionaries, they looked upon themſelves ſo ſuperior to the reſt of mankind, that they treated all other nations as barbarians. They had conceived the moſt extravagant ideas of their own country as to its ſituation. Upon one of the jeſuitical miſſionaries, who viſited them, preſenting a map of the globe, they deſired him to explain it to them, for they were totally ignorant of the delineation of it. "This (ſays the father) is Europe, this Africa, and here is Aſia. In Aſia you ſee Perſia, the Indies, and Tartary." "But where is China?" ſaid they. "Here it is," replied the Prieſt. "Don't you ſee it? 'Tis in this little corner of the map." Upon which, overwhelmed with amazement, and looking at each other, they ſaid, "It was little indeed."

Notwithſtanding the ſtricteſt laws are made in China againſt gaming, the natives play till they ſometimes loſe their houſes, eſtates, and even their children and wives. There is one moſt ſhocking cuſtom here: when a man has more children than he thinks he can well provide for, the midwife receives orders to drown the next female infant, or throw it into the ſtreets.

Courtſhip is conducted in China like matters of gallantry in other countries. There are certain women fixed upon for the purpoſe of procuring huſbands for maidens; for as the latter are kept confined in their apartments, and the young men, who are to be their huſbands, are not allowed to ſee them till the day of marriage, they are under the neceſſity of relying entirely upon thoſe women, or confidants. The young people are never ſuffered to treat upon the ſubject of their nuptials; the parents ſettle every thing themſelves; and though in other countries it is the cuſtom for women to bring portions to their huſbands, here huſbands pay a ſum of money to the parents of the bride, which is generally laid out in cloaths, &c. for her. Then follow certain

certain ceremonies, the chief of which conſiſt in the relations on both ſides ſending to demand the name of the intended bridegroom and bride, and in making them preſents. The relations of the bride, who fix on the day of the nuptials, frequently conſult the calendar for a fortunate day: in the mean time the man ſends his intended bride ſome jewels, pendants and the like. At leaſt this is the cuſtom with wealthy people.

Upon the day appointed for the celebration of the nuptials, the bride is put into a ſedan magnificiently adorned, and her baggage of cloaths, ornaments and trinkets are carried after her in cheſts, by the domeſtic ſervants, and other perſons hired on purpoſe, who alſo carry lighted flambeaux in their hands, though it be noon-day: the grand ſedan is preceded by muſic, and followed by the relations and friends of the bride. The neareſt of kin carries in his hand the key of the ſedan (for the windows of it are grated up and locked) and gives it to the bridegroom as ſoon as the proceſſion reaches his houſe, who waits at his own door, dreſſed, in order to receive her: and as this is the firſt interview between him and the young lady, it is eaſy to conceive with what eager curioſity he unlocks the door of the ſedan. Some, diſſatisfied with their lot, immediately ſhut the door again, and ſend the poor girl back with her relations, rather chuſing to loſe the money they have given, than be united with a perſon they do not like: this, however, is ſeldom the caſe.

As ſoon as the bride ſteps out of her chair, the bridegroom preſents his hand to her, and leads her into a hall, where a table is brought for them in particular, the reſt of the company ſitting at other tables, the men in one apartment of the hall, and the women in another; but before the bride and bridegroom ſit down, they make four reverences to Tien, a ſuppoſed ſpirit preſiding in heaven. When ſeated at table, they pour wine on the ground before they begin to eat, and ſet apart ſome of the proviſions for their idols.

The moment each of them taſtes of the victuals on table, the bridegroom riſes up and invites his lady to drink: upon which ſhe riſes alſo, and returns him the compliment. After this two cups of wine are brought, of which they drink part, and pour the reſidue into another cup, out of which they afterwards drink alternately; and this laſt part of the ceremony ratifies the nuptials. The bride then goes among the ladies, and ſpends the day with them, while the bridegroom treats his friends in a ſeparate apartment.

No man, except the emperor, can (conſiſtently with the laws of China) marry more than one wife: he, however, has the privilege of taking as many concubines into his houſe as he pleaſes; but theſe muſt be obedient to the wife, and treat her as their miſtreſs. The emperor has three wives, and the number of his concubines is eſtimated at about 3000, who are called Con-gu, or ladies of the palace.

If a wife elopes from her huſband ſhe is ſentenced to be whipped, and the huſband may diſpoſe of her as a ſlave: if ſhe marries another man, the firſt huſband can cauſe her to be ſtrangled. If a man quits his wife and family, the wife, after an abſence of three years, has the privilege of preſenting a petition to a mandarin, laying open her ſituation; and the mandarin, in ſuch caſe, can authorize her to take another huſband: ſhe, however, would be very ſeverely puniſhed were ſhe to marry without this previous mode of application. In certain caſes a man may put away his wife: thus, for inſtance, divorcing a wife is allowed of, not only for adultery, but for a bad temper, a clamorous tongue, diſobedience, theft, barrenneſs, or indeed for any contagious diſorder: but though the law on theſe occaſions authorize a divorce, it is ſeldom put in force among perſons of condition: there are, indeed, examples of it among the lower orders of the people. Some of the men are ſo very jealous, that they will ſcarce ſuffer their wives to ſpeak in private, even to any of their near relations of the male kind.

The funeral ſolemnities of the Chineſe are very ſingular, and worthy of attention. When a perſon of rank dies, they firſt waſh the corps, and after embalming it, dreſs it in the richeſt robes, and then expoſe it to view in a raiſed alcove, before which the wives, children, relations and friends, proſtrate themſelves: near the coffin is an image of the deceaſed, or elſe ſome carved work, with his name in large characters, and ſurrounded with flowers, perfumes and flambeaux. The coffin is varniſhed and gilt: and here it is neceſſary to remark, that the Chineſe like to have their coffins made in their life-times: even the pooreſt among them will find means to be at this expence.

The ſons of ſome of the great men, to ſhew their regard for the memories of their deceaſed fathers, will keep their bodies in their houſes unburied even two or three years; and this ſacred filial veneration proceeds from the extenſive and abſolute authority which the father had exerciſed over the ſon; for the father is not only maſter of his ſon's eſtate, but alſo of his concubines and children, who, whenever they offend him, he may ſell and enſlave.

The funeral proceſſion begins with a great number of perſons carrying little paſteboard figures, repreſenting ſlaves, tygers, eunuchs, camels, horſes, &c. Then come the daughters and the wife and concubines of the deceaſed, who are carried in ſedans; and though they are not ſeen, they are ſufficiently heard, for they cauſe the air to reſound with their lamentations. The burial-place is always without the town in a ſort of grotto, built on purpoſe. It conſiſts generally of three rooms, and is ſurrounded with little groves of pine or cypreſs.

When the proceſſion reaches the ſepulchre, the coffin is placed in a vault, and perfumes are burnt; the figures of paſteboard are alſo burnt, and libations and meat-offerings made to the deceaſed; for theſe people have an idea that the ſpirits in the other world receive the offerings thus made, and that the different repreſentations of the paſteboard figures become realized for their uſe and emolument.

So attached are theſe people to their funeral ſolemnities, and ſuch is the veneration in which they hold the deceaſed, that they deſpiſe foreigners for abandoning the ſepulchres of their anceſtors, and expoſing them to the hazard of dying in a remote country, without having relations with them to pay their laſt tribute of affection.

As to public feſtivals or rejoicings in China, the two principal are celebrated, one in the beginning and the other about the middle of January. The former is kept in viſiting, feaſting, making preſents, &c. That of the middle of the month is called the Feaſt of the Lanterns, when every family, both of city and country, on the ſea-coaſt, or on the rivers, light up large painted lanterns, ſtuck full of wax candles or ſmall lamps, repreſenting cavalcades, ſhips under ſail, armies engaging, horſes galloping, ſpectres, mimics, and other objects.

It is aſſerted by many, that this grand anniverſary feſtival had its origin from the following circumſtance: a certain mandarin, in former times, who was greatly careſſed by his people, having an only daughter drowned by falling into a river, he looked for her a whole night by the light of lanterns, all the inhabitants of the diſtrict following him by lanterns and torches to aſſiſt in ſearching for his darling child. The particular affection which the people had for their mandarin, or elſe the ſingularity of the adventure, ſet them to work with their lanterns the ſame night of the year following; and this cuſtom gradually ſpreading, occaſioned, in time, a public feſtival throughout the empire.

SECTION IV.

Divers Manufactures. Mode of Printing in China.

THE produce of that earthen ware, generally known by the name of china, and called by the ancients porcelain, is an object of great importance to this

this country. Though the natives affect to keep the proceſs of its preparation a ſecret, it is known, beyond a doubt, that the grand article is calcined earth. They make every kind of repreſentation in this ſort of ware, as idols, animals, &c. Many of thoſe figures known in Europe by the name of Chineſe baboons, are images of the Gods they worſhip.

It is a pity that their workmen do not underſtand the art of deſigning a little better; for though they acquit themſelves tolerably well in drawing flowers, and in ſome other imitations, yet their repreſentations of animals are, for the moſt part, very aukward figures. This muſt be either the effect of ignorance in the rules of ſymmetry and proportion, or muſt proceed from an affectation of the groteſque.

Silks, according to the moſt authentic accounts, were originally fabricated in this country, where ſilk worms are ſuppoſed to have originated. The ſilks moſt eſteemed are Nankin damaſks of various colours, ſattins, taffeties, brocades, gauzes, &c. Theſe, when quite new, have a very fine and handſome appearance, but their beauty ſoon fades. A ſtrong durable ſattin, called Touan-tſe, is much eſteemed: it is ſometimes plain, and ſometimes figured with repreſentations of birds, trees, flowers, and particularly dragons: for the figure of a dragon is a very favourite repreſentation with the Chineſe, on account of the peculiar veneration they have for the memory of a celebrated dragon, which, agreeable to their fabulous antiquity, inſpired their great legiſlator Fo-hi. Their colours conſiſt of the juices of herbs and flowers, which ſo effectually penetrate the ſilk, that the ſtain always remains in it.

Having thus far treated of the ſilks, we ſhall now ſay ſomething of the ſilk-worm. The worm, when it leaves its egg, is no bigger than the head of a common pin. It feeds upon the mulberry leaf, and grows to the ſize of a caterpillar, after which it no longer eats, but prepares for its diſſolution. It wraps itſelf in a kind of ſilken ball ſpun from its own bowels; its head ſeparates from its body, and it in every reſpect changes from its original form. It hath apparently neither life or motion. However, after remaining in this ſtate ſome time, it awakes to a new being, and appears a different kind of inſect. It reſembles a large moth or butterfly; and in this laſt ſtage the female propagates the ſpecies by laying a prodigious number of eggs, after which ſhe dies.

This valuable worm is compoſed of ſeveral elaſtic ſprings; and, from one extremity to the other, it has a kind of little nerve, which we will call the ſpine: this ſpine, placed in the center of its body, and continued through its whole length, ſuſtains two other nerves or ſtrings: one of theſe is the heart, which is compoſed of many oval veſſels: the other, which is the lungs, is double, and appears to be an aſſemblage of ſeveral rings, extending towards the two ſides of the inſect, and between which are certain orifices that correſpond with thoſe diſtributed along the exterior ſides. It is thro' theſe apertures that the air flows to the lungs, and by its ſpring and expanſion promotes the circulation of the chyle or humour which nouriſhes the inſect.

It is neceſſary to add, that the worm is perfectly black when it firſt comes out of the egg. In a few days it begins to aſſume a whitiſh hue, or aſh grey: after this its coat ſullies, and becomes ragged; at which time the inſect caſts it off, and appears in a new habit. It increaſes in bulk, and becomes more white, though a little inclining to a bluiſh caſt: then diveſting itſelf of its ſkin, it appears in its third habit, when its colour, head, and whole form, are ſo metamorphoſed, that it appears quite another inſect. In a few days it becomes changed to a bright yellow: ſo that from the time of its leaving the egg, it hath diveſted itſelf of three different coverings. It continues feeding a ſhort time longer, and then renouncing all ſociety, wraps itſelf in its little ſilken ball as already mentioned.

This curious inſect at firſt ſeems to labour without deſign, and forms only a ſort of flue or down. This is its firſt day's employment. On the ſecond it begins to form the outſide of the cone or ball, in the midſt of the looſe ſilk or flue made the day before: and on the third day it is entirely obſcured. In the ſpace of a week the cone is completed, and the worm changes to a chryſalis, wrapped in its little ſilken tomb, without feet, head, or any diſtinct part. The cone is like a pidgeon's egg, and is more pointed at one end than the other. A female ſilk-worm ſometimes lays 500 eggs.

The Chineſe have two methods of bringing up their ſilk-worms. They either ſuffer them to range on the mulberry trees, or keep them in rooms; but the latter method is productive of the fineſt ſilk.

Prior to the introduction of paper into China, which, according to the chronologers of that country, was about the ſecond century of the Chriſtian æra, the Chineſe uſed to expreſs their ſentiments by means of carved letters, or rather hieroglyphics, which were cut in blocks of wood; and theſe boards, or wooden leaves, being faſtened together, formed books. Some of theſe, we are informed, with the characters ſtill legible, are to be found at this time in China, but they are deemed valuable reliques by the Chineſe antiquaries.

The Chineſe ſoon adopted another method upon pieces of ſilk and linen, cut into different forms, according to the ſize of the book or volume intended: till at length one Tſai-lun, an ingenious mandarin, invented a paper made of the bark of trees. The trees principally choſen were the mulberry, bamboo, elm, and cotton; but they uſe only the ſecond ſkin of the bark, which is ſoft and white: this is ſteeped in the mud of ſome ſtanding water, then waſhed clean, and ſpread in a dry ditch, where it is covered with lime; and laſtly, to finiſh the bleaching part, it is ſeparated into threads, and dried in the ſun. It is then boiled in a cauldron, and afterwards reduced to a paſte by a machine. Then they take ſome water, in which the branches of the *koteng*, a ſhrub, hath been ſoaked, in order to make it ſizy, and mix it with the matter the paper is made with. The whole then becoming a clammy liquid, and being poured into large reſervoirs, they, with their proper moulds, take up the ſurface of the liquor, which in an inſtant almoſt becomes paper. The moulds are long and broad, and the bottom made of threads of bamboo; ſo that there are ſheets ten, twelve, or perhaps thirteen feet in length. They afterwards dip every ſheet of paper in allum water, when it has the denomination of fan-paper; for, in the Chineſe language, the word *fan* ſignifies allum. The ink is prevented from ſinking into the paper by the allum, which gives it an agreeable luſtre beſides. The paper is in general full as white, and is finer, and much ſofter, than any we have in Europe; but it is more apt to crack, as well as to become damp and worm-eaten; and, if not very carefully preſerved, it is leſs durable. That made from the bamboo is more ſubject to crack than any; though, perhaps, the dipping it in allum-water may, in general, occaſion this defect. The paper made from the cotton trees is the moſt delicate, and moſt generally uſed, for it is as durable as any European paper.

The Chineſe do not write with a reed, like the Arabians, or with a crayon, like the Siameſe, or with a pen, like the Europeans, but with an hair pencil. They make uſe of a piece of poliſhed marble, hollowed at one end to hold water, wherein they dip their ſtick of ink, and then gently rubbing it, there is in a few moments produced a fluid ink. They do not hold their pencils ſloping, as we do our pens, but perpendicular to the paper. They write from top to bottom in columns, and begin their books where ours end; that is, they begin at the right hand ſide of the paper, and proceed to the left, like the Hebrews. But their paper is ſo very thin, it will not bear writing on both ſides of it.

Their method of printing is not at all like ours. They lay claim to the invention of this art at leaſt 400 years before it was practiſed by the Europeans. As we have but twenty-four letters, and thoſe are capable of compoſing whole volumes, it is not neceſſary that the

compositor have more than a certain quantity of these characters, sufficient for a sheet or half sheet of pages, as the volume may be done, making one or two complete frames, (or forms, as stiled in the printing office,) and enough to keep him employed while these are working off at the press; because when the proper number is printed, he distributes his types into their respective boxes, and with the same letters composes a fresh frame or form; so that a very large book may be printed with a moderate number of characters. But the Chinese, who do not practise this most useful and admirable method, are under a necessity of using a prodigious number of characters, as they have properly no letters, but different marks of all the different words in their language. Instead of types, they cut their characters on wooden blocks. When an author is about to print his manuscript, he gets it fairly transcribed on fine transparent paper; then the engraver glues each leaf upon a smooth block, with the face of the type to the wood, and then cuts away the wood, leaving only the types, which is effected with such a degree of nicety, that, when printed off, they so exactly resemble the original, as to render it difficult to distinguish the print from the hand-writing. This method of doing business, it must be allowed, is subject to great inconveniencies, on account of the necessity of multiplying the number of blocks of wood, and the length of the time taken up in engraving; and, as the pages are separately worked off, it must be a long time before a volume can be completed. But then, on the other hand, it is to be considered, that the Chinese engraver works his characters almost as fast as the European printer composes his. This could not, however, be supposed to be done, without considering that the Chinese characters are a sort of short-hand, some of which not only express words, but whole sentences. Moreover, when the whole copy is engraved, the author can order to be printed only just such a number of books as he thinks he shall have occasion for; by which means he consequently avoids that loss which European authors and booksellers sustain from the number of superfluous printed copies.

SECTION V.

Arts and Sciences cultivated by the Chinese. Dramatic Exhibitions

THERE are but few of the Chinese who apply themselves to any of the speculative sciences. Moral philosophy has always been their principal study, and this they reduce to two principal heads, viz. the reciprocal duties between parents and children, and between prince and people. Between polity and morality they make no distinction: the art to govern well, and the art to live well, are one and the same principle with them.

The sages of China have produced the most excellent moral books, and have suited their stile and tenets to the most ordinary capacities, studying more to instruct the uninformed, than to acquire applause to themselves. Learning is the only path to preferment there, and none but the literati are governors of cities and provinces.

The libraries of China are numerous, elegantly built, superbly ornamented, and enriched with grand collections

It appears from the *chu-king*, a canonical book of great antiquity, that these people had cultivated the science of astronomy with much application. That book sets forth, that in the reign of the emperor Yu, which was near 2000 years before Christ, there lived Hi and Ho, two noted astronomers, who, however, were in very great disgrace, for not prognosticating an eclipse of the sun, which happened in their life-time. In the same book mention is made of another eclipse of the sun, that happened 2155 years before the Christian æra, the truth of which stands confirmed by the calculation of the jesuit P. Schaal. Gaubil, the jesuit, has observed, that from above 120 years before the same æra, they have given the number and extent of their constellations, what stars answered the solstices and equinoxes, the declination of the stars, the distance of the tropics and two poles. He adds, they were acquainted with the motions of the sun and moon, and also of the planets and fixed stars; though they did not determine the motion of the latter till 400 years after Christ.

Their learned historian Confucius has been found exact in his calculation of eclipses in general, according to the declaration of the jesuits: and the Chinese are at this very day possessed of several astronomical books, which they assert were composed under the dynasty of Han, who reigned before the birth of Christ; by which it appears that these people, for upwards of 2000 years past, have been acquainted with the solar year, as consisting of 365 days and some hours; the apparent diurnal motions of the sun and moon from east to west; the meridianal altitude of the sun by the shadow of gnomons; the right ascension of the stars, and the time of their passing through the meridian; as likewise the revolutions of Saturn, Jupiter, Mars, Venus, and Mercury: and their observations in these particulars have been pretty near the same with ours in point of exactness: though they have no tables for the retrograde and stationary aspects of the planets.

They divide their year into twelve lunar months, some of them consisting of twenty-nine, others of thirty days; and every five years they have an intercalary month, to adjust the lunations with the sun's course. They reckon by weeks, as we do, and in like manner give the name of a planet to each of the seven days, and according to the same order. Their astronomical day begins at midnight, which is divided into twelve equal parts, each answering to two of our hours. Though they are not acquainted with the art of making clocks, they have solar quadrants, and other chronometers. Among other simple inventions in private use, for the purpose of measuring time, they have a little perfumed pastil of a conic figure, which they burn in the night. This pastil is marked, to shew the particular time it is made to burn, and hath generally five divisions, answering to the five watches of the night; so that those who wish to be waked at a particular time hang a small metal ball by a string to the pastil, which at the time burns the string, and the weight falling into a copper bason, awakes the person sleeping

As the skill of the Chinese in natural philosophy and anatomy is very superficial, it cannot be supposed they are acquainted much with physic. However, they pretend to have applied themselves closely to it even from the establishment of their empire. Certain it is, they have some very good practical physicians, the greatest part of whose medicines consists of herbs, roots, fruits, seeds, &c. which are, for the most part, good stomachics and gentle purgatives. By the beating of the pulse, they pretend to know the cause of any disorder, and in what part of the body it lies: and, indeed, they have discovered pretty exactly, by this means, the symptoms of complaints. They say that the pulse of a man differs from that of a woman, and that it changes with the seasons of the year. To form a decisive judgement of the cause of complaint in a patient, they lay his arm upon a pillow, and then apply their fingers to the artery. At first they touch it gently, then a little closer, and lastly press it very hard. They take time to examine the beating, and distinguish the differences according as the motion is more or less quick, uniform or irregular, which they observe with the most attentive exactness. According to the variations, they pronounce what part of the body is affected, how long the disorder will hold, and whether the patient will get the better of it or not.

Though these people lay claim to the invention of music, and bringing it to high perfection, their concerts have no dependence on a diversity of tones, or a difference of parts. They have no musical notes, nor any sign

ſign to denote the variations which conſtitute harmony. They learn tunes by the ear, and when theſe are played on the inſtruments, or ſung by a good voice, they are not diſagreeable even to an European.

The Chineſe have divers muſical inſtruments of their own invention; ſome made of metal, others of ſtone. One hath ſome reſemblance to our trumpet. They have ſome covered with ſkins, like our drums. They have wind inſtruments of two or three kinds, as flutes, and a ſort of little organ, which yields an agreeable ſound. They have likewiſe many ſorts of ſtringed inſtruments, the ſtrings of which are, for the moſt part, made of ſilk, few of them of gut. The generality of them conſiſts only of three ſtrings. They have one inſtrument with ſeven ſtrings, which is in great eſteem among them, and not diſagreeable when played by a maſterly hand.

It appears, from the beſt authority, that the invention of gunpowder is juſtly claimed by the Chineſe, who ſeem to have known nothing of ſmall fire-arms, and to have been acquainted only with the cannon, which they call the fire-pan.

SECTION VI.

Public Buildings, great Wall of China, Architecture, Habitations, &c.

THE bridges built over the rivers in China are of ſtone, and of very ſtrong workmanſhip. Some of them are very handſome ſtructures, and of great length. The bridge of Suen-tcheou, in the province of Fo-Kien, is built over an arm of the ſea, and ſupported by above 300 pillars. Its length is about 2500 feet, its breadth 20; and the ſtone work, from pier to pier, at the top, conſiſts of large ſingle maſſy ſtones.

There is a bridge called the Iron Bridge, in the province of Koeitcheou, which conſiſts of chains of iron, reaching over a river extremely deep and rapid, though not very broad. On each bank are raiſed two maſſy piles of maſonry, to which are faſtened chains that croſs to the oppoſite ſide, and on theſe are laid broad planks. In one province they fix poles of wood into the rocks, and on theſe lay broad boards. Aukward, however, as theſe are, the country people paſs over them without fearing any danger.

The Chineſe have given amazing proofs both of art and induſtry, in the projection and execution of the plan for their high roads, which are broad, commodious, well paved, handſome, and ſecure. The high road in the province of Chen-ſi may be deemed a prodigy, it reaching over mountains and hideous precipices. Upwards of 1000 men are reported to have been employed in the making this road, who levelled ſome of the mountains, formed communications by arches with others, and finiſhed it with ſurpriſing expedition.

The pagods, or temples, erected to their fabulous deities, are very numerous. They conſiſt in general of one tower, terminating in a dome. Some are built of brick, and others of hard tempered earth.

The celebrated Porcelian Tower ſtands at a ſmall diſtance from Nan-king, and is looked upon as the handſomeſt and grandeſt building in all Aſia. This famous temple, which, by the Chineſe, is ſtiled the Temple of Gratitude, conſiſts of a prodigious number of pieces of timber, differently boxed, and let one into another, which is looked upon as no inconſiderable embelliſhment in Chineſe architecture. it muſt be acknowledged, that this labyrinth of beams, couples, girders, &c. has ſomething in it ſtriking and amazing; though, in truth, it is no better than a regular kind of embarraſſment and confuſion, proceeding from the ill taſte of this nation for architecture, who are entire ſtrangers to that noble ſimplicity ſo juſtly admired in our beſt buildings.

The moſt ſtupendous building in China is the great wall, begun about 2000 years ago. The Chineſe erected it by way of defending themſelves againſt the Tartars. It is a maſter-piece of induſtry, genius, and perſeverance, excelling every fortification attempted by the ancients.

As China is ſeparated from Tartary by a chain of mountains, this wall, which begins in the province of Chen-ſi, on the ſide of Tartary, is continued over mountains and vallies to the 42d degree of north latitude, and then reaches ſouthward as far back as to the 39th. It is principally built of brick, and bound with the ſtrongeſt mortar, inſomuch, that though it has ſtood many centuries, it ſtill continues firm. It is about 500 leagues in length, including its many turnings and windings, and the intermediate ſpaces ſupplied by the mountains, which, in ſeveral places, are a natural fortification; and in many others there is a wide ditch only; ſo that of the real wall there is not more than 100 leagues. This wall, during the reigns of the Chineſe emperors, was guarded continually by 1,000,000 ſoldiers. However, ſince the conqueſt of the Chineſe by the Tartars, they are ſatisfied with only guarding particular parts of it.

Notwithſtanding the different repreſentations of travellers, it may be affirmed, from the beſt authority, that the greateſt elevation of this wall does not exceed 30 feet; and that its breadth is about ſufficient for eight or ten men to ſtand abreaſt upon it.

The cities and towns of the Chineſe in general are built on a ſquare model: two handſome ſtreets from eaſt to weſt, and from north to ſouth, croſs each other in the center, and divide the town into quarters. Where theſe ſtreets interſect each other there is a large opening, from whence are ſeen the four great gates.

The chief cities, and capital towns, are encloſed by very high walls: and thoſe towns to which the Chineſe give the appellation of war-towns, have ſtrong ramparts lined with thick walls, and flanked with towers; the whole encompaſſed by broad ditches. In ſome of the ſtreets are the triumphal arches and pagods.

Their houſes are erected upon ſtone pedeſtals, and conſiſt of a porch at the entrance, a hall, and three or four chambers, all on the ground floor. The merchants have frequently a ſtory above the ground floor, in which their goods are depoſited.

The Chineſe find great fault with our ſtories riſing one above another. They expreſs their ſurprize at our hazarding our necks in climbing up our ſtair-caſes. When one of their emperors was ſhewn ſome models of European houſes, he ſaid that Europe muſt certainly be a ſmall and pitiful country, ſince, for want of room to build, the natives were forced to mount up into the air.

SECTION VII.

Deſcription of Pe king, the Metropolis, Nan-king, Soutcheou, and Canton. Chineſe Navigation and Barks.

PE-KING, the metropolis of China, is ſituated in latitude 40 deg. north. It is an exact ſquare, and divided into two cities; that which contains the imperial palace, which is called the new, or the Tartar city, becauſe inhabited by Tartars ever ſince they conquered the empire: the other is called the old, or Chineſe city, as inhabited by them. The circuit of both without the ſuburbs meaſures about ſix leagues.

The city is encloſed by ſtupendous walls, being 150 feet in height, and broad enough for ſeveral horſemen to ride abreaſt upon the top of them. At proper diſtances are large ſquare towers. The ditch is dry, though very deep and wide. The gates are of an extraordinary elevation, and the architecture of them in tolerable good taſte. At each gate are two great towers, one without and the other within. They conſiſt of nine ſtories, each with port-holes; and at the bottom is a ſpacious hall, where the officers and ſoldiers retire who come off guard.

The Tartar city has nine gates; two facing the eaſt, two the weſt, two the north, and three the ſouth. The Chineſe city has only ſeven, to each of which anſwers a ſuburb. The latter city is much the more populous.

The

The ſtreets in general are as ſtraight as a line. The grand ſtreet is 120 feet wide, and a league in length. The ſhops on each ſide of the ſtreet, furniſhed with a beautiful variety of porcelian, varniſhed ware, and the richeſt ſilks, exhibit a moſt pleaſing picture. Every tradeſman places a ſhop-board before the door of his ſhop, containing, in large characters, an account of the different articles of trade that he has to diſpoſe of.

Incredible numbers of paſſengers throng the ſtreets, but not a ſingle woman is ever ſeen among the multitude. Perſons who ride in chairs are often under the neceſſity of having an horſeman to go before them to clear the way. Several cauſes combine to produce theſe crowds: as for example, beſides the vaſt number of peaſants who repair hither from the neighbouring country places, with their camels, horſes, mules, and other beaſts of burden, the greateſt part of the mechanics, inſtead of keeping to their ſhops, go about the town in queſt of buſineſs, carrying with them the ſeveral implements of their reſpective profeſſions. Barbers, for inſtance, go about ringing bells to get cuſtomers: they carry with them a ſtool, baſon, towel, pot and fire; and when any perſon calls to them, they run up to him, and placing their ſtool in a convenient place in the ſtreet, they ſhave the head, clean the ears, put the eye-brows in order, and bruſh the ſhoulders, all for the value of little more than an half-penny. They then ring their bell again, and are ready for another cuſtomer. The taylors, who ply in the ſtreets, go home to the houſes of their cuſtomers, and do their work there. They do not uſe thimbles, as ours do, but tie a rag upon their thumbs: nor do they ſit down to their work, but ſew ſtanding, except when they grow tired: the work is upon a table, and they ſtand cloſe to it.

The motley crowd, buſied in their ſeveral occupations, cauſe a vaſt confuſion, while jugglers, ballad-ſingers, and noſtrum-mongers are encircled by their reſpective mobs: which reminds us of the following lines of a celebrated Engliſh poet:

With various haſte here ſev'ral ways they run,
Some to undo, and ſome to be undone:
While luxury and wealth, and war and peace,
Are each the others ruin and increaſe,
As rivers loſt in ſeas, ſome ſecret vein
Thence re-conveys, there to be loſt again.
While diff'rent avocations each purſues,
All have their ſecret aims, and private views.
Whether they ſpread forth pleaſure's ſilken ſails,
Watch folly's winds, and catch her fleeting gales;
Or, full of buſineſs, fly from ſtreet to ſtreet,
With looks important, and unwearied feet;
Or, to the more ingenious arts inclin'd,
Make china-ware, or fans to catch the wind;
To ſelf, of each purſuit the current flows,
There all their wiſhes, all their labours cloſe;
Yet private ends aſſiſt the empire's aim,
For true ſelf-love and ſocial are the ſame.

A man of rank never goes abroad without being attended by a great number of his domeſtics: if he be a mandarin of the firſt rank, he is not only attended by theſe, but alſo by his ſubordinate mandarins, who alſo, to increaſe the pomp of his retinue, are all in particular dreſſes, attended by their valets; ſo that the train of one of theſe mandarins is of itſelf ſufficient to embarraſs a ſtreet.

From the multiplicity of paſſengers and carriages, the ſtreets are always ſo incommoded, either with mud in the winter, or duſt in the ſummer, that they are in both ſeaſons very diſagreeable. From theſe conſiderations it may be eaſily judged how populous Pe-king muſt be, when its ſtreets can hardly contain one half of the people, who, according to the aſſertions of ſome authors, amount to ſix or ſeven millions. Others compute them at three, and ſome at only two.

Proſtitutes are not ſuffered to live within the walls: their houſes are of a particular kind, and many of them lodge together, generally under the inſpection of a man, who is reſponſible for any diſturbance they occaſion. In ſome provinces proſtitutes are not tolerated at all.

All the principal ſtreets are guarded by ſoldiers, who patrole night and day, not only with thin ſwords, but with whips in their hands, with which they laſh indifferently all perſons concerned in any riot or breach of the public peace. Indeed, there is always in this city a garriſon of 40,000 men to preſerve good order and peace. There are no clubs, balls, or other nocturnal meetings here; and the ſoldiers take into cuſtody all perſons whom they ſee in the ſtreets in the night-time, if they do not give a good account of themſelves.

The emperor's palace is of vaſt extent. The apartments in general are ſuperb and elegant, as, excluſive of the carved and gilded ceilings, they are furniſhed with paintings, tapeſtry, rich cabinets, and beautiful carpets.

As agriculture in general, and gardening in particular, is in great eſtimation in China, it is not to be wondered at that the royal gardens of Pe-king have juſtly challenged the admiration of the curious, and may be numbered among the wonders of the world. They are a kind of ſtupendous drama, in which the beauties and defects of nature and the works of art are admirably repreſented in ſuch a manner as to affect all the paſſions of the human ſoul.

Theſe gardens contain innumerable buildings, ſome regularly elegant, others rurally ſimple; ſome of a groteſque nature, and others in imitation of ruins. Thus all the varieties of achitecture are blended with the productions of nature; and the animal, vegetable, and mineral creation are happily united to complete a moſt aſtoniſhing ſcene.

Nan-king (a name ſignifying the court of the ſouth, as Pe-king does the court of the north) is the capital of the province of Kiang-nan, and was for many ages the capital of the Chineſe empire, as well as the reſidence of the emperors. It is the largeſt city in China, and was originally ſurrounded with a triple wall, meaſuring about ſixteen leagues in circumference; but the palace, once famous for its ſplendor and magnificence, hath been deſtroyed, as well as many grand monuments. The ſtreets of this city are narrow, but well paved; the houſes low, but handſome; the ſhops ſpacious, and well furniſhed with goods. Nan-king is celebrated for its great number of libraries: it excels likewiſe in printing, and in artificers of moſt kinds: here, too, reſide the moſt eminent doctors of the empire, as well as the greater part of ſuch mandarins as have been diſcharged from their governments.

The number of its inhabitants is eſtimated at about four millions, including thoſe who live in barks upon the water; and, indeed, wherever a city is ſituated on the banks of a canal or river, there is ſeen another large floating city of barks; ſo that the rivers and canals of China are in proportion as populous as the land.

The public buildings are rather mean, except a few temples, the city-gates, and a tower of porcelain about two hundred feet in height.

Sou-tcheou, the ſecond city of the province of Kiang-nan, may, in point of ſituation, be compared to Venice, though it far exceeds it in extent and populouſneſs. It is four leagues in circumference, excluſive of the ſuburbs, which are very extenſive: it has many canals of fine water, capable of bearing ſhips of heavy burthen: the people are conveyed to almoſt any part of the city in gondolas, elegantly painted. The commerce and riches of this city, the beauty of its ſituation, the fruitfulneſs of the country around, the concourſe of viſitants, and the natural politeneſs of the inhabitants, render it, in the fulleſt ſenſe of the term, the Paradiſe of China.

Canton is the capital city and ſea-port of the province of Quang-tong. The houſes ſtand very thick, the ſtreets are long, and rather narrow, almoſt all laid out by the line, and well paved, with triumphal arches in ſeveral of them: here are alſo ſome temples of tolerable good workmanſhip, in which the bonzes live.

As Canton is ſituated on the banks of one of the fineſt rivers in China, deep enough for the largeſt ſhips, all the curioſities of the empire are brought hither. In going up the river the eye is delighted with one of the moſt charming proſpects in nature, being nearly encompaſſed with verdant fields, lawns, groves, and hills gently riſing one above another. Both ſides of the river are covered with barks, ranged on parallel lines, forming, as it were, ſtreets and alleys; and in each of theſe barks reſide a whole family: the meaner ſort quit their bark in the morning, and repair to the fields or ſtreets to earn their livelihood, and return to their families in the evening.

A principal ſhare of the opulence of Canton flows from its commerce with the Europeans, who are not permitted to enter any other port in China.

As the accounts of Canton hitherto given are deemed greatly exaggerated, it is preſumed, that the ſubſequent remarks collected by Captain King, which he received from ſeveral of our countrymen long reſident there, together with thoſe of later date, from the correſpondent before mentioned, may not be improper.

The circumference of Canton, including the old and new town, and alſo the ſuburbs, is about ten miles. With regard to its population, judging of the whole from what he ſaw in the ſuburbs, he is of opinion, that it falls conſiderably ſhort of an European town of equal magnitude. Le Compte has eſtimated the number of its inhabitants at 1,500,000; Du Halde at 1,000,000; and M. Sonnerat affirms he has aſcertained that their number does not exceed 75,000: but as this gentleman has not thought proper to communicate to us the grounds on which he founded his calculation, and, beſides, ſeems to be as much inclined to depreciate whatever relates to the Chineſe nation, as the jeſuits may be to magnify, his opinion does not lay claim to an implicit aſſent. The following particulars may, perhaps, enable our readers to form a judgment on this point with ſome degree of accuracy.

It is certain that a Chineſe houſe, in general, occupies more ſpace than is commonly taken by houſes in Europe; but the proportion of four or five to one, as ſuggeſted by M. Sonnerat, muſt be acknowledged to go far beyond the truth. To this we may add, that a conſiderable number of houſes in the ſuburbs of Canton, are kept only for the purpoſes of commerce, by merchants and opulent tradeſmen, whoſe families reſide entirely within the walls. On the other hand, a Chineſe family is more numerous than an European. A mandarin, in proportion to his rank and property, has from five to twenty wives. A merchant has from three to five. A perſon of the latter claſs at Canton had, indeed, five and twenty wives, and ſix and thirty children: but this was mentioned to Captain King as a very uncommon circumſtance. A wealthy tradeſman has generally two wives; but people of an inferior ſtation very rarely have more than one. They have at leaſt double the number of ſervants employed by Europeans of the ſame rank. If, therefore, we ſuppoſe a Chineſe family to be larger by one third, and a European houſe leſs by two thirds, than each other, a city of China will comprehend only half the number of people contained in a town of the ſame extent in Europe. According to theſe *poſtulata*, the city and ſuburbs of Canton may, in all probability, contain 150,000 inhabitants.

Captain King found various opinions entertained reſpecting the number of inhabited ſampans; but none computed them to be under 40,000. They are moored in rows cloſe to each other, a narrow paſſage being left at intervals, for the boats to paſs and repaſs on the river. The Tygris, at Canton, being of greater width than the Thames at London, and the whole river, for the ſpace of at leaſt a mile, being covered in this manner, it does not appear that this eſtimate of their number is at all exaggerated; and if it be allowed, the inhabitants in the ſampans alone, each of which contains one family, muſt amount to almoſt thrice the number affirmed by M. Sonnerat to be in the whole city.

Fifty thouſand men conſtitute the military force of the province of Quang-tong, of which Canton is the capital. It is aſſerted that 20,000 are ſtationed in the city and its environs: and Captain King was aſſured, that, on occaſion of ſome commotion which had happened at Canton, 30,000 troops had been drawn together in the courſe of a few hours.

The ſtreets of this city are long, and moſt of them are narrow, and deſtitute of uniformity. They are well paved with large ſtones, and, in general, kept extremely clean. The houſes are built of brick, and are only one ſtory high. They have, for the moſt part, two or three courts backwards, in which are erected the warehouſes for the reception of merchandize, and, in the houſes within the city, the apartments for the females. Some of the meaner ſort of people, though very few, have their habitations compoſed of wood.

The houſes of the European factors are built on a fine quay, having a regular facade of two ſtories towards the river. They are conſtructed, with reſpect to the inſide, partly after the Chineſe, and partly after the European mode. Adjoining to theſe are a conſiderable number of houſes which belong to the Chineſe, and are let out by them to the commanders of veſſels, and to merchants, who make only an occaſional ſtay.

As no European is permitted to take his wife with him to Canton, the Engliſh ſupercargoes live together at a common table, which is maintained by the company; and each of them has alſo an apartment appropriated to himſelf, conſiſting of three or four rooms. The period of their reſidence rarely exceeds eight months in a year: and as, during that time, they are almoſt conſtantly occupied in the ſervice of the company, they may ſubmit with the leſs uneaſineſs and regret to the reſtrictions under which they live. They very ſeldom make any viſits within the walls of Canton, except on public occaſions.

The Chineſe boaſt that they were acquainted with the art of navigation, and the Indian Seas, long before the birth of Chriſt. They are acquainted with the compaſs, and pretend to be the inventors of it. The Chineſe ſailors are ſuperſtitious enough to worſhip their compaſs, and offer perfumes to it in ſacrifice.

Their barks have generally two maſts, and ſometimes three, Moſt of them, eſpecially thoſe uſed for merchandize, have flat bottoms, and are, from head to ſtern, of one and the ſame breadth. The maſts and ſails have a very rude aſpect; the former being of rough trees juſt as produced by nature, except that the twigs and branches are lopped off. The ſails are of mat, ſtrengthened with pieces of bamboo. They have another ſort of bark, not unlike our gallies, which they not only uſe in their rivers, but on the ſea-coaſts, to ſail between the iſlands: they have three maſts, and in calms go with oars.

The dealers in ſalt and wood convey thoſe articles in booths built on rafts. They faſten them together with oſier bands, and ſo form their floats five feet high, and about ten broad. They have no fixed meaſure for their length, ſome extending half a league. At convenient diſtances, they erect huts or booths; and as every length of timber is only faſtened to the next by bands, the whole united raft moves eaſily any way, like the link of a chain, and is very conveniently managed in the windings of any river. In the huts, or booths, the people eat, drink, and ſleep, and often ſell them with their ſalt and wood. Theſe rafts are ſometimes thus conveyed five or ſix hundred leagues, and ſeen at a diſtance like ſo many little floating towns.

SECTION VIII.

Parade and Ceremonies relative to the Emperor. His immenſe Revenue and boundleſs Sway.

FROM the ſtile of the emperor, and the adoration paid him by his ſubjects, it might be imagined that he was more then mortal. He is called *Holy Son of Heaven*,

Heaven, Sole Governor of the Earth, Great Father of his People. His ſubjects always proſtrate themſelves when before his throne, even if he be not ſitting there; and if they ſee either his girdle or his robes, they muſt alſo fall proſtrate on the ground. No perſon, even of the firſt rank in life, paſſes by his palace on horſeback, or in a chair, but quits his ſeat before he arrives at it, and walks till he has got beyond it.

When the emperor goes to the temple of Tien with the offerings and ſacrifices of gratitude, he appears in all the magnificence of eaſtern pomp. The proceſſion commences with drums and trumpets. Four hundred magnificent lanterns, and as many flambeaux, then appear, diffuſing a moſt grand illumination. Then come a great number of perſons with ſpears, and twenty-four banners, with the ſigns of the Zodiac painted on them, which the Chineſe divide into twelve parts: the fifty-ſix other banners follow theſe, repreſenting the fifty-ſix conſtellations, to which the Chineſe reduce all the ſtars. Then comes the emperor himſelf, who is on horſeback, in rich apparel. He is attended by his pages, and 100 men with ſpears. The princes of the blood, mandarins, &c. then follow, in their proper habits, with 500 youths belonging to the palace, followed by 1000 footmen. Two grand chairs are next ſeen: one is borne by about forty men; and the other, which is conſiderably larger, by upwards of 100. Then come chariots drawn by elephants, and ſome by horſes, each attended by 50 men. The proceſſion cloſes with 2000 mandarins of letters, and the ſame number of mandarins of arms, all in their proper dreſſes.

The revenues of the emperor of China are ſaid to amount to 21,000,000l. a year; and his army is 770,000 ſtrong. He has an unlimited power to declare war, proclaim peace, or conclude treaties. He takes cognizance of all important matters tranſacted in the ſix ſovereign courts of Pe-king: but the management of the finances is under the direction of the officers of the ſecond ſovereign court: all the revenues of the ſtate paſs through their hands, they being the appointed guardians of the imperial treaſure. The public revenues are not farmed, nor do they paſs through the hands of ſeveral under receivers, but the chief magiſtrates of each city regulate and collect the levies, and remit them to the treaſurer-general of the province, who tranſmits them to the tribunal of finances at Pe-king.

SECTION IX.

Claſſes of Rank, Authority, Privileges, and Offices, of the Mandarins.

THOUGH dignities in China are conferred on perſons in proportion to their merit, ſtrictly ſpeaking, none but the imperial family have any real title of diſtinction, in whoſe favour five honorary degrees of nobility are eſtabliſhed. The title of prince is not only given to the ſons of the emperor, but alſo to his ſons-in-law; and to theſe latter are granted ſtipends adequate to their dignity, but no authority in conſequence of marriage. A prince of the loweſt rank, however, is ſuperior to the firſt mandarin in the empire, and diſtinguiſhes himſelf by a yellow girdle.

The ſon of a mandarin ranks no higher on account of his birth than the ſon of a peaſant. The emperors, indeed, confer certain titles, anſwering to thoſe of duke, earl, and viſcount with us; but theſe do not deſcend.

As ſuch deference is paid to genius and learning, the deſcendants of Confucius have been honoured with diſtinguiſhed privileges for 2000 years; and it is from his illuſtrious family that the emperor always chooſes a perſon of learning for governor of Ki-ſeou in Chan-tong, the place of nativity of that great philoſopher.

There are ſeveral claſſes of mandarins. Thoſe who are governors of provinces and cities are choſen by the emperor. Thoſe are called mandarins of letters who have applied themſelves to literature, and paſſed through the degrees prior to that of the doctorate. Theſe men have the direction of the political government of the empire: their number is from 13 to 14,000, and they are divided into nine claſſes: from the three firſt the emperor makes choice of his miniſters and officers of the firſt rank, as the colaos, or miniſters of ſtate, the judges of the ſupreme courts, the governors of the capital cities, the treaſurers-general of the provinces, the viceroys, &c.

As the mandarins are the repreſentatives of the ſovereign, a proportionate homage is paid to them, and the people addreſs them on their knees when they are ſeated on their tribunal. Thoſe of higher claſſes have always a pompous attendance when they appear in public. Four men carry them in a magnificent chair, the officers of their court walking before them; ſome carrying an umbrella, and others beating on a copper baſon, to give notice of the mandarin's approach. Eight enſign bearers exhibit on their enſigns the titles of honour, in large characters, of this great man. Theſe are ſucceeded by fourteen ſtandard bearers, bearing the ſymbols of his office, viz. a dragon, phœnix, and other animals. Six people then are ſeen with little tablets, on which are inſcribed the virtues of this mandarin. Two archers on horſeback are alſo in the proceſſion, riding in front of the principal guards, who carry large hooks ornamented with ſilken fringe. Some carry halberts, ſome maces, ſome axes, ſome whips, ſome ſtaves, and ſome hangers and cutlaſſes. Others carry chains of iron; and at length come two men loaded with a grand cheſt, containing the ſeal of his office, while two other perſons beat upon kettle drums. The mandarin then appears, preceded by two ſtandard-bearers and the captain of the guards. He is ſurrounded by pages and footmen, while an officer holds near him a large handſome fan. The proceſſion is cloſed by guards and domeſtics. When he goes out in the night time, inſtead of flambeaux, there are ſeveral large lanterns, on which are inſcribed his title and qualities.

There are five claſſes of mandarins, called, in general, mandarins of war, viz. the mandarins of the rear guard, the mandarins of the left wing, thoſe of the right wing, thoſe of the main body, and thoſe of the van guard. Theſe five claſſes are under the juriſdiction of ſo many courts or tribunals, which are all ſubject to a ſixth, viz. the fourth ſovereign court at Pe-king, which is entruſted with the care of the military of the empire. The preſident of the ſixth tribunal of war is always a grandee of the realm. His authority extends to all military perſons. To him belongs the ſupreme command of the army: but ſhould there be a war, the Chineſe law preſcribes, there ſhall, in ſuch caſes, be joined with him in commiſſion a mandarin of letters, bearing the title of ſuperintendant of arms; and there muſt be likewiſe appointed, out of the ſame order, two inſpectors of his conduct. The generaliſſimo undertakes no enterprize without the conſent of theſe three officers, who ſend a particular account of his operations to the fourth ſupreme court at Pe-king, that awful tribunal, to which even the general himſelf is accountable. Theſe mandarins, or officers at war, are computed at no leſs than 18,000.

The poor ſort of Chineſe pay theſe mandarins great homage and reſpect, and never approach them till they make *grandee-chin-chin*, as they term it, which is putting their hands cloſe together, and ſhaking them before the face.

SECTION X.

Civil and Eccleſiaſtical Eſtabliſhments. State of Judaiſm, Mahometaniſm, and Chriſtianity, in China.

THERE is much equity, as well as humanity, diſplayed in the mode of taxation in China. Every citizen, from the age of 20 to 60, pays a tribute proportionate to his income. If any perſons neglect to pay, they receive the baſtinado, or are thrown into priſon; and ſometimes a certain number of ſuch aged poor are

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Engraved for BANKES's *New System of* GEOGRAPHY *Published by Royal Authority.*

CHINESE MANDARINS.

1 of the State ... 2 of the Law ... 3 of the Military ...

CHINESE MERCHANTS, &c.

1 in the Summer Dress ... 2 in the Winter Dress ... 3 a Merchant's Wife

Engraved for J. Bankes's Graphic System of Geography
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are quartered upon them, as government would otherwiſe have to maintain; and theſe live upon them at free coſt till the emperor's demands are ſatisfied.

The penal laws of this country are cruel in the extreme. Theft is never puniſhed with death the firſt or ſecond time; the criminal is only burnt in the arm with an hot iron; but for the third offence he ſurely dies. The three capital puniſhments are, ſtrangling, decapitation, and cutting a perſon in pieces: the firſt of theſe is looked upon as the moſt favourable, as the latter is the moſt dreadful and ſhocking; for the criminal, whoſe fate it is to be cut in pieces, being tied faſt to a ſtake, the ſkin of his head is ſtripped over his eyes, that he may not behold his own torments.

Adultery is puniſhed with the baſtinado; and murder with either beheading or ſtrangling: the latter of theſe is accounted the leaſt ignominous: the Chineſe annex the idea of great infamy to the puniſhment of beheading; and the reaſon they aſſign for it is, that nothing more diſgraceful can poſſibly happen to a perſon dying, than not to preſerve the human form as entire as it was given them by nature. Thoſe who ſuffer this death are not allowed the uſual ceremonies of interment.

Slaves who elope from their maſters are marked in the left arm with a burning iron, beſides receiving an hundred laſhes.

The baſtinado and whip are the moſt common puniſhments. In the execution of the firſt of theſe the delinquent is laid flat, with his face to the ground, and receives twenty, forty, ſixty or an hundred ſtrokes on his naked fleſh. After the whipping is over, the ſufferer is forced to fall at the feet of his judge, and return him thanks for his merciful correction. The number of ſtripes given to an offender is proportioned to the nature of the offence. The emperor himſelf ſometimes commands this puniſhment to be inflicted upon great perſons, and afterwards admits them to his preſence as uſual. Scurrilous language, or fighting with the fiſts in the ſtreet, will incur this chaſtiſement; nay, even if a common fellow on horſeback does not diſmount when a mandarin appears, or croſſes the ſtreet in his preſence, he receives eight or ten ſtrokes. Maſters uſe the ſame correction to their ſcholars, fathers to their children, and grandees to their domeſtics. The chaſtiſing inſtrument is a ſplit bamboo.

Another inſtrument for puniſhing offenders is the cangue: it is a wooden collar or portable pillory, made of two flat pieces of wood, about two feet broad, and five or ſix inches thick, ſo hollowed as to encircle the neck, and reſt upon the ſhoulders. When this inſtrument is faſtened round the neck, the culprit can neither ſee his feet, nor put his hand to his mouth, but is under the neceſſity of being fed by ſome other perſon. This uneaſy confinement he is forced to bear both day and night: it is heavier or lighter in proportion to the offence committed: ſome of them weigh near two hundred pounds; but the common ſort about fifty or ſixty. For ſome offences the delinquent is ſentenced to wear the cangue for ſeveral months, and to appear with it in the public market, which is conſidered as a mark of the greateſt infamy.

Sharpers, gameſters, and diſturbers of the peace, are often puniſhed with the cangue; but they contrive various ways to relieve themſelves, as by their friends walking on each ſide, and bearing the weight on their ſhoulders; by chains ſo framed as to ſupport the cangue; ſome by kneeling reſt the collar on the ground, and thus give themſelves a temporary relief; and when they go to reſt at night, their friends have ſome contrivance for them, ſo as they may lie at full length.

They uſe a kind of rack for the feet and hands to extort confeſſion in treaſonable caſes; and there is ſtill a much ſeverer torture ſometimes uſed on theſe occaſions, which is opening the ſkin with ſciſſars, and raiſing the fleſh.

The office of executioner in China is ſo far from being attended with any diſgrace, that it is eſteemed an honourable employment: he wears a girt even of yellow ſilk, which is the badge of the emperor's ſervice; nay, one of the diſtinguiſhing ornaments of the princes of the blood; and his inſtrument of puniſhment is wrapped in ſilk of the ſame colour.

The priſons in China are ſpacious, commodious and clean: the uſual number of perſons confined in the jails of Canton only, is computed at no leſs than 15,000, who are allowed to work at their ſeveral trades and occupations for a ſubſiſtence; for they are not maintained at the charge of government.

The manner of diſpatching trials in China is very conciſe. They have no counſellors or lawyers: every man pleads for himſelf. The plaintiff draws up his grievance in writing, and takes it to the palace of the mandarin, where, beating on the drum at the gate, he immediately receives admittance. He then preſents his declaration to an officer of juſtice, who takes it to the mandarin, and the adverſe party is forthwith ſent for; who, if found guilty, is immediately baſtinadoed: but if the plaintiff be wrong in what he alledges, he loſes his cauſe, and is baſtinadoed himſelf.

With reſpect to the ſtate of religion in China, it may be ſaid to be divided into three ſects, one of which acknowledges Confucius for their founder; the ſecond, Lao-kium; and the third, Fo, or Foë.

Confucius was born 550 years before Chriſt, in the kingdom of Lou, which is now the province of Chantong: he was cotemporary with Pythagoras. In early life he gave proofs of a liberal genius, and, as he advanced in years, applied himſelf wholly to the ſtudy of philoſophy, particularly to the moral part. By degrees his reputation ſpread through the empire, and he was ſoon at the head of 3000 followers, out of whom he made choice of ſeventy-two to propagate his doctrine in different places. He prudently avoided giving offence to the prejudices of his country, by a too zealous and violent attack upon its errors; his moderation and candour were equal with his genius and learning. In all his actions, as in all his diſcourſes, he ſupported precept by example.

At the age of fifty-five he was raiſed to the dignity of firſt miniſter of the kingdom of Lou, his native country, which he governed with ſo much wiſdom and reſpectable authority, that in a little time the face of things underwent a total change; but theſe happy effects of his good adminiſtration and zeal were of no long duration; for the king of Lou, ſeduced by the allurements of a woman, ſoon forgot the excellent advice and inſtructions of his miniſter. Confucius, therefore, after vainly endeavouring to reclaim him, quitted him, and left his native country in ſearch of wiſer princes in other kingdoms; nor had he occaſion to travel a great way, for all were ambitious to have him for their gueſt.

This ornament to human nature died at the age of ſeventy-three, and had a magnificent monument erected to his memory near the city of Kio-feou. The Chineſe entertain a profound veneration for his memory, and have a chapel dedicated to him in almoſt every city, wherein the mandarins, and other literati, aſſemble on particular days, preſenting oblations to him, after the manner of a ſacrifice; honours, however, very contrary to the principles of Confucius, who never allowed of ſuch homage and worſhip being paid to a creature.

The emperor, the princes of the blood, and all of learning and diſtinction in China follow the religion of Confucius.

The Chineſe, in general, have clear apprehenſions of a Supreme Being: they do not, in their avocations to Tien, or Chang-ti, addreſs themſelves to the material heavens, but to the King of heaven.

The Chineſe literati frequent the temples, and attend the ſacrifices in common with their countrymen; and they declare they addreſs their adorations to one Supreme God.

Lao-kium, the founder of the ſecond ſect, was born about 600 years before Chriſt, in the province of Hou-

quang. As ſoon as he attained to the exerciſe of reaſon, he applied himſelf with unwearied diligence to the ſtudy of the ſciences, and made himſelf maſter of the hiſtory, laws, and cuſtoms of his country. He wrote a book entitled Tau-tſe, containing 5000 ſentences, replete with excellent morality. At length, after having ſpent a life of ſolitude and ſanctity, he died at a place called U, where a tomb was erected to his memory. This philoſopher conſtantly preached up ſolitude as an infallible means of elevating the human ſoul above earthly things, and of emancipating it from its material chains. Notwithſtanding, however, this his ſtrict and ſolitary life, he diſgraced all by denying the immortality of the ſoul.

The founder of the third ſect, Foë, was born in India, about 1000 years before Chriſt. He taught the doctrine of tranſmigration long before Pythagoras, and was the founder of the adoration to himſelf as a god. His followers, after his deceaſe, pretended he had been born 8000 times, and that his ſoul had ſucceſſively tranſmigrated through different animals.

They give out that Foë left behind him five grand commandments, viz. Never to deprive any creature whatever of its life; never to rob any man of his property; never to be guilty of unchaſtity; never to tell a lye; and never to drink wine.

The bonzes hold that there are places of rewards and puniſhments; and they preach up acts of benevolence to monaſteries, as peculiarly profitable to the ſoul in the next life; maintaining that ſuch pious deeds will abſolve from ſins; but that if they are omitted, the conſequence will be the moſt dreadful tortures, and the ſoul will paſs through the moſt diſgraceful metamorphoſes.

The idol Foë is worſhipped under different forms, moſt of them extremely hideous. He is repreſented principally by three figures: one is a gigantic man, with a monſtrous belly, ſitting croſs-legged, in the eaſtern taſte; this they ſtile the idol of immortality: the ſecond is about twenty feet high, and is called the idol of pleaſure: and the third about thirty feet high, with a crown on his head, and is denominated the great king Kan. Excluſive of theſe, they have a great number of little idols, not in their pagodas only, but in their houſes. All of them have their *los*, or houſehold gods. Theſe petit gods, however, are not treated with that reſpect which is ſhewn to their great gods; on the contrary, if they do not ſometimes grant them their requeſts, they give them the baſtinado. But the great gods in the temples have the moſt profound veneration paid them. People from diſtant places go in pilgrimage to ſome of the temples on the mountains, proſtrating themſelves repeatedly as they aſcend.

The mandarins, and others of the literati, profeſs to abominate the idol Foë; yet, in caſe of a drought, or other calamity, they invoke this deity, merely to pleaſe and ſatisfy the people.

There are ſome religions of leſſer note in China. When the Tartars became maſters of China, they introduced their own religion into the empire, which, though, for ſubſtance of doctrine, is the ſame with that of the worſhippers of Foë, yet, in point of mode of worſhip, is different. The Tartars have no prieſts of the order of bonzes, but prieſts of their own, named Lamas; and, inſtead of worſhipping the god Foë, they pay adoration to the Great Lama, or high prieſt, whom they denominate the Immortal Father, believing that he never dies; and the prieſts omit nothing that may give credit to the deceit; for when one Father happens to die, they immediately appoint another that reſembles him as nearly as poſſible.

The Great Lama reſides at Barantola, in Thibet, where he is never ſeen but by his favourites, except when he makes his appearance in the temple, to receive the offerings and adorations of the people. He then ſits upon a kind of throne, arrayed in fine robes. The throne is lighted only by a few lamps, which give ſo feeble a light, that there is no poſſibility of diſcerning plainly the features of the arch impoſtor. The farce is ſo admirably conducted, that no ſuſpicions are formed of it. The people abſolutely believe that the Great Lama is immortal.

As to the ſtate of Judaiſm in China, the Jews, who many ages ago inhabited a part of this country, have at this period a ſynagogue at Kai-fong-fou, the capital of Ho-nan. They were viſited in the year 1704 by P. Gozani, an Italian jeſuit, who held ſeveral conferences with them. They permitted him to ſee the innermoſt part of their ſynagogue, or *ſanctum ſanctorum*, reſerved only for the high-prieſt, who never enters but with the moſt profound reverence. They ſhewed him twelve little tabernacles or preſſes, in which were depoſited their ſacred books; and putting by one of the curtains, they took out a book written in beautiful characters, on long ſheets of parchment, rolled round ſeveral wooden rollers. This was their pentateuch, which, they ſaid, was moſt miraculouſly preſerved in the time of a great inundation that happened in 1643, when the whole city of Kai-fong-fou was laid under water; but as the leaves and characters had ſuſtained ſome injury from the wet, the chief officers of their ſynagogue had cauſed a dozen copies of it to be taken, and placed in the tabernacles.

Excluſive of the above manuſcripts, they had numbers of ſmall volumes in old cheſts, containing extracts from the pentateuch, and fragments of other ſacred books. However, they ſaid they had loſt ſeveral of their canonical books at the time of the above-mentioned inundation: nor did P. Gozani in the leaſt doubt the truth of this aſſertion: for they were acquainted with the names of Moſes, Joſhua, David, Solomon, Ezekiel, &c.

Gozani relates that, from an allowed tradition amongſt them, their anceſtors entered China under the dynaſty of Han, which commenced 206 years before Chriſt, and continued on the Chineſe throne 426 years: ſo that in this wide ſpace of time we muſt place the uncertain epocha of the firſt ſettlement of the Jews in this country.

The Jews of China adhere ſtedfaſtly to moſt of the ancient ceremonies enjoined by the laws of Moſes, as circumciſion, a ſtrict obſervance of their ſabbath, and of other feaſts, particularly that of unleavened bread. They eat the Paſchal Lamb. They never dreſs any proviſion on a Saturday, but prepare it the preceding evening. When they read the pentateuch in the ſynagogue, they cover their faces with a tranſparent veil, in memory of Moſes, who deſcended from the mountain with his face covered. They alſo abſtain from blood, cutting the veins of the animals they kill, that it may flow out.

There were once many families of them, but they are now greatly reduced. They keep cloſe together, and marry only among themſelves. They call the books of the pentateuch by the following names: Bereſhith, Veeleſmath, Vayiera, Vajedabber, and Habdabarim. Theſe five books they divide into fifty-three ſections, viz, Geneſis into twelve, Exodus into eleven, and the other three into ten each. Gozani, upon comparing their pentateuch with a bible he had carried with him, found an exact agreement between them with regard to chronology, as well as the age and genealogy of the patriarchs. In other reſpects, however, the text in their pentateuch was much corrupted.

Mahometans have inhabited here upwards of 600 years. They have conſiderable ſettlements in many of the provinces, particularly in Kiang-nan; and as they do not ſtudy to make proſelytes, nor give any cauſe of jealouſy to the ſtate, the government never diſturbs them.

Chriſtianity is ſaid to have been planted in China nearly as ſoon as the religion of Mahomet. It muſt be acknowledged, however, that it made not the ſame early progreſs. Some ſay that the Patriarch of the Indies ſent Chriſtian miſſionaries to China, in the period of the thirteenth dynaſty, in the eighth year of the reign of Tai-tſon, or about the middle of the ſeventh century of the Chriſtian æra; and that, for four years after

reign of Tai-tſou, or about the middle of the ſeventh century of the Chriſtian æra, and that four years after this, Tai-tſon ſuffered them to preach the goſpel in his country. They further ſay, that in the year 1625 there was found in the province of Chenſi, a ſtone tablet, ten feet long and five broad, containing the names of ſeventy miſſionaries who came from Judea to preach the goſpel to the Chineſe, together with a compendium of the Chriſtian faith, all cut in Syriac characters. It is a known fact, however, that towards the end of the ſixteenth century, when the European miſſionaries firſt ſet footing in China, they found no remains of Chriſtianity among them. P. Michael Roger, a Neapolitan jeſuit, firſt opened the miſſion in China, and led the way in which thoſe of his order that followed him have acquired ſo much reputation, by the teſtimonies they have given of their zeal. P. Michael Roger was ſucceeded by P. Ricci, of the ſame ſociety, who continued the work with ſuch ſucceſs, that he is conſidered by the jeſuits as the principal founder of this miſſion. He was a man of very extraordinary talents. He had the art of rendering himſelf agreeable to every body, and by that means acquired the public eſteem. He in ſome meaſure reconciled the ancient religion of the country to the firſt principles of theology, aſſuring the people that this moral ſyſtem was the ſame with that of their celebrated philoſopher Confucius. This ſecured him many followers. At length, in 1630, the Dominicans and Franciſcans took the field, though but as gleaners of the harveſt after the jeſuits; and now it was that contentions broke out. Their firſt diſputes, in which, perhaps, jealouſy had too great a ſhare, were on the ſubject of certain ceremonies concerning the worſhip of Confucius, and ſome honours paid to the dead: for as, in their funeral obſequies, they burnt incenſe, and practiſed libations, ſacrifices, and ſeveral other rites ſavouring of idolatry, theſe were condemned by one part of the miſſionaries, as incompatible with the purity of the Chriſtian faith. Others of the miſſionaries, of a more moderate temper, and who had little hope of raiſing up this infant plantation to maturity without ſuch indulgencies, were for tolerating theſe rites, looking on them as things of an indifferent nature, and mere political ceremonies. Theſe diſputes were a great hinderance to the progreſs of Chriſtianity, which flouriſhed before the arrival of the Dominican and Franciſcan monks. Several years were ſpent in altercation; and the literati, who poſſeſſed all the employments under government, were ſo obſtinately attached to Confucius, and the eſtabliſhed rites of their country, that no reaſonable condeſcenſions could ever prevail with them to abate any thing of their ſuperſtition; though even their monarch, Chang-hi, granted an edict in 1692, allowing Chriſtianity to be preached throughout the empire. Strenuous appeals were made to Rome by both parties of the contending miſſionaries. At length, in 1704, the *holy ſee* decreed, "That the words Tien and Chang-ti ſhould not any longer be applied to the Deity: that the tablets, whereon were inſcribed the word Kieng-tien, or, '*honour of heaven*,' ſhould be taken away from the Chriſtian churches: that the Chriſtians ſhould not aſſiſt at offerings made in ſpring and autumn to Confucius and their forefathers: that they ſhould omit to enter the temples erected to Confucius, and thenceforward pay no further adoration to their anceſtors: and, laſtly, that thoſe tablets of their forefathers, bearing the inſcription of '*the ſeat of the ſoul*,' ſhould be removed from every Chriſtian's habitation. This rigid decree was, however, ſoftened by a few privileges. The converts had the liberty of appearing in the halls of their anceſtors, and to be ſpectators of the rites there performed, but never by any means to participate. They had the further indulgence of hanging up the tablets of their anceſtors in their houſes, with this proviſo, that there ſhould be no other inſcription on the ſaid tablets, than ſimply the name of the deceaſed. But notwithſtanding theſe indulgencies, this decree of 1704, and a ſubſequent bull of Clement XI. in 1715, created the utmoſt confuſion. The miniſters of ſtate, and the other mandarins, ever jealous of the growing reputation of the jeſuits, were continually declaiming againſt them; and at length, by remonſtrances, obtained a revocation of an edict that had been paſſed in favour of the Chriſtian religion, by which means it fell under perſecution in the reign of the very monarch who tolerated it, Cang-hi, and was afterwards entirely ſuppreſſed by his ſucceſſor, Yong-tchin, when all the miſſionaries were baniſhed to Canton, and upwards of 300 churches either pulled to the ground, or converted to profane uſes. From the period of this fatal cataſtrophe, which happened in 1723, Chriſtianity was ſo far from gaining ground in China, that the profeſſors of it were perſecuted with the utmoſt rigour, till the month of February 1785, when the preſent emperor, Kien-lóng, was pleaſed to put a ſtop to it, and iſſue a decree, wherein he expreſſed a deſire that the miſſionaries might proceed peaceably, and without moleſtation.

SECTION XI.

Commerce with its ſeveral Appurtenances.

FROM the commodious ſituation of China, and the variety of its produce and manufactures, a judgement may be formed of the nature of its commerce. However, the traffic which they carry on from home is inconſiderable, compared to their inland trade; Canton, Emony, and Ning-po, being their only maritime towns of any note for exports and imports. Beſides, their navigation is very confined; for they never ſail beyond the Straits of Sunda; and their common voyages are to Japan, Siam, Manilla and Batavia.

They export to Japan ging-ſeng, china-root, rhubarb, ſilks, ſugars, ſweet-ſcented wood, leather, and European cloth; and import from thence pearls, red copper, both manufactured and in bars, ſabre-blades, porcelain, varniſh-ware, tambac, and gold. The tambac is a ſpecies of copper, with ſome mixture of gold and ſilver.

The Chineſe export to Manilla and Siam, tea, drugs, ſilks, &c. and receive piaſtres. A piaſtre is about the value of a crown.

Their commodities of export for Batavia, are chiefly green tea, porcelain, leaf-gold, medicinal drugs, and utenſils made of yellow copper. Their returns are in piaſtres, ſpices, tortoiſe-ſhells, ſnuff-boxes, agates, amber, Brazil wood, and European cloth.

This is the chief foreign traffic of the Chineſe. Sometimes they ſail to Achen, Malacca, Potana, Cochin-China, &c.

We ſhall here introduce the lateſt remarks with reſpect to the commerce of the Chineſe with the Engliſh.

The *compradore* comes along-ſide the ſhip every morning in a large ſampan, fitted up in a very compact manner for his articles of trade. He returns on ſhore every evening; the *hoppo*, or cuſtom-houſe officer, not permitting him to remain along-ſide all night. This is done to prevent ſmuggling, which is often practiſed when ging-ſeng or opium is in demand. It was obſerved upon one of theſe occaſions, that this compradore frequently brought on board bad beef, and the ſailors got no redreſs, until they cobbed him, a puniſhment they inflict on each other for ſlight offences. It is performed by placing the delinquent in a fixed poſition over a gun, having his arms and legs extended, ſo that he cannot move. They then get a flat piece of wood, which they apply pretty ſmartly to his poſteriors, until he promiſes never to be guilty of the like again. They were obliged to repeat the puniſhment; and, it is probable, if he had again offended in the like manner, they would have cut off his lock. A greater injury cannot be done to a Chinaman, than cutting off his long lock of hair, or even threatening to do it. This puniſhment of infamy they inflict only on thieves.

Every ſhip has a bankſall, or temporary ſtore-houſe. Theſe bankſalls ſtand upon a ſmall iſland, having no

connections with any other place. They are built up with bamboos and mats ſo ſlightly, that they are eaſily broke through, and this frequently happens; though a watch is, or ſhould be, kept in each.

A grand mandarin comes on board, to meaſure the length of every ſhip, but takes no account of the breadth. It is ſuppoſed that the ſecurity-merchant pays a duty accordingly to the hoppo, or receiver-general of the cuſtoms. Theſe ſecurity-merchants are people who are very rich, and the mandarins make them accountable for all duties, and for all depredations committed by the ſhip's company while at Whampoa. They are nominated againſt their will by the hoppo, who is viceroy at Canton. Sometimes the ſecurity-merchant buys all the private trade belonging to the ſhip. Two are appointed to this office. If a mandarin ſees any thing that ſtrikes his fancy, he will order the ſecurity-merchant to purchaſe it, which he muſt have at any expence. Very often the ſecurity-merchants are under the neceſſity of making a preſent of it to the mandarin.

The captain and all the officers attend when the ſhip is meaſured, to receive the mandarin, &c. He is generally regaled with ſweet-meats, and Madeira wine mixed with ſugar. Sometimes the hoppo comes himſelf, but this is ſeldom.

Our articles of commerce are ſcarlet cloth, lead, cryſtal and glaſſes of all kinds, watches, clocks, &c. for which we receive in return, teas, raw ſilk, varniſh, china wares, &c. but ſince the Europeans have learned to imitate the two laſt manufactures, they have of courſe ſunk in their value. There is no trading to China with advantage except in ſilver, for the purchaſe of their ingots of gold. The principal, or, indeed, the only ſtaple for European commodities, is the city of Canton. No other port in China is ſuffered to be open to us.

Copper and ſilver are their only current metals. Gold paſſes in trade as a commodity. The only metal that is ſtamped with any character is copper. They do not impreſs it with the head or image of the emperor; for it would be a diſhonour to a great perſonage, for any repreſentation of him to paſs through common hands: but they give it different inſcriptions, pompouſly ſetting forth the titles, or name of the imperial family.

SECTION XII.

CONCISE HISTORY OF CHINA.

THE learned in general admit of the antiquity of the Chineſe nation, though none have been able to aſcertain the firſt period of their chronology. From the beſt of their own accounts that can be obtained, it ſeems that its real commencement bears date in the reign of Lye-vang, which anſwers to the year 434 before Chriſt; previous to which, the writers of the grand chronicle of China ingenuouſly acknowledge that their chronologies are not to be depended upon; nor do their memoirs go any farther back.

With reſpect to the European writers, M. Fouquet allows the Chineſe nation to be near as old as the deluge. M. Tournefort, and others, give it as their opinion, that the Chineſe have been a nation near 4000 years.

"Under the reign of the emperor Yu (ſays P. Du Halde) which they place above 2000 years before Chriſt, they diſcovered a large track of territory to the ſouth, partly deſtitute of inhabitants. This large extent of country was peopled by Yu and his ſucceſſors at different periods, under the controul of princes of the blood, to whom they portioned out this new country, reſerving to themſelves only ſome acknowledgment. Thus were formed ſeveral little tributary kingdoms, which being afterwards united to the empire, rendered it very conſiderable. During the reign of Yu, the monarchy was divided into nine provinces, a particular delineation of which this emperor cauſed to be engraved on nine brazen veſſels. In the year 2037, before Chriſt, ſeveral nations ſent ambaſſadors to China, and ſubmitted voluntarily to a yearly tribute. Towards the end of the ſecond dynaſty (or race of emperors) about 1200 years before Chriſt, certain Chineſe colonies extended themſelves to the eaſtern coaſt, and alſo took poſſeſſion of ſeveral iſlands. Under the fifth dynaſty, which commenced about 200 years before Chriſt, the Chineſe not only enlarged their borders to the north, after many ſignal victories obtained over the Tartars, but puſhed their conqueſts even to the confines of India, viz. to Pegu, Siam, Camboya, and Bengal. About 600 years after Chriſt, Kao-tſou-venti, founder of the twelfth dynaſty, added to the empire ſeveral of the northern provinces, ſituated beyond the river Yang-tſe-kiang, and which at that time compoſed a particular kingdom ſubject to the Tartars. This went by the name of the northern empire for ſeveral ages. Laſtly, the revolution which happened in 1644, when China was conquered by the Tartars, only ſerved to increaſe the power and extent of this great empire, by joining to its former poſſeſſions, a conſiderable part of Great Tartary. Thus this vaſt monarchy attained to the ſummit of its greatneſs by a gradual progreſs, not ſo much in the way of conqueſt like other empires, as by the wiſdom of its laws, and the reputation of its government."

The Chineſe empire has been ſucceſſively governed by twenty-two imperial families. The order of the dynaſties commenced with the family of Hia, the firſt of whom was diſtinguiſhed by the title of Yu.

Near 2000 years in the annals of China are filled up by the three firſt dynaſties, or families on the imperial throne; whilſt the reigns of the ſucceeding monarchs ſcarce meaſure an equal ſpace of time. The hiſtory of the monarchy of thoſe three firſt dynaſties (and indeed the fourth) preſents nothing to the view that can tend to their own honour, or the intereſt of the empire; exhibiting ſcenes of cruelty, debauchery, tyranny, and rapine.

The fifth dynaſtry, which laſted 426 years, produced many monarchs of reſpectable characters: but the conduct of the laſt of this race excited inteſtine commotions, and cauſed a diviſion of the empire into four parts, under four diſtinct ſovereigns; but they were re-united under the founder of the ſixth dynaſty, who reigned with honour to himſelf three years, and left a ſon that terminated it with diſgrace. The monarchs of the ſeventh race, or dynaſty, are repreſented as totally diſqualified by birth and abilities for their elevated ſtation.

The Chineſe annals of the five ſucceeding dynaſties preſent a ſucceſſion of weak princes, whoſe reigns were in general attended with revolutions, rapine, and deſtruction.

The bleſſings of peace were reſtored and enjoyed under the firſt emperor of the thirteenth dynaſty, and maintained under that of his ſon and ſucceſſors; till the tranquillity of the nation was diſturbed under the ſixth, after which commotions prevailed to the cloſe. It ſeems that the cauſe of theſe diſturbances aroſe from unlimited exerciſe of regal juriſdiction committed by the monarchs to their eunuchs.

In the fourteenth and four following dynaſties, no leſs than thirteen monarchs ſwayed the imperial ſceptre, moſt of whom ſuffered violent deaths.

The Tartars who inhabited Leo-tong, one of the moſt northern provinces of China, during theſe laſt dynaſties, began to render themſelves powerful. This province was ceded to them by the laſt emperors of the thirteenth race: and Kao-tſou, head of the ſixteenth, who was indebted to them for his advancement to the throne, gave up to them ſixteen more towns in the province of Pe-tche-li, excluſive of a tribute of 300,000, pieces of ſilk. Theſe ſhameful compliances increaſed their power and pride, and were productive of wars for 400 years, which nearly deſolated the empire.

The Chineſe under the nineteenth dynaſty, called to their aſſiſtance the Niu-tche, or Eaſtern Tartars, in conjunction with whom they drove the Northern Tartars from a country which they had poſſeſſed upwards of

two

two centuries. The Chineſe, however, were obliged to pay dearly for the aid of their allies, who not only conſtrained them to cede Leao-tong, by way of compenſation, but alſo took poſſeſſion of Pe-tche-li, Chen-ſi, and Ho-nan: and they ſome years afterwards invaded the very heart of the empire, took Nan-king, the capital, burnt the royal palace to the ground, and forced the Chineſe to accept of the moſt diſhonourable terms of pacification.

The twentieth dynaſty took the name of Yven, and had for its founder Chi-tſou, fourth ſon of Tai-tſou, in whom commenced the third (or Weſtern) Tartar uſurpation. The Yven family gave nine emperors to China; the former of whom, by their prudent adminiſtration, won the hearts of their ſubjects: but the ſucceeding monarchs, indulging in a life of indolence, luxury, and diſſipation, perceived themſelves excelled in the uſe of arms and natural courage, by the very people whom they had conquered, who, poſſeſſing the moſt lively ſentiments of freedom, and deſpiſing their diſſipated victors, wreſted conqueſt from their hands, and drove them back to their native country. This dynaſty, which laſted only eighty-nine years, became extinct in the perſon of Chun-ti, a very worthleſs monarch, who was addicted to a variety of vices.

The twenty-firſt dynaſty, of which Tai-tſou was founder, ſubſiſted 276 years. The commotions that happened under this family produced gradually that grand revolution which a ſecond time placed a Tartarian family on the throne of China. The following is a brief narrative of this memorable event.

The Tartars being expelled the empire, and having retreated into their ancient country, bordering upon Leao-tong, it happened that their merchants trading in that place received ſome indignity from the merchants of China, and exhibited a complaint to the mandarins, who, inſtead of attending to the ſame, augmented the grievance, by craftily drawing their prince into an ambuſcade, and ſevering his head from his ſhoulders.

The Tartars, incenſed at this act of cruelty and perfidy, marched a numerous army into the very heart of Leao-tong, commanded by Tien-ming, ſon of their murdered prince, who ſubdued Leao-tong and Pe-tche-li, but was ſoon obliged to abandon thoſe provinces, which were, however, with the reſt of the Chineſe empire, reſerved for his grandſon, Tſong-te, but who was cut off by ſudden death, in the moment of his great view of ſovereignty. He had been brought up and educated in China, was maſter of the Chineſe tongue, and perfectly acquainted with the diſpoſition and genius of the people.

The empire was at this period very critically ſituated: the war with the Niu-tche Tartars continued, and, as an addition to this national calamity, there was a great famine in the land. The then reigning monarch, too, Hoai-tſong, was a man of mean abilities, ſuffering himſelf to be directed in every thing by his miniſters and eunuchs, who greatly oppreſſed the people. A revolt was the conſequence; and, in a ſhort ſpace of time, there were eight different factions under the ſame number of chiefs. Theſe were, however, afterwards reduced to two, and at length to one, headed by a commander named Li, who, invading and poſſeſſing himſelf of the provinces of Ho-nan and Chen-ſi, ſtiled himſelf emperor of China.

This uſurper committed the moſt dreadful ravages. In his attack of Cuif-ong, the capital of Ho-nan, that town was laid under water by a ſudden breaking down of the dykes of the Yellow River, and 300,000 perſons periſhed in the inundation. He afterwards marched to Pe-king at the head of 300,000 troops and entered the city without the leaſt oppoſition; for he had privately conveyed into the city a number of his people in diſguiſe, who threw open the gates to him: and ſuch was the ſupineneſs of Hoai-tſong, the emperor, that he knew nothing of this circumſtance, till the uſurper had laid the whole city under his ſubjection. However, as ſoon as he heard the news, he marched from his palace at the head of 600 of his guards, who treacherouſly abandoned him. Thus ſituated, he flew into the gardens of his palace with his daughter, whoſe head he cut off, and then hung himſelf upon a tree. His wives, his prime miniſter, and ſome of his eunuchs, alſo deſtroyed themſelves.

The news of this melancholy event ſoon reached the army, then making war in Tartary, under the command of a general named Ou-ſang-guey, who refuſed to acknowledge Li as his ſovereign; whereupon the latter put himſelf at the head of his numerous army, for the purpoſe of giving him battle. Ou-ſang-guey ſhut himſelf up in a ſtrong fortified town. Thither Li marched his troops, and having taken captive the father of Ou-ſang-guey, ordered him to be loaded with irons, and placed at the foot of the town wall, ſending word to his ſon at the ſame time, that if he did not immediately ſurrender, his father's throat ſhould be cut from ear to ear. The father found means to ſend a meſſage to his ſon, begging him to ſurrender. The ſon ſacrificed his filiale fteem to the intereſts of his country, and the old man was moſt cruelly put to death.

Ou-ſang-guey, naturally inflamed with rage, concluded a peace with the Niu-tche Tartars, and engaged them to enter into an alliance with him againſt Li, whoſe ſuperior force it was totally impoſſible for him to reſiſt.

Tſong-te, the king of the Tartars, very readily came to his aſſiſtance at the head of 80,000 warriors, forced the uſurper to raiſe the ſiege, purſued him even to Pe-king, and ſo totally routed his army, that he was forced to fly into the province of Chen-ſi, where he ſpent the remainder of his days in obſcurity. Tſong-te being thus ſucceſsful, the people idolized him as their deliverer; and he beſtowed ſeveral diſtinguiſhed honours upon the faithful Ou-ſang-guey. The latter, however, ſoon had cauſe to repent his having leagued himſelf with ſo great and powerful a prince; for Tſong-te was no ſooner arrived at Pe-king, than he began to think of improving the ſucceſs of his arms, and the favourable diſpoſition of the people, (with whom, as hath been obſerved, he had been brought up and educated,) into the means of his advancement to the throne of China; but being ſeized with an illneſs that ſpeedily brought on his diſſolution, all that he could do was to declare his ſon emperor, who was only about ſix years of age. This election was confirmed by the grandees and people, who, in conſideration of the ſignal ſervices done by the father, connived at the tender age of the child, who took the name of Chun-ci, and is conſidered as the founder of the twenty-ſecond dynaſty. Kien-long, one of his deſcendants, now fills the imperial throne of China.

This revolution happened in the year 1644, uniting a conſiderable part of Great Tartary to the Chineſe empire: and ſince the union, the Tartars ſeem rather to have ſubmitted to the laws of the Chineſe, than to have impoſed any upon them. In fact, the latter may be ſaid to be as great gainers by it as the Tartars themſelves. China ſtill holds the ſeat of empire, and has the ſupreme courts of juſtice. Thither flows all the opulence of the united kingdoms, and all honours are conferred there. Both nations, ſo oppoſite in genius and character, have each been conſiderably benefited by the incorporation. The fierce ſpirit of the Tartar has given a ſpark of martial fire to the peaceful temper of the Chineſe, while the arts and commerce of the latter have humanized and ſoftened the ſavage roughneſs of the former. China having acquired great additional ſtrength by her union with Tartary has now no enemy to dread. Never were the opulence, power, grandeur, and glory of the Chineſe empire greater than at preſent. At home it hath all the bleſſings of peace, and abroad it is reſpected. It hath enjoyed a perfect tranquillity for upwards of ſeventy years, and is unrivalled by all other nations for its public works of art, having 32 royal palaces, 272 grand libraries, 709 halls, 1159 triumphal arches, 331 beautiful bridges, and 681 various tombs.

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The next memorable event in the annals of China happened in the year 1771, when a nation of the Tartars left their ſettlements under the Ruſſian government on the banks of the Wolga and the Jack, near the Caſpian Sea, and, in a vaſt body of many thouſand families, paſſed through the country of the Haſacks, and, after a march of eight months, in which they ſurmounted innumerable difficulties and dangers, they arrived in the plains that lie on the frontiers of Carapan, and offered themſelves as ſubjects to Kien-long, the preſent emperor of China, who was then in the 36th year of his reign. He received them graciouſly, furniſhed them with proviſions, cloaths and money, and allotted to each family a portion of land, for agriculture and paſturage. There happened the year following a ſecond emigration of ſeveral thouſand other Tartar families, who alſo quitted their ſettlements under the Ruſſian government, and ſubmitted to the Chineſe ſceptre. The emperor cauſed the hiſtory of theſe emigrations to be engraven upon ſtone, in four different languages.

As a tribute due to the very ſingular liberality of the emperor Kien-long, as well as a moſt intereſting and recent circumſtance of the Chineſe hiſtory, we preſent our readers with the following account of the feaſt given by him to the ancients, on the 14th of February, 1785; tranſlated from the Memoirs of the French Miſſionaries.

"This imperial feaſt, which Kien-long gave to the ancients, is one of thoſe events which will make an epoch in the empire. Kang-hi, his uncle, ſet the example, who, mounting the throne very young, celebrated the ſixtieth year of his reign in 1722. Kien-long celebrated the fiftieth year of his reign, and ſixty-fifth of his age, on this day. At the end of 1784, he ſolemnly announced his intentions, and made a number of promotions among the mandarins, profeſſors of the arts, belles lettres, and military. He likewiſe exempted all the people from taxes that year, and repealed for ever thoſe which bore hard on them. He ordered diſtributions of rice, and pieces of ſilk or ſtuff, to be given to every poor perſon throughout the empire, who had attained the age of ſixty years. Thoſe who were one hundred had fifty buſhels of rice and two pieces of ſilk; one of the firſt, the other of the ſecond quality. Thoſe who had attained ninety years, received thirty buſhels of rice and two pieces of ſilk, of an inferior quality. Thoſe who were leſs than ſixty, and exceeding fifty, had five buſhels of rice and one piece of ſilk. Every other perſon had rice and ſilk in proportion to their ages, reckoning by ten years.

"This grand and ſolemn feaſt was held at the city of Pe-king, on the 14th of February, in the year 1785, and gave great ſatisfaction to thoſe for whom it was made.

"Three thouſand aged men of quality (which number M. Amiot, who relates this hiſtory, ſaw at the palace, and who were invited by the emperor) being aſſembled, the emperor, who choſe to do the honours of the table, took his place at the head. The only diſtinction made was the elevation of his throne about a foot higher than the other ſeats, ſolely, as he declared, for the purpoſe of ſeeing that every thing was right, as the tables were ſerved in all parts equal, where the gueſts were diſtributed four and four. At others were the princes of the blood, the nobility, and the mandarins. At a circular table ſat the emperor's family, to ſee that nothing was wanting by thoſe ancient gueſts, and to exhort them to partake of the repaſt with ſatisfaction, which their good maſter had invited them to. A numerous band of muſic played during the time, which was followed by a ballet, repreſented by the comedians of the court; and, at the end, the vocal performers chanted a hymn in honour of Tien, to return thanks for this particular day. The emperor then retired, and his miniſters diſtributed to each of the company a preſent, with a wiſh written thereon by the emperor, 'That each might enjoy long life, and what they wiſhed:' alſo a piece in verſe, which he had compoſed for the occaſion, and which was nearly as follows. The title of the piece is, 'To the venerable Ancients invited to the Solemn Feaſt, to rejoice with me, in memory of what was done before by my auguſt Uncle.'

'The bleſſings which I have received from heaven, are without number: it is impoſſible for me to reckon them: but I cannot avoid expreſſing the peculiar happineſs I feel in having renewed this day, which has cauſed the moſt pleaſing emotion in my heart, and which I ſhall ever call in pleaſure to my memory, as having ſeen my princes and my people take their place by the ſide of their maſter, ſerving, and to be ſerved, equally upon the ſame footing, without any diſtiction of rank, being equally happy as an aſſembly of friends, with the ſame motives of joy and gladneſs. This is the ſecond time, by the ſpecial favour of God, that I have enjoyed the ſame ſight, with the ſame feeling of heart. Our deſcendants will, no doubt, be penetrated with ſentiments of the moſt tender veneration, when they read in hiſtory, that two emperors of my auguſt race, have celebrated, the one his ſixtieth, and the other his fiftieth year of their reign; rejoicing, as in a family repaſt, with the whole empire, repreſented by the Choſen of its aged people.'

CHAP. XI.

TONQUIN.

SECTION I.

Boundaries, Extent, and Situation. Climate, Soil, and Produce. Diviſion of the Country, with the Manners and Cuſtoms of the Inhabitants.

THE kingdom of Tonquin is bounded on the eaſt and north by the empire of China; on the weſt by the two ſmall kingdom of Laos and Bowes, bordering on Siam; and on the ſouth and ſouth-eaſt, by Cochin-China. It is about 500 miles in length, and 400 miles in the broadeſt part; and is divided into eight provinces, viz eaſt, weſt, north, and ſouth provinces, Tenay, Tenhoa, Ngeam, and the province of Cachao. It lies on the ſide of a gulph, thirty leagues acroſs in the wideſt part, at the extremity of which are ſeveral ſmall iſlands.

This country being ſituated under the tropic, the weather is extremely variable. However, their two chief diſtinctions, with reſpect to this, are thoſe of the dry and rainy ſeaſons; the former of which is the moſt agreeable, and continues from September to March; during which time the north wind blows without intermiſſion, and the air is healthful, except in January and February, when the weather is frequently very ſevere. The rainy ſeaſon begins in April, and ends in Auguſt, the ſouth wind blowing all the time. The three firſt months of this ſeaſon are very unhealthy. During the months of June, July, and Auguſt, the heat is very intenſe: nevertheleſs, the country, at this time, has a moſt pleaſing and beautiful appearance: the trees are loaded with fruit, and the plains covered with a rich harveſt. However, as the land moſtly lies low, particularly near the ſea, it is ſubject to frequent inundations, by which the natives are ſometimes great ſufferers.

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In this kingdom there are great numbers of canals; and as rice is the chief food of the natives, ſo the huſbandry of it is the peaſant's whole employ, and it generally rewards his toil with two crops annually.

Their oranges are ſaid to excel all others in the eaſt, for richneſs of flavour: and here are guavas, ananas, arekas, papays, &c. as well as various kinds of flowers, among which are very beautiful lilies and jeſſamins, though the Tonquineſe diſcover not much taſte for this elegant entertainment of nature. Indeed, the ladies here have great eſteem for one particular flower, which retains a very fragrant ſmell even for fifteen days after it is gathered. With this flower they decorate their perſons, when in their beſt and gayeſt apparel.

Though Tonquin affords no mines of gold or ſilver, there are iron and lead mines in abundance. Silkworms are alſo here in ſuch plenty, that ſilk is almoſt as cheap as cotton. Sugar-canes likewiſe thrive well in this country: and they have a ſort of tea which they call Chia-bang, the leaves of which they boil; as alſo another kind called Chia-way, the leaf of which is not fit for any uſe; but the flower, when dried before the fire, makes a very agreeable liquor by infuſion, as the other does by decoction.

Cacho is the metropolis, the reſidence of the chova, or king. But this city has no remarkable buildings, except the royal palace, which ſtands in the centre of it. This is a ſpacious edifice, encompaſſed by a wall, within the precinct of which are ſeveral buildings, two ſtories high, with gates and fronts in a ſuperb ſtate. The chova's apartments, and thoſe of his concubines, are grandly decorated with gilding and varniſh work; and behind the palace are large, handſome gardens.

The houſes of private people in this city, are of wood and earth, and chiefly of one ſtory. Thoſe of foreign merchants only are built of brick.

The natives of Tonquin are of a middle ſize, and pretty well proportioned. They are of a tawny complexion, bordering upon yellow. Their hair is black, thick, and long, falling in waves upon their ſhoulders, Their teeth are white as ſnow, till they colour them black, uſing for this purpoſe a corroſive compoſition. They much reſemble the Chineſe, and, like them, have great natural politeneſs, without being altogether ſuch ſlaves to ceremony. They are ſuperſtitious, inconſtant, and intemperate. Their proviſions are dreſſed and ſerved up in an elegant taſte; and they perfume both their tables and their diſhes. Their uſual fare conſiſts of rice, dreſſed various ways, eggs, pulſe, roots, fowl, fiſh, buffalo, pork, beef, kid, and frogs. They have neither table-cloths or napkins; and, inſtead of forks, uſe ivory ſticks, as the Chineſe do, and eat much in the ſame manner. The food of the common people is rice, dried fiſh, and pulſe; and tea is their uſual drink: but the higher claſſes mix arrack with their tea, and often become intoxicated with it. The grandees have halls in their houſes, for the entertainment of ſinging and dancing in the evenings: and, indeed, every villa hath its houſes of mirth or jollity, where the people aſſemble, eſpecially on their feſtivals, and cauſe plays to be acted. The actors are generally about half a dozen in number; and the dances are performed by the women, who ſing at the ſame time. A merry-andrew too appears, exciting the laughter of the ſpectators by his drollery and humour. They have ſeveral kinds of muſical inſtruments, ſuch as kettle-drums, trumpets, fiddles, guitars, and hautboys.

A great number of feſtivals are obſerved in this kingdom: two of them are kept with more than ordinary ſolemnity. The firſt is held at the beginning of the year, which, at Tonquin, commences with the new moon neareſt to the end of January and ſometimes three or four days ſooner. This feaſt laſts about twelve days: but the firſt day is rather a day of lamentation than of rejoicing; for they then ſhut up their habitation, and keep within doors, for fear, as they pretend, of meeting with ſome unlucky object in the ſtreet, which might prove to them an omen of ill fortune in the courſe of the enſuing year. On the day following they begin their feſtivity, when booths and ſtages are erected in the ſtreets, in which are repreſented different kinds of ſhews. Nothing is heard but the ſound of muſical inſtruments, and the wild uproar of riot and licentiouſneſs. The ſecond grand feſtival is kept with the ſame kind of mad merriment, in the ſixth moon: and excluſive of theſe, they obſerve two monthly feaſts, in which religion has ſome ſhare; it being cuſtomary at theſe feaſts, to ſacrifice to their anceſtors, by oblations of proviſions at their tombs. Another ſolemn feaſt is what they call Can-ja, on which their king gives his public benediction to the country, and ploughs two or three furrows with his own hands, which cuſtom the princes of Tonquin have undoubtedly borrowed from the Chineſe emperors. The natives practiſe faſting and prayers, by way of preparation for this feſtival.

SECTION II.

Marriages, Sciences, Language, Manufactures, Commerce, Religion, and Funeral Ceremonies.

THE law of Tonquin, as well as of China, forbids young people to marry without the conſent of their parents; and females are ſeldom diſpoſed of in marriage before the age of ſixteen. When a young man ſeeks a maiden, he firſt applies to the father, and makes him a preſent. After the articles are agreed upon, the man ſends to the houſe of the young woman ſuch preſents as have been ſtipulated; and on the wedding day, the father of both families, accompanied by their friends, conduct the bride to the bridegroom's houſe, where the ceremony is performed in great form. There is no wedding without a feaſt, which holds three or more days.

Though the men have the privilege of marrying ſeveral wives, only one takes the title of wife. The men are ſuffered to divorce their wives whenever they pleaſe, but the women cannot divorce themſelves without the conſent of their huſbands. However, when they are thus put away by their huſbands, they have the privilege of taking with them, not only the effects which they brought, but likewiſe the preſents made to them previous to marriage; and if there be any children, theſe are left with the father to maintain. On this account very few divorces happen.

A woman convicted of adultery is condemned to be trampled to death by an elephant. The adulterer is alſo ſentenced to die, but not to ſuffer ſo ſevere a death.

Theſe people are indebted to the Chineſe for the greateſt part of their arts and ſciences. They are little ſkilled in the mathematics or aſtronomy; nor have they any public ſchools, the children being privately educated at home by their parents. The art of medicine here is principally confined to the knowledge of ſimples; and the phyſicians pretend to be as ſkilful as thoſe of China, with regard to the pulſe. They judge of the cauſe, ſeat, and quality of the diſtemper, by the number of pulſes in one reſpiration. Their ſurgery is confined to the uſe of cauſtics and cupping, which they practiſe in moſt diſorders, uſing gourds and calabaſhes, in the latter, inſtead of glaſſes. The fever, dyſentery, and ſmall-pox, are the moſt common maladies the people of this country are ſubject to, which they in general treat pretty ſucceſsfully, by means of certain drinks, and prudent regimen. They preſcribe tea, as hot as it can poſſibly be drank, for the head-ach.

The Tonquineſe language abounds with monoſyllables: one word, in ſome inſtances, ſignifies eleven or twelve different things; the preciſe ſenſe of which, in converſation, is only diſtinguiſhed by the different inflection and modification of the voice.

Here are good manufactures of ſilk, potters ware, and paper. Their varniſhed commodities are in good eſtimation. They work well in wood and iron, underſtand the art of foundry, and know how to caſt cannon: but notwithſtanding this their ingenuity, they make but

little advantage of it through want of genius for traffic. Their chief trade is with the Dutch and Chineſe, who buy up their ſilk, both raw and in thread: and they alſo ſell large quantities of their wrought ſilk to the Engliſh. The articles chiefly imported into Tonquin are ſalt-petre, ſulphur, Engliſh broad-cloth, &c. The traders are ſaid to be fairer dealers than the Chineſe.

Theſe people have no coinage of their own, but make uſe of foreign coin, and particularly copper money, which they have from China.

The Tonquineſe profeſs two ſyſtems of religion, both received from their neighbours the Chineſe. The one is that of Confucius, the ſubſtance of which, as held by them, conſiſts in an inward devotion, or obſervance of ſome ſecret rites in honour of the dead, and in the practiſe of moral virtues. The profeſſors of this ſyſtem have neither prieſts, temples, or any fixed mode of public worſhip, every one paying his adorations to the Deity, in what form he thinks proper. They pay a kind of adoration to ſome ſpirits, as the vicegerents of the ſupreme governor of all things. Some believe that the ſouls of perſons are immortal, and that there is a future ſtate of rewards and puniſhments. Others, however, aſſign immortality only to the ſouls of the righteous. The religion of moſt of the common people is that of Foë, who worſhip many idols; and, indeed, theſe have their temples and their prieſts, who lead a very auſtere life, and ſubſiſt chiefly on alms. They reſide in mean huts near the temples, to offer up the petitions of the people, as occaſionally brought to them, which they read aloud to their idols, and then burn them in an incenſe pot, the petitioners being all the time proſtrate on the ground. The religion of Foë is divided into many ſects. The moſt conſiderable is that of Lanzo, whoſe followers profeſs magic: they pretend to the prediction of future events, and are divided into different claſſes.

The Tonquineſe dreſs their dead in their richeſt apparel, and put ſmall pieces of gold or ſilver, together with pearls, into the mouths of the rich, and into thoſe of the poor are put little copper pieces, and other baubles. They do this from a ſuppoſition that they hereby ſecure the dead from poverty in the other world, and themſelves from being haunted by them. There is great emulation among the opulent in providing fine coffins for themſelves. In framing theſe coffins they make no uſe of nails, as this would have the appearance of laying a conſtraint on the deceaſed, but only cement the boards together. The corpſe is conveyed to the place of burial with great funeral pomp, the ſons of the deceaſed attending, cloathed in robes of grey cloth, and ſupporting themſelves with a ſtaff, as if ready to drop to the ground with immoderate grief. The wives and daughters follow, robed in grey, and crying moſt bitterly and loudly. The eldeſt ſon, during the proceſſion, proſtrates himſelf ſeveral times before the coffin, and ſometimes thumps upon the lid of it, as if to awake his father from the ſleep of death. The reſt of the funeral ſolemnities of theſe people differ very little from thoſe of the Chineſe, and their mourning habiliments are exactly the ſame.

SECTION III.

Origin, Sovereign, Government, Laws, Military and Naval Armament of the People of Tonquin.

AS theſe people were ſome ages unacquainted with the art of writing, matters relating to the foundation of their government are buried in obſcurity. One of the firſt kings mentioned in their hiſtory was Ding, ſaid to have reigned 200 years before Chriſt, and to have been raiſed to the throne by a troop of banditti. He, however, reigned with ſuch oppreſſion, that his ſubjects revolted, and murdered him. This revolution and murder were followed by long wars, which at length terminated in the election of a king, named Le-day-han, in whoſe reign the Chineſe invaded and over-run the kingdom. This, prince, however, defended himſelf with the greateſt bravery, and defeated them ſeveral times, but could not drive them out of the country. Upon the death of Le-day-han, Li-balvie was placed on the throne, who vanquiſhed, and totally drove the Chineſe from his territories. The poſterity of this prince enjoyed a tranquil reign for ſeveral generations; and the laſt king of this family leaving behind him but one daughter, this princeſs ſhared the throne with a nobleman whom ſhe eſpouſed; but another grandee, named Ho, conſpired againſt the queen, ſubdued her huſband in battle, put both of them to death, and took poſſeſſion of the crown; which treachery and cruelty occaſioned a revolt of the people, who applied to the Chineſe for aid, and occaſioned their entrance into the kingdom with a numerous army, which drove away the tyrant, and, as a reward for their ſervices, took poſſeſſion of the government themſelves, forcing the Tonquineſe to except of a viceroy from China, who changed the form of the conſtitution, and introduced the Chineſe laws and cuſtoms.

However, the Tonquineſe, in proceſs of time, headed by a man of a moſt intrepid ſpirit, named Li, took up arms againſt the Chineſe, put them all to the ſword, and compelled the emperor to aſſent to a diſhonourable peace. Li was crowned king of Tonquin; and all that the Chineſe were able to obtain was, that the kings of Tonquin ſhould hold the crown in fealty under the emperor of China, and pay them a triennial tribute. This treaty was concluded about the year 1200 of the Chriſtian æra, and both nations have faithfully obſerved the articles of it ever ſince. The Tonquineſe ſend ambaſſadors to Pe-king every three years with their tribute, who do homage to the emperor: and the latter alſo ſends his ambaſſadors to Tonquin, who behave with the utmoſt haughtineſs; inſomuch, that when the king has occaſion to treat with them on any important matters, he is obliged to wait upon them, inſtead of their attending upon him. Nor can a prince of Tonquin aſcend the throne of his anceſtors, without a confirmation from the hand of the emperor of China.

The deſcendants of Li ſat upon the throne for two centuries, after which enſued many revolutions. About the year 1400 of the Chriſtian æra, a ſimple fiſherman, named Mack, uſurped the crown, but was depoſed by Tring, another uſurper, who covered his uſurpation with the pretence of reſtoring the family of Li to the throne, and accordingly cauſed a young prince of that houſe to be crowned; but whilſt he beſtowed on the prince the title, he reſerved to himſelf the regal power, under the name of chova, or general of the realm.

Tring had a brother-in-law, whoſe name was Hoaving, ſon of a governor of the province of Tingwa, to whom Tring lay under ſome particular obligations; for this governor had not only been greatly his friend, in aſſiſting him in an enterprize with the troops of his province, but likewiſe diſpoſed of his daughter to him in wedlock; and moreover, on his death-bed, committed to him the guardianſhip of his only ſon, who was this Hoaving above-mentioned. Hoaving reflected with great concern on the conduct of his brother-in-law and guardian, in having employed his father's forces to ſet any other than himſelf (Hoaving) on the throne of Tonquin, and conceived on the occaſion ſuch a ſpirit of reſentment, that he not only refuſed to do homage to the new king, but openly took up arms, poſſeſſed himſelf of Cochin-China, an ancient province of Tonquin, and, after the example of his brother-in-law, cauſed himſelf to be proclaimed chova at the head of his army. Theſe two generals governed with abſolute authority, the one in Tonquin, and the other in Cochin-China, and waged war with each other as long as they lived, with ſucceſs nearly equal on both ſides. They tranſmitted the title of chova to their ſucceſſors, and their deſcendants enjoy it at this preſent period of time in both kingdoms. But we ſhall here confine ourſelves to the chova of Tonquin, where, indeed, are, at preſent, two ſupreme magiſtrates or ſovereigns, the one titular, the

the other real: the former has the name of bova; but in the chova are veſted all the powers of government, The authority of the bova conſiſts principally in giving the form of ratification to the decrees of the chova. The dignity of the latter is hereditary, and his eldeſt ſon ſucceeds him; but the ſucceſſion of bovas is uncertain; for when a bova leaves ſeveral ſons, the chova chooſes which of them he pleaſes, and may even raiſe a collateral branch to the dignity.

Every province in the kingdom of Tonquin has its particular governor, and each governor has a mandarin for his lieutenant, who has the care of adminiſtering juſtice, and of ſeeing that the laws are properly obſerved; which, indeed, are the Chineſe laws, as introduced amongſt them in the twelfth century. Nevertheleſs, ſome of the courts of judicature in Tonquin are ſo corrupt, that there are few offences for which money will not ſecure the culprit from puniſhment.

The army of the king of Tonquin conſiſts of 150,000 men, excluſive of 10,000 horſe. The ſoldiers are picked men out of the different villages; and it is the chief pride of the officers to have the firelocks of the men neat and bright. They are ſo nice in this reſpect, that if the arms become ruſty, they ſtop a week's pay of the ſoldier's wages for the firſt offence, and for the ſecond inflict corporal puniſhment. When the army marches, the generals, and other principal officers, ride upon elephants.

The Tonquineſe are by no means good ſoldiers, and this may in a great meaſure be aſcribed to the effeminacy of their officers, to the want of military encouragement, to the influence of money, and to the favour of the great.

The naval force of Tonquin conſiſts of a conſiderable number of gallies, barks, and boats, but theſe are better calculated for coaſting on the ſea-ſhore, than for long voyages. They have no ſails, but make uſe of oars only.

CHAP. XII.

COCHIN-CHINA.

SECTION I.

Situation, Extent, Boundaries, Produce, Inhabitants, &c.

COCHIN-CHINA, or Weſt China, as the name imports, is ſituated under the torrid zone, and extends, according to ſome, from the 8th to the 17th, and, according to others, from the 12th to the 18th degree of north latitude. It is about 500 miles in length, and is bounded on the eaſt by the Chineſe Sea, on the weſt by Laos and Cambodia, on the ſouth by Champa, or Chiampa, and on the north by Tonquin. It is, like Tonquin, tributary to China.

Here is great plenty of rice and ſugar; alſo gold and ſilver mines. They have likewiſe eagle-wood, calambac, an ordinary ſort of tea, and ſeveral kinds of drugs. The kingdom is divided into five or ſix provinces, and is well peopled. The king reſides at the capital of Kehue. Along the coaſt are ſeveral iſlands ſubject to this kingdom, which produce many uſeful fruit and other trees.

There is a regular annual inundation, about the middle of autumn, which overſpreads the country for two months, and leaves behind it a kind of ſlime, which helps to fertilize the land. In this wet ſeaſon the people ſail about the country in barks; nor would they be ſecure in their habitations, were they not to erect them on piles, ſo as to leave a free paſſage for the water below. The houſes are built of canes entwined together, ſo that the walls reſemble the ſides of a wicker baſket, and theſe they plaſter over with a mortar made of dirt or lime. They cover their habitations with ſtraw, or the leaves of cocoa, and they conſiſt, in common, of one ſtory. The window-frames are cloſed up with Japan paper, or Naker ſhells, ground to tranſparency. The partitions of their chambers are formed of ſcreens, and their floors are covered with mats, which ſerve them both for ſeats and beds. In the houſes of the opulent, indeed, the rooms are furniſhed with handſome chairs.

Theſe people are temperate, and the chief of their food is rice and fiſh, which they have in great plenty. They have no kitchens in their houſes, for fear of accidents by fires, but dreſs their proviſions by the ſides of rivers, with which the country abounds, and on whoſe banks their towns are built When the wind blows from the ſea, it is cuſtomary for a ſoldier to go about beating a drum, as a ſignal for people to extinguiſh their fires.

The natives, though but imperfectly civilized, poſſeſs that felicity which might excite the envy of more improved ſocieties. They have neither robbers or beggars, and hoſpitality is ſeen in every habitation. A traveller freely enters a houſe in any village, ſits down to eat and drink without any invitation, and departs without acknowledging the civility. He is a man and fellow-creature, and therefore welcome. If he were a foreigner, he would excite more curioſity, but would be equally welcome.

The wealthier ſort occaſionally entertain their friends in a ſumptuous manner. At theſe times their tables vie with the European, either in variety or cookery.

The common people, at public feſtivals, aſſemble in the ſtreets, where they ſpread their mats, and, ſitting in a circle, eat their proviſions, while tumblers and merry-andrews exerciſe their mummery.

SECTION II.

Of the Chova, or King. Government and Laws of the Cochin-Chineſe. Their Mechanics, Trade, and Money.

AS in moſt of the eaſtern countries, the king of Cochin-China is a deſpotic monarch, and ſo difficult of acceſs, that the moſt conſiderable, or opulent of his people, muſt not preſume to preſent a petition to him, without previouſly making court to his chief miniſter of ſtate. He gives audience at his palace gate in a ſort of ſtate litter, ſuperbly gilt, and ſomewhat reſembling a cage. No perſons muſt approach nearer to him than at the diſtance of fourſcore paces. His palace is at Ke-hue, the metropolis, where, after the eaſtern cuſtom, he keeps his ſeraglio, guarded by eunuchs. When he goes abroad, he rides on an elephant, on which he always ſits ſide-ways, and is accompanied by guards. On his head he wears a turban of the fineſt calico. Pendants of the richeſt brilliants hang from his ears. He has bracelets on his arms; but his body is almoſt bare, having only a covering round his middle, and he holds a ſpear, or rather a long javelin, in his hand.

The reſpective provinces of Cochin-China are governed by mandarins, and different courts of juſtice: and if a mandarin ſhould be convicted of mal-adminiſtration, he is, at a certainty, puniſhed with death. Not only all the officers of ſtate, but even the lives and fortunes of the people, are entirely at the diſpoſal of the king.

The

The laws of this country are exceedingly rigid in cafes of treafon and rebellion, which capital crimes are not only puniſhed with the moſt dreadful tortures, but very ſevere penalties are likewiſe inflicted on all the kindred of the traitors. Other offences, that are in any degree heinous, are puniſhed with death, or the loſs of a limb; though it muſt be acknowledged, that the all-powerful influence of money too frequently ſhelters the guilty from the puniſhment due to their crimes.

Though totally unacquainted with the ſciences, theſe people are very ſkilful mechanics; and, in the manufacture of ſilk, they ſurpaſs the Tonquineſe. They make ſugar-mills and water-engines; but know not how to make any ſort of fire-arms. Their foreign trade is by no means conſiderable. Silk, cotton, betel, aloes, wax, Japan wood, caſſia, and ſugar, are the chief articles they export; the greater part of which are purchaſed by the Chineſe, who, indeed, have nearly engroſſed the whole of this trade to themſelves. The only money current in this country conſiſts of pieces of copper ſtruck in China. Silver is exceeding ſcarce with them, inſomuch that a man is deemed wealthy who is poſſeſſed of 80 or 100 piaſtres.

Their religion, marriages, funeral ceremonies, &c. are the ſame as at Tonquin.

CHAP. XIII.

THE KINGDOM OF CAMBODIA, OR CAMBOYA, AND THE ISLAND OF PULO-CONDORE.

SECTION I.

Situation, Boundaries, Extent, Soil, Productions, Perſons, Dreſs, Religion, Manufactures, &c. of the Natives.

CAMBODIA is ſituated on the eaſt ſide of the gulph of Siam. It is bounded on the weſt by Cochin-China; by the Indian Ocean on the ſouth; and by the kingdom of Laos and the Kemois mountains on the north. It extends from north to ſouth upwards of 300 miles, and is about 210 miles in breadth. The river Mecon, which is very ſpacious, runs through it, and falls by two channels into the ſea. At the place where it firſt riſes it is called Longmu, after which it takes the name of Mecon, and continuing that name for a conſiderable ſpace, at length changes it to Oubequanne. This river has an annual ſwell, which begins in the month of June, and countinues till Auguſt, when it generally riſes ſo high as to overflow the neighbouring countries. It runs the ſame way for ſix months together, owing to the ſoutherly winds, which drive the ſands in ſuch ſhoals that the bar is entirely ſtopped up, and the current, by that means, driven back, till the wind ſhifts and removes the ſands, when the current is reſtored to its regular courſe.

The ſoil in general is exceeding fertile, and produces various kinds of grain, particularly rice and corn. There is likewiſe a great variety of fruit trees, particularly oranges, citrons, mangos, cocoas, &c. Here are alſo various kinds of wood, as the ſandal, aquila, and japan, ſticklack, and lack for japanning.

Cambodia abounds in rice, as alſo fleſh and fiſh; the two laſt of which are the only articles allowed to be purchaſed without a permit from the king. A fine bullock is frequently purchaſed for a dollar; and the common value of rice is one ſhilling and ſix-pence for 140 pounds weight. Poultry, indeed, is very ſcarce, becauſe the few that are bred, when young, retire to the woods, where they ſhift for themſelves; nor do the people take any pains to ſeek after them.

Gold, cambogia of a gold colour, or deep yellow, in rolls, raw ſilk, and elephants teeth, are produced here. There are ſeveral ſorts of very valuable drugs, and many parts abound with amethyſts, garnets, ſapphires, cornelians, chryſolites, and blood-ſtones.

The animals of this country are, wild elephants and boars, which are very numerous, particularly in the woods; tygers and lions; alſo wild cattle and buffaloes; with many horſes, and a prodigious number of deer; all of which every perſon has free liberty to kill and convert to their own uſe.

The natives are in general well ſhaped, and the women in particular handſome. The men wear a long veſt, which reaches from the ſhoulders to the ancles; but their heads and feet are bare. The women wear a thin garment that fits quit cloſe on the body and arms, and have a kind of petticoat that reaches from the waiſt to the ancles. Their heads have not any covering, but their hair is dreſſed and curiouſly decorated. Both ſexes have long hair, and take great pains in diſplaying it to the greateſt advantage.

The prieſts are choſen from among the laity, and are little reſpected by the people in general; nor have they any other proviſion for their exiſtence than what ariſes from public benevolence.

Manufactories are eſtabliſhed in different parts of the country, for making callicos, muſlins, dimities, and other curious pieces, which are very good in quality.

The poorer ſort of people are employed in making beads, ſmall idols, bracelets, necklaces, &c. They alſo weave ſilk, and work curious tapeſtry, which is uſed for lining chairs and palanquins of the quality.

SECTION II.

Of the City of Cambodia.

THE city of Cambodia, which is the capital, is ſituated on the river Mecon, about an hundred miles from the bar. It is built on a riſing ground, in order to avoid the annual overflowings of the river, and principally conſiſts of one large ſtreet. About the centre of it is a palace for the reſidence of the prince. It is a very inſignificant edifice, ſurrounded by a kind of wall, with ramparts, in which are ſeveral pieces of artillery.

Deſpotic power prevails here, and favours are only obtained from the prince by pecuniary compliments. When he thinks proper to diſtinguiſh any peculiar favourite, he preſents him with two ſwords, one of which is called the ſword of ſtate, and the other the ſword of juſtice. The perſon on whom this honour is beſtowed receives them with the greateſt marks of humility, and, after proſtrating himſelf to the ground, retires. When he has received this high dignity, the ſwords muſt be always carried before him whenever he goes abroad on public occaſions; and all people are engaged to compliment him in words adapted to the elevation of his character. If he meets with another who has received the ſame preferment, they enquire of each other the time of their being honoured with this great diſtinction, and he who laſt received it muſt firſt ſalute his ſuperior.

Theſe perſons are empowered to hold courts of juſtice; and the choice of puniſhment, whether in civil or criminal caſes, is left ſolely to their determination.

The only ſort of coin in this kingdom are ſmall pieces of ordinary ſilver, with characters on one ſide, but

but plain on the other, and called galls, the value of which is about four-pence ſterling.

SECTION III.

Of the Iſland of Pulo-Condore.

AS the account hitherto given of this iſland is very imperfect, and as it is greatly improved, both as to animal and vegetable productions, ſince the time when it was viſited by Dampier, we cannot adhere to our plan of novelty more effectually, than by referring to the journal of Captain King, (ſucceſſor to our late celebrated countryman Captain Cooke,) who ſtates particulars very circumſtantially to the following purport.

Pulo-Condore ſignifies the Iſland of Calabaſhes, being derived from two Malay words; Pulo implying an *iſland* and Condore a *calabaſh*, great quantities of which fruit are here produced. It is elevated and mountainous, of a ſemi-circular form, extends ſeven or eight miles, and is encompaſſed by ſeveral iſlands of inferior extent. The anchorage in the harbour is good. The moſt commodious watering place is at a beach on the eaſt ſide, where our people found a ſmall ſtream that ſupplied them with fourteen or fifteen tons of water in a day. The latitude of the harbour of Condore is 8 deg. 40 min. north; longitude 106 deg. 18 min. weſt.

The inhabitants of Pulo-Condore, who are fugitives from Cochin and Cambodia, are not numerous. They are very ſwarthy. Their hair is ſtrait and black; their eyes are remarkably ſmall, and their noſes high. They have thin lips, ſmall mouths, and white teeth, and are very courteous in diſpoſition. They go almoſt naked, except on very particular occaſions, when they are dreſſed in a long garment, girded about the waiſt, and ornamented with various coloured ribbons.

The principal town is compoſed of between twenty and thirty houſes, which are built contiguous to each other. Beſides theſe, there are ſix or ſeven others diſperſed about the beach. The roof, the two ends, and the ſides that front the country, are conſtructed of reeds in a neat manner. The oppoſite, which faces the ſea, is perfectly open: but the inhabitants, by means of a kind of ſcreen made of bamboo, can exclude or admit as much of the air and ſun as they think proper. At each extremity of the houſe of one of the chiefs was a room ſeparated by a partition of reeds from the middle ſpace, which was encloſed on either ſide, and furniſhed with partition ſcreens. Some Chineſe paintings, repreſenting perſons of both ſexes in ludicrous attitudes, were hung at each end of the middle room. In this apartment a party of our people, who went to viſit the chief, were requeſted to ſeat themſelves on mats, and betel was preſented them.

Our party took an opportunity of walking about the town, and did not omit ſearching, though ineffectually, for the remains of a fort built by ſome of their countrymen. The Engliſh ſettled on this iſland in 1702, and brought with them ſome Macaſſar ſoldiers, who were hired to contribute their aſſiſtance in erecting a fort; but the preſident of the factory not fulfilling his engagement with them, they were determined upon revenge, and one night took an opportunity of murdering all the Engliſh in the fort. The iſland had been purchaſed by the Engliſh of the king of Cambodia, to whom, after this circumſtance, it again reverted. The fort was demoliſhed, but ſome few remains are ſtill viſible.

Among the vegetable improvements of Pulo-Condore may be reckoned the fields of rice that were obſerved. Cocoa-nuts, pomegranates, oranges, ſhaddocks, plantains, and various ſorts of pumpkins, were alſo found here. There are ſeveral ſorts of fowl, and the woods are plentifully ſtocked with feathered game.

The buffalos of this iſland are ſingular. Some of theſe animals weigh from ſeven to eight hundred pounds. Our people had procured eight of them, but were at a loſs how to get them on board. After conſulting the natives, it was determined they ſhould be driven thro' a wood, and over a hill, down to the bay. This plan was accordingly executed; but the intractableneſs and amazing ſtrength of the animals, rendered it a ſlow and difficult operation. The mode of conducting them was by putting ropes through their noſtrils, and round their horns; but when they were once enraged at the ſight of our people, they became ſo furious, that they ſometimes tore aſunder the cartilage of the noſtril, through which the ropes paſſed, and ſat themſelves at liberty. At other times they broke the trees to which it was found frequently neceſſary to faſten them. On ſuch occaſions all the endeavours of the ſailors for the recovery of them would have been unſucceſsful, without the aid of ſome little boys, whom the buffaloes would ſuffer to approach them, and by whoſe puerile management their rage was quickly appeaſed.

A circumſtance relative to theſe animals, which was conſidered as no leſs ſingular than their gentleneſs towards children, and ſeeming affection for them, was that they had not been a whole day on board, before they were as tame as poſſible. Beſides buffalos, there are very large hogs of the Chineſe breed; alſo ſome of a wild ſpecies, that live in the woods, which abound with monkies and ſquirrels. One ſpecies of the ſquirrel here obſerved, was of a beautiful gloſſy black; and another ſort had white and brown ſtripes. This is denominated the *flying ſquirrel*.

The land near the harbour is a continued lofty hill richly adorned, from the ſummit to the edge of the water, with a great variety of fine high trees. Among others, our late voyagers ſaw that which is called by Dampier the tar-tree, but perceived none that were tapped in the manner deſcribed by him.

We have only to obſerve with reſpect to the natural productions of this iſland, that the ſea produces great plenty of turtles, limpets, and muſcles.

The inhabitants are Pagans, worſhipping idols repreſenting horſes and elephants.

CHAP. XIV.

KINGDOM OF LAOS.

SECTION I.

Boundaries and Produce. Nature of the Inhabitants. Manners, Cuſtoms, Ceremonies, &c.

LAOS is bounded on the eaſt by Cochin-China and Tonquin, on the weſt by Brama, on the north by the Lake Chamay, and on the ſouth by Cambodia and Siam. It reaches from the 15th to the 25th degree of north latitude.

The gardens in this country abound with great variety of fruits, and they have rice in abundance, which, tho' different in taſte from that of any other country, is eſteemed the beſt in the eaſt. They have plenty of honey, wax, cotton, amber, and muſk; and ivory is ſo little valued, from the great number of elephants with which the country abounds, that the teeth are uſed for fences to their fields and gardens. They have prodigious herds of beeves and buffalos, and the rivers abound with all kinds of fiſh, ſome of which are of an

immenſe ſize. In theſe rivers are found gold and ſilver duſt; and in ſeveral parts of the country are mines of iron, lead, and tin. Salt is alſo produced here in great abundance, and prodigious quantities of it are exported to foreign parts. It is formed by a white froth left on the rice fields after harveſt, which afterwards becomes condenſed by the heat of the ſun.

The inhabitants of Laos are naturally very affable in their diſpoſition; and though they envy ſuch as are in a more eligible ſituation than themſelves, yet they are ſtrictly honeſt, and appear to be utter ſtrangers to avaricious ſentiments. They are in general well ſhaped; and though their complexion is of an olive caſt, yet they are much fairer than their neighbours. The women are very modeſt in their carriage; and in other reſpects little inferior to the women of Portugal.

Rice, the fleſh of the buffalo, and ſeveral kinds of pulſe, chiefly conſtitute their food. They eat four meals a day, and have very great appetites, notwithſtanding which they are ſeldom afflicted with any diſeaſes. They ſometimes eat fowls, which they dreſs without plucking off the feathers; and they kill them by ſtriking them on the head with a ſtick, the ſhedding of blood being conſidered as one of the greateſt crimes.

Huſbandry and fiſhing are their principal employments; but they are naturally of an indolent diſpoſition; nor will they attend buſineſs till they are reduced to it from abſolute neceſſity.

Robberies are ſeldom heard of here; but when ſuch circumſtances do happen, if the criminal cannot be found, the neighbours muſt make reſtitution to the parties injured.

Adultery is puniſhed in women with loſs of liberty, and ſubjection to ſuch ſevere treatment as the huſband ſhall think proper to inflict.

Their marriage ceremonies conſiſt only in the parties promiſing before two, who have been ſome years joined in wedlock, that they will be true to each other ſo long as they ſhall live; but they often part from the moſt trifling circumſtances; and this may be attributed to the inſignificancy of the mode by which they are joined together.

Fornication is permitted among the laity; but the talapoins, or prieſts, are prohibited from it under ſevere puniſhments. Polygamy is alſo allowed; but the firſt wife has the pre-eminence, and muſt be treated with great reſpect by the others, who are conſidered more as her ſervants than her companions.

An opinion of ſorcery prevails here, to prevent the effects of which, during the time a woman lies in, all her relations and friends repair to the houſe, and divert themſelves with ſinging, dancing and other amuſements. They do this that the magicians or ſorcerers may not come near the woman; for ſhould that be the caſe, they would immediately take it for granted, that the infant was bewitched.

The death of a perſon of rank is celebrated with much ſplendor, and continues for a month, at the expiration of which a pyramid is erected, on the top whereof the corpſe is laid. The talapoins, or prieſts, (who are the only perſons invited to the feſtival,) then ſing certain ſongs, which they aſſert qualifies the ſoul of the deceaſed for the manſions of paradiſe. After the prieſts have finiſhed their ſongs, the pyramid is ſet on fire; and when the body is conſumed, the aſhes are conveyed with great ceremony to the pagod, or uſual place of interment, where the better ſort of people erect magnificent tombs to perpetuate the memory of their anceſtors.

The natives profeſs the Pagan religion. The talapoins, or prieſts, are in general very indolent; and though they originate from the moſt humble ſtations, yet on their being elevated to the dignity of prieſt, they aſſume the moſt diſtinguiſhed arrogance. They are under tuition from their childhood till they are twenty-three years of age, when they undergo an examination, and, if approved, are immediately appointed to the order of prieſthood.

SECTION II.

Power and Dignity of the Sovereign, Officers of State, &c.

IN this country the ſovereign is abſolute and independent, and diſpoſes of all honours and employments, whether civil or eccleſiaſtical. The private property of individuals is ſubject to be converted to ſuch purpoſes as he ſhall think proper; ſo that no perſon, in fact, who has an eſtate in land, can properly call it his own. The prieſts, indeed, have the peculiar privilege of diſpoſing of ſuch things as are immediately occupied; but their property in land is under the direction of mandarins, who let it out to farmers, and one half of every third year's rent is converted to the uſe of the king.

The greateſt homage is paid to the king by all ranks of people. In order to impreſs his people with a due ſenſe of reſpect for him, he appears in public twice every year; and his ſubjects are ſo elated on this occaſion, that they teſtify their happineſs by the moſt diſtinguiſhed rejoicings. His ſuperiority over other princes is diſtinguiſhed from the length of his ears, which are ſo diſtended as to hang upon his ſhoulders. This is conſidered as a mark of the higheſt dignity; and the means for obtaining it are uſed in their infancy, when the fleſhy parts of the ears are repeatedly bored, and they are extended by weights hung at the ends of them. The people, in general, are very fond of large ears; but they muſt be careful that the dimenſions of them do not come near to thoſe of their ſovereign.

On all public occaſions his ſubjects exert themſelves to expreſs loyalty to his perſon and government. They bring a variety of wild beaſts, particularly elephants, which they decorate with the moſt ſuperb trappings. They have alſo wreſtlers, gladiators, &c. all of whom aſſemble in a large area, or field, before the king, who is diverted with their various exhibitions.

The king's court is moſt ſplendid when he goes with the mandarins and nobility to offer preſents to ſome diſtinguiſhed temple. On this particular occaſion the king is ſeated on a beautiful elephant, decorated with trappings of gold, which hang from his ſides to the ground. The king is dreſſed in the moſt ſumptuous manner, his garments being loaded with diamonds of immenſe value. The mandarins go in front, the king follows next, and the nobility cloſe the proceſſion. Theſe laſt are mounted on fine horſes elegantly decorated; and with them are a great number of cattle, richly dreſſed, and laden with preſents for the idol.

On theſe days the women are prohibited from being ſeen in the ſtreets: they therefore look out of their windows when the proceſſion paſſes, and ſprinkle ſcented water on the king, and the preſents that are going to be offered to the idol. The talapoins are dreſſed in their richeſt habits, and meet the king as he arrives at their reſpective convents, after which they attend him during the time he ſacrifices the preſents to the idol.

Several tributary kings come to court, in order to pay homage to the king of Laos, and they acknowledge their ſubmiſſion to him by magnificent preſents.

Seven viceroys attend on the perſon of the king, the chief of whom is diſtinguiſhed by the title of viceroy-general. This officer executes the principal buſineſs of the government; and, on the death of the king, adjuſts all matters, and diſpoſes of all employments, till a ſucceſſor is choſen to the throne. The ſeven provinces into which the kingdom are divided, are under the government of theſe viceroys. They ſupport their characters with the higheſt dignity, and are always conſulted by the king in matters of a public nature. They have each a deputy, who officiates for them in their reſpective provinces, during their abſence, or when the affairs of government command their attendance at court.

In every province there is a militia of horſe and foot, who are maintained at the expence of that province to which they belong; and the officers are all dependent on the viceroy-general.

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The relations of any chief convicted of committing a capital offence are immediately deprived of their poſſeſſions, and for ever after employed in diſcharging the moſt ſervile offices. Crimes are here puniſhed with ſuch ſeverity that there are few offenders, and in all civil affairs the judge's determination is abſolute.

SECTION III.

Of the capital City of Laos.

THE capital city of this kingdom is by ſome called Lanchang, and by others Lanjeng. It is ſituated in the interior part of the kingdom, in 18 deg. north latitude. It is defended on one ſide by the great river Lao, and on the other by high walls and extenſive ditches.

The palace is the moſt diſtinguiſhed edifice in the city. It is very lofty and magnificent, and, with the offices and other buildings, extends more than two miles in circumference. The architecture is exceeding grand, and the apartments within are furniſhed in the moſt ſumptuous manner. The baſſo relievos, in particular, are ſo richly gilt, as to appear as if covered with panes, inſtead of leaves of gold.

The houſes of the better ſort are built of wood, and are very lofty and handſome; but thoſe of the common people are very low and mean, and chiefly made of dirt and clay. The talapoins, or prieſts, have liberty to build their houſes of brick or ſtone; but all others are reſtrained from the like indulgence.

The manſions of perſons of rank are, in general, very elegantly furniſhed. Inſtead of tapeſtry, they line the walls with matts, beautifully wrought, and ornamented with foliage, and a great variety of very curious figures.

The inhabitants are all Pagans, and have temples which contain the idols they worſhip. They are more ſtrict in the execution of their religious ceremonies than the people in any other part of the kingdom, and pay much greater reſpect to their prieſts.

CHAP. XV.

KINGDOM OF THIBET.

Situation. Perſons, Manners, and Diſpoſitions of the Inhabitants. Food. Religion. Singular Manner of diſpoſing of the Dead. Trade. Commerce, &c. &c.

WE are happy in having it in our power to lay before the reader, a more modern, as well as authentic account of this country, and its inhabitants, as communicated to us by an ingenious correſpondent, who reſided lately in India, in an official capacity, than any that has been heretofore given.

This kingdom, ſituated between 30 and 40 degrees north latitude, is divided into two parts. That which lies contiguous to Bengal is diſtinguiſhed by the name of Boutan: the other, which extends to the northward as far as the frontiers of Tartary, by that of Thibet. Boutan is a mountainous country; but the vallies, and ſides of the hills which admit of cultivation, produce crops of wheat, barley, and rice. The inhabitants are a ſtout and warlike people, of a copper complexion, rather above the middle ſize, haſty and quarrelſome in their temper, and addicted to the uſe of ſpirituous liquors; but honeſt in their dealings, robbery by violence being almoſt unknown among them. The chief city is Taſſey-Seddem.

Thibet begins properly from the top of the great ridge of the Caucaſus, and extends from thence, in breadth, to the confines of Great Tartary. The country is bare and deſolate, and the climate ſevere and rude. The natives of Thibet are of a ſmaller ſize than their ſouthern neighbours, and of a leſs robuſt make. Their complexions are alſo fairer; and many of them have even a ruddineſs in their countenances unknown in the other climates of the Eaſt. They are of a mild and chearful temper; and the higher ranks are polite and entertaining in converſation; in which they never mix either ſtrained compliments or flattery.

The common people, both in Boutan and Thibet, are cloathed in coarſe woollen ſtuffs of their own manufacture, lined with ſuch ſkins as they can procure; but the better ſort are dreſſed in European cloth, or China ſilk, lined with the fineſt Siberian fur.

The chief food of the inhabitants is the milk of their cattle, made into cheeſe, butter, or mixed with the flour of a coarſe barley, or of peas. They are ſupplied with fiſh from the rivers in their own and the neigbouring provinces, ſalted, and ſent into the interior parts. They have no want of animal food, from the quantity of cattle, ſheep, and hogs which are raiſed on their hills; nor are they deſtitute of game.

They have a ſingular method of preparing their mutton, by expoſing the carcaſe entire, after the bowels are taken out, to the ſun and bleak northern winds, which blow in the months of Auguſt and September, without froſt, and ſo dry up the juices, and parch the ſkin, that the meat will keep, uncorrupted, for the year round. This they generally eat raw, without any other preparation. Our correſpondent was often regaled with this diſh, which, however unpalateable at firſt, he afterwards preferred to their dreſſed mutton; which, he ſays, was generally lean, tough, and rank. He farther ſays, it was very common for the head man in the villages through which he paſſed, to make him preſents of ſheep ſo prepared, ſet before him on their legs, as if they had been alive; which at firſt made a very odd appearance.

The religion and political conſtitution of this country, are intimately blended together. At preſent, and ever ſince the expulſion of the Tartars, the kingdom of Thibet is regarded as depending on the empire of China, which they call Cathay; and there actually reſides two mandarins, with a garriſon of a thouſand Chineſe, at Lahaſſa, the capital, to ſupport the government; but their power does not extend far. In fact, the Lama, whoſe empire is founded on the fureſt grounds, perſonally affecting religious reverence, governs every thing internally with unbounded authority. The people believe the Delai, or Grand Lama, to be immortal, and endowed with all knowledge and virtue. Though celibacy is not poſitively enjoined by the Lama, it is held indiſpenſable for both men and women who embrace a religious life: indeed, their forms, rites, and ceremonies of religion, much reſemble thoſe of the church of Rome.

Polygamy, at leaſt according to our acceptation of the word, is not in practiſe here; but yet it may be ſaid to exiſt in a manner ſtill more repugnant to European ideas; that is, the plurality of huſbands, which is firmly eſtabliſhed, and highly reſpected. It is uſual at Thibet, for the brothers in a family to have a wife in common; and they generally live in harmony and comfort with her, though ſometimes little diſſentions will ariſe.

The manner in which theſe people beſtow their dead is alſo ſingular. They neither put them in the ground, like the Europeans; nor burn them like the Hindoos; but expoſe them on the bleak pinnacle of one of the neighbouring mountains, to be devoured by wild beaſts, and birds of prey, or waſted by time and the viciſſi-

tudes

tudes of the weather in which they lie. The mangled carcaſes, and bleached bones, lie ſcattered about; and amidſt this ſcene of horror ſome miſerable old wretch, man or woman, loſt to all feelings, but thoſe of ſuperſtition, generally ſets up an abode, to perform the office of receiving the bodies, aſſigning each a place, and gathering up the remains when too widely diſperſed.

Lahaſſa, the capital of Thibet, is a place of conſiderable ſize; populous and flouriſhing. It is the reſidence of the chief officers of government, and of the Chineſe mandarins, and their ſuite. It is alſo inhabited by Chineſe and Caſſemirian merchants and artificers, and is the daily reſort of numberleſs traders from all quarters, who come in occaſional parties, or in caravans, which travel at ſtated times.

The chief trade from Lahaſſa to Pekin is carried on by caravans, that employ full two years in the journey thither and back again; which is not ſurpriſing, when we conſider, that the diſtance cannot be leſs than two thouſand Engliſh miles, as well as the ſtoppages conſequent on trade: and yet it is to be obſerved, that an expreſs from Lahaſſa ſometimes reaches Pe-king in little more than three weeks; a circumſtance much to the honour of the Chineſe police, in eſtabliſhing ſo ſpeedy and effectual a communication, through deſarts and mountains, for ſo long a way.

With reſpect to the commerce of theſe people, our correſpondent obſerves, that, beſides their traffic with their neighbours in horſes, hogs, rock-ſalt, coarſe cloths, and other commodities, they enjoy four ſtaple articles, which are ſufficient in themſelves to procure every foreign commodity of which they ſtand in need.

The firſt, though leaſt conſiderable, is that of the cow-tails, ſo famous all over India, Perſia, and the other kingdoms of the Eaſt. It is produced by a ſpecies of cow, or bullock, of a larger ſize than common, with ſhort horns, and no hump on its back. Its ſkin is covered with whitiſh hair, of a ſilky appearance; but its chief ſingularity is in its tail, which ſpreads out broad and long, with flowing hairs, like that of a beautiful mare, but much finer, and far more gloſſy. Theſe tails ſell very high; and are uſed, mounted on ſilver handles, for chowras, or bruſhes, to drive away the flies: and no man of conſequence in India ever goes out, or ſits down, without two chowrawbadars, or bruſhers, attending him, with ſuch inſtruments in their hands.

The next article is the wool, from which the ſhaul, the moſt delicate woollen manufacture in the world, is made. Till our correſpondent viſited Thibet, it was concluded, that the materials of the ſhauls, as they come from Caſſimire, were of that country's growth. It was ſaid to be the hair of ſome particular goat, the fine under hair from a camel's breaſt, and many other fancies; but it is now known for a certainty, to be the produce of a Thibet ſheep. They are of a ſmall breed; in figure, like our ſheep, except in their tails, which are very broad: but their fleeces, for the fineneſs, length, and beauty of the wool, exceed all others in the world. The Caſſimirians engroſs this article, and have factors eſtabliſhed for its purchaſe in every part of Thibet; from whence it is ſent to Caſſimire, where it is worked up, and becomes a ſource of great wealth to that country, as well as it has been, and ſtill is, to Thibet.

Muſk is another of their ſtaple commodities, produced from the deer common in the mountains of Thibet; but they being exceſſively ſhy, and frequently in places moſt wild and difficult of acceſs, it becomes a trade of great trouble and danger to hunt after.

The laſt article is gold, of which great quantities are exported from Thibet. It is found in the ſands of the great river, as well as in moſt of the ſmall brooks and torrents that pour from the mountains. Although they have their gold in plenty in Thibet, they do not employ it in coin, of which their government never ſtrike any; but it is ſtill uſed as a medium of commerce, and goods are rated there by the price of gold-duſt, as here by money. The Chineſe draw it from them, to a great amount, every year, in return for the produce of their labours and arts.

CHAP. XVI.

EMPIRE OF AVA, &c.

SECTION I.

Situation. Boundaries. Productions, &c. &c.

THE empire of Ava is ſituated between the latitude of 15 and 28 degrees north, and bounded by Thibet on the north; by the kingdoms of Laos and Siam on the eaſt; by Bengal on the weſt; and by the Indian ſea on the ſouth.

Ava is ſaid to be larger than the whole empire of Germany. The king of Pegu was originally in poſſeſſion of the greater part of it: but two mighty princes of Ava and Siam have deſtroyed that monarchy: and the king of Ava is emperor of both Ava and Pegu.

The opulence of the emperor is ſeen in the magnificence of his palace, "which, according to captain Hamilton, is built of ſtone, and has four grand gates, viz. the eaſtern gate, called the golden, becauſe ambaſſadors are admitted at it, who make preſents to the emperor, when they approach his royal perſon; the ſouthern gate, or gate of juſtice, at which people enter who want to preſent petitions; the weſtern gate, or gate of grace, through which ſuch perſons paſs as have been honoured with any particular favour, or have been acquitted of any offence unjuſtly laid to their charge; and the northern gate, or gate of ſtate, through which the emperor paſſes, when he is inclined to ſhew himſelf to his people."

Several neighbouring ſtates are tributary to the ſovereign of Ava. Pegu, which is within the tropics, is flooded when the ſun is vertical; but the ſlime, left by the waters, gently fertilizes the low lands. As to the higher ground, this is parched with intenſe heat after the rains have ceaſed; and the natives are obliged to water their fields, by the communication of ſmall channels, from ciſterns and reſervoirs.

The hills of Pegu are cloathed with fine wood, and the bamboos are of great utility to the natives. The country abounds with oranges, lemons, citrons, figs, pomegranates, bananas, durians, mangoes, goyvas, cocoa-nuts, pine-apples, tamarinds, &c.

The inhabitants uſe a great deal of rice, and ſome wheat: they have plenty of garden-ſtuff, which is a chief part of their food. They have alſo pulſe of various kinds, good poultry, and a variety of fiſh. In ſome of the royal parks are ponds of clear water, where tortoiſes of a middle ſize are kept and fed, the ſhells of which are a mixture of ſeveral colours. With theſe they work up many things, as cabinets, boxes, and other furniture, making very handſome work, for the ſhells are poliſhed like diamonds, and are tranſparent.

The country produces rubies, ſmall diamonds, and other precious ſtones; iron, tin, and lead; ſalt-petre, wood-oil, oil of earth, elephants teeth, ſugars, &c. The iron is ſaid to be ſo excellent in its quality, as to be little inferior to ſteel.

There

There are here but few horſes or ſheep, but the people plough with oxen and buffaloes. Deer are exceedingly numerous here; but though theſe animals are very fleſhy, they are not fat. No place abounds more in elephants than this and the adjacent countries; they compute the ſtrength of their armies by the number and ſize of theſe animals.

SECTION II.

Perſons and Dreſs of the Inhabitants. Predilection of the Women for Europeans. Benevolent Diſpoſition of the Prieſts.

THE women are conſiderably fairer than the men, who are of an olive complexion. Both are thinly clad, and the beſt among them wear neither ſtockings or ſhoes. They let their hair grow long, which they tie on the top of their heads with a ribband, in the form of a pyramid. When the ladies go abroad to pay viſits, they wear either a cotton or ſilken frock, under which is a ſcarf, girded round the waiſt, and hanging almoſt to their ancles. This dreſs is ſaid to have been the invention of a queen of this country, who conſidered it as the moſt graceful dreſs that could adorn the female ſex.

The females of this country are very fond of ſtrangers; ſo that any man, during his ſtay, may be accommodated with a temporary helpmate: hence moſt of the foreigners who trade hither marry one of theſe wives, who are very obedient and obliging to their huſbands. The wife goes to market, dreſſes the victuals, takes care of her huſband's effects, and even ſells his retail commodities for him. If ſhe proves falſe the huſband ſells her as a ſlave; and if he proves falſe ſhe poiſons him.

The wife, when a huſband quits the country, at the expiration of a twelvemonth marries again, provided the huſband does not leave her a maintenance, by a monthly allowance.

The talapoins, or prieſts, recommend charity and humanity as the greateſt of all virtues, and, indeed, theſe men do honour to human nature, if the accounts given of them be literally authentic. When the maſter of a veſſel happens to be ſhipwrecked on the coaſt, and, by this calamity, becomes the ſlave of the ſovereign, the talapoins humanely intercede for him, and take him under their pious care and protection. In their temples theſe good men ſupply a diſtreſſed ſtranger with every thing he wants: and as they are phyſicians as well as prieſts, they tenderly take care of ſick perſons, and, after their recovery, give them letters of recommendation to ſome other convent on the road they travel.

The actions of theſe men are influenced by real charity and benevolence. They never make any enquiries about a ſtranger; it is enough that he be a human being, and that they can relieve his neceſſities. All religions are by them deemed good, which inculcate the moral duties and ſocial virtues. They think that perſecution, and all modes of worſhip which are contrary to humanity, or univerſal philanthropy, are obnoxious to Providence; and that the Almighty delights in being adored in various ceremonials; but that all modes of adoration ſhould be conſiſtent with the moſt refined benevolence. In fine, their maxims are calculated to infuſe in the human heart unbounded charity and general toleration, and to

Graſp the whole world of reaſon, life and ſenſe,
In one cloſe ſyſtem of benevolence;
Happier as kinder in whate'er degree;
And height of bliſs but height of charity.

SECTION III.

Temples, Idols, Sacrifices, Superſtition, and Feſtivals.

MUCH pageantry is diſplayed in their temples, and the decoration of their idols. In the temple of Kiakiack is a large figure lying in the attitude of ſleeping, and which is pretended to have lain 6000 years in this poſture.

The other temple is called Dagun; but none except the prieſts muſt enter there.

Some of the ſacrifices of theſe people are very ſingular. Having immolated a white ſheep, and mingled its blood with meal, on the day of the grand feſtival of Kiackiack, they diſtribute it with exhortations. For the celebration of another ſort of ſacrifice, they purchaſe a ſlave at a very high price, who is youthful and handſome, and having purified him, they cloath him in a white robe, and make a public ſhew of him till the day of his diſſolution, which is in about thirty days, when they conduct him to a temple, and laying him flat on a ſtone, rip up his belly, and then taking out his heart, burn it, and offer it in ſacrifice to the idol of the place.

As the Peguans believe that all the ills which befal mankind proceed from certain evil ſpirits that hover about: they therefore worſhip theſe demons, in order that they may not be afflicted by them.

Perſons of high rank attend at their grand feſtivals in their richeſt apparel, adorned with jewels. Here they dance to muſic, which, from briſk and lively, changes to doleful and melancholic; when in very plaintive ſtrains, they ſing of their anceſtors; the men alternately ſighing, the ladies weeping, and all acknowledging they ſhall never equal their good anceſtors, who performed ſuch and ſuch great feats. After a general lamentation, they revive their ſpirits with good food, and reſume their merriment.

SECTION IV.

Power, Splendour, and Pomp of the Emperor. Puniſhment inflicted on Criminals. Government. Form of proclaiming War.

THE emperor of Ava is deſpotic; all his commands are laws. He is treated with the moſt fulſome adulation by his ſubjects, who, either in ſpeaking or writing to him, ſtile him a god.

To ſee his majeſty's face is the greateſt honour that can be conferred. When an ambaſſador approaches this great prince, he is attended by ſound of trumpet, while heralds proclaim aloud the honour and happineſs he is about to receive. The king is at this time attended by all his miniſters, and 200 guards, ſome with daggers, and others with ſteel bows, finely poliſhed.

As ſoon as the king has breakfaſted, his majeſty retires to an apartment, from whence he can ſee the perſons who are about the palace, without being ſeen: and that he may be thoroughly informed of every thing of moment that paſſes either in the city of Ava (the metropolis) or any of his provinces, deputies of great officers, and governors, are always reſident in the palace: for he holds the reins of government entirely in his own hands, and puniſhes, with great rigour, ſuch officers and governors as are guilty of mal-practices. When he hears of the commiſſion of any enormous crime, he iſſues his royal mandate for ſuch offence to be tried by judges of his own chooſing; and if the delinquent be convicted, he fixes the particular puniſhment to be inflicted, which is the being trampled to death by elephants, or ſome other equally cruel mode of puniſhing.

The reſpective towns in the dominions of the king of Ava have a kind of ariſtocratical government. The governor ſeldom preſides in council, but appoints a deputy and twelve judges, who meet in a large hall, and every man has the privilege of pleading his own cauſe.

If a man is committed to priſon for debt, and cannot, or will not pay his creditor, the latter may diſpoſe of him as a ſlave; and this privilege granted to creditors, ſtimulates the common people to induſtry.

On the declaration of war, the heralds proclaim their ſovereign's will with flaming torches in their hands; and the governors of provinces are obliged to raiſe ſuch number of troops as the ſtate wants, in addition to the

accuſtomed military eſtabliſhment. Upon theſe occaſions a troop of perhaps 1000 elephants are ſoon ſeen in full march, the king ſeated on his throne, upon the back of one of the whiteſt, attended by all his nobles, with trumpets, and other military muſic, ſounding as they march to the field of war.

SECTION V.

OF THE KINGDOM OF ARACCAN, OR ARACHAN.

ARACCAN, which is called by ſome the empire of Mogo, is bounded on the eaſt by Ava, on the weſt by the bay and country of Bengal, and on the north by Tipra. It extends about 400 miles in length, and contains a great number of places, many of which are uninhabited, from the multiplicity of wild beaſts that infeſt the whole country.

For the major part the inhabitants of this kingdom are very robuſt, and diſtinguiſhed by having remarkable broad and flat foreheads. They are ſo fond of this particular in their ſhape, that when a child is born, they bind a plate of lead on the forehead, which they do not remove till they are ſatisfied it has had the wiſhed-for effect. Their noſes are exceeding red, and the noſtrils wide; but their eyes are ſmall, and quick of diſcernment.

The colour of the habits of the common people is generally a dark purple. Thoſe of diſtinction wear veſtments of white cotton, with an apron before them, and a kind of bag behind their back, formed in plaits. Their hair is divided into locks, each of which is tied and ornamented with knots of fine cloth.

The women are much fairer in complexion than the men, but are proportionably robuſt. They wear a garment made of cotton, which is bound ſeveral times round the body, and reaches down to the ancles; and over their necks and ſhoulders they have a kind of handkerchief, made of flowered gauze. The better ſort wear a ſilk ſcarf on one of their arms, and decorate their hair with a variety of ornaments. They have rings in their ears which are made of glaſs, and ſo large as to hang on the ſhoulders: and the arms and legs are ornamented with bracelets of ſilver, copper, ivory, &c.

Their houſes are exceeding ſmall, and are made with branches of palm-trees, or canes built upon pillars, and covered with leaves of the cocoa tree: but the better ſort have more ſpacious buildings. All the houſes, however, are made without chimnies, or any convenience for firing; ſo that they dreſs their victuals without doors in earthern pots.

This country abounds with all kinds of proviſions, but the people are exceeding temperate in their diet. Their common drink is made from the leaves of a tree reſembling the palm tree, which, if drank new, is very ſweet, but in a few days will turn ſour; and inſtead of bread they uſe rice.

The ſoil is very fertile, and produces all kinds of fruit, with various ſorts of grain. The climate is very healthful and pleaſant in ſummer; but in winter it is much otherwiſe; for the inhabitants are ſubject to agues, from the great rains that fall during that ſeaſon, which continue from April till October.

The buffalos and elephants here teſtify a particular diſguſt at thoſe that wear red garments; but theſe beaſts are eaſily governed by the herdſmen, and will readily follow him when they are aſſembled together, which is effected by the ſound of a horn.

The ſovereign, who is as powerful as any of his neighbours, generally reſides at the capital. He has twelve princes under him, whoſe reſidences are in the chief cities of the kingdom, and they are permitted to aſſume the title of kings. The king himſelf is ſtiled "Emperor of Araccan, poſſeſſor of the white elephant, with the two Caniques, rightful heir of Peger and Brama, and lord of the twelve kings, who lay their hair of their heads under the ſoles of his feet, &c." He is ſeen by his ſubjects but once in five years, at which time the palace is ſurrounded with buildings and ſcaffolds erected on the occaſion. The king comes from the palace dreſſed in the moſt ſumptuous manner, ſeated in an elegant tent placed on the back of an elephant, richly capariſoned. He is followed by his courtiers riding on elephants, whoſe harneſs and trappings are ſuperbly adorned. The king then, with his attendants, rides through the principal ſtreets of the city, after which he returns to the great ſquare before his palace, where his ſubjects renew their oath of allegiance to him, and the evening is concluded by all ranks of people with the greateſt feſtivity.

Their temples, and other ſacred places, are built like ſteeples, and contain many idols, whom they worſhip. They hold a feaſt annually in commemoration of the dead, at which time they carry one of their idols in proceſſion attended by a number of prieſts dreſſed in one uniform, conſiſting of a long garment made of yellow ſatin. The idol is placed in a large heavy chariot; and ſuch is the ſuperſtitious notion of the poorer ſort of people, that many will throw themſelves under the wheels, and others will tear their fleſh with iron hooks faſtened to the carriage for that purpoſe. They take great pains to colour theſe hooks with their blood, and they are afterwards hung up in the temples, and preſerved as relicks.

The higheſt order of prieſts is diſtinguiſhed by wearing a yellow mitre; but the other two always go bareheaded; and they are all prohibited from marrying, on pain of being degraded.

The prieſts pray with ſuch as are ill, in return for which the patient offers ſacrifices of fowls, &c. in proportion to their reſpective abilities. If the patient recovers, it is attributed to the prayers received from the prieſt; but if he dies, the prieſts tell their relations that their ſacrifices are accepted, but the Deity deſigns the patient a greater favour in the other world. If the patient appears incurable, the prieſt thinks it a charity to drown him.

A perſon of diſtinction dying, the body is burned; but the poorer ſort are thrown into the river. They believe in tranſmigration, and therefore ornament their coffins with the figures of ſuch animals as they think the moſt noble. Every family has ſome particular animal by whom they ſwear, and whoſe figure they mark with a hot iron on different parts of their bodies. Their nuptial ceremonies are performed in the preſence of this animal, and they always offer him part of their proviſions before they eat.

The capital of this kingdom is Araccan: it is large and well fortified, ſituated in a valley, and fifteen miles in circumference. It is encloſed by very high ſtone walls, and ſurrounded by a ridge of ſteep craggy mountains, ſo artificially formed as to render a penetration almoſt impregnable; beſides which, there is a caſtle within, ſtrongly fortified. The city is well watered by a fine river that paſſes through it in different ſtreams, and at length forms two channels, which empty themſelves into the bay of Bengal.

There are ſaid to be 160,000 inhabitants in this city, excluſive of foreigners. The houſes in general are ſmall, and built of bamboos; but thoſe of the better ſort are ſpacious and handſome. In it are upwards of 600 idol temples, moſt of which are ſpacious buildings, elegantly ornamented. The palace is exceedingly magnificent, being decorated with the moſt coſtly ornaments. The apartments are lined with various kinds of wood, that diſcharge the moſt agreeable fragrance; and the roofs of thoſe belonging to the king are covered with plates of gold. In the center of the palace is the grand hall, which contains a canopy ornamented with wedges of ſolid gold, reſembling ſugar-loaves.

Several idols of the ſame metal, as large as life, and ornamented with diamonds and other coſtly jewels, are placed here. In the center of the hall is a cabinet of gold, ſupported by a large ſtool of the ſame metal, and overlaid with diamonds and other precious ſtones. This cabinet contains the two Caniques, or famous pendants

of

of rubies, which the king wears at his coronation, and by which he preſerves a ſuperior authority over his vaſſal princes.

Without the palace are ſpacious ſtables for the king's elephants, tygers, horſes, &c. and near it is a conſiderable lake with ſmall iſlands, inhabited chiefly by prieſts. This lake is ſo ſituated as to be a ſecurity to the inhabitants of the city, ſhould they be reduced to the neceſſity of flight by an attack from an enemy; for by cutting a bank which ſurrounds it, they might overflow the city, and retire to the iſlands.

The environs of this city are very extenſive, and the adjoining countries delightfully pleaſant. The villages, mountains, &c. are beautifully diverſified with fields of different kinds of grain, intermixed with pieces of water, and numerous flocks of cattle.

In the neighbourhood is a Dutch factory: and at many of the ſhops in the city are to be purchaſed ſome of the richeſt commodities in Aſia.

There are many cities of conſiderable note in different parts of this kingdom, as alſo many capital towns, remarkable for traffic; the moſt material of which are

Orietan, which is ſituated on a branch of the river, to the ſouth-weſt of the city of Araccan. This is one of the twelve capital cities, and is governed by a viceroy, who aſſumes the title of king, and receives a crown from the king himſelf.

Near this city is a large mountain, on which is a fortified place for the confinement of ſtate priſoners, or other diſtinguiſhed criminals. There is another mountain called Pora, on the top of which is placed their principal idol, which is worſhipped by the king himſelf on a certain day, once in the year. Between the cities of Araccan and Orietan is a ſpacious river, the banks of which are delightfully ſhaded with tall trees, that form, as it were, an harbour; the pleaſure of ſailing under which is conſiderably heightened by the multiplicity of peacocks that are continually moving from one tree to another. Theſe birds are exceeding beautiful, and fully anſwer the fine deſcription of them given in the book of Job, which is thus elegantly paraphraſed by Dr. Young:

How rich the peacock! what bright glories run
From plume to plume, and vary in the ſun!
He proudly ſpreads them to the golden ray;
Gives all his colours, and adorns the day!
With conſcious ſtate the ſpacious round diſplays,
And ſlowly moves amid the waving blaze.

Rama is a city of conſiderable note, but little reſorted to, on account of the great danger in getting to it, either by land or water: the former being dangerous, from the number of wild beaſts with which the mountains are infeſted, and the latter from its being ſubject to ſudden tempeſts.

Dobazi is another large and populous city; but is chiefly remarkable for having a good harbour, and a ſpacious river, by which great trade is carried on with the neighbouring places.

Dianga is a large town, ſituated 120 miles north of Araccan; the inhabitants of which are chiefly Portugueſe fugitives, and are indulged with very conſiderable privileges.

Peroem, or Peom, is a town of great trade, and has a very convenient harbour. It is the reſidence of a governor, who keeps a grand court, and exerciſes the abſolute authority of an eaſtern monarch.

SECTION VI.

The Kingdom of TIPRA.

THIS kingdom is bounded by the empire of Ava, and part of China, to the ſouth and eaſt, by Independent Tartary to the north, by Araccan to the ſouth-weſt, and by Indoſtan to the weſt. Tavernier informs us, that to croſs it requires fifteen days. It is exceedingly hot, being under the Tropic of Cancer. The air is, nevertheleſs, pure and ſalubrious: but the water is ſo bad, that it occaſions the throats of the inhabitants to ſwell to a prodigious ſize. The ſovereign, and the nobility, ride upon elephants, or are carried in palanquins; but the common people, in travelling, make uſe of horſes or oxen indiſcriminately. The accommodations for ſtrangers are bad, and the behaviour of the natives rude and unpoliſhed. The ſubjects of this kingdom pay no taxes, but in lieu thereof labour annually one week for the king, either in his mines, or among his ſilk-worms, from whence alone his revenues accrue. He exports gold and ſilver to China in ingots, and in return receives ſilver which is coined into two ſpecies of currency, of 1s. 8d. and 1s. 10d. value each. Gold is coined into aſpers, which are worth about 5s. each. The ſovereign of this country is tributary to the king of Araccan. The river Caipoumo runs from Chiamay lake through this and many other kingdoms, till it diſembogues itſelf into Bengal bay.

SECTION VII.

The Kingdom of BOUTAN, or LASSA.

THIS kingdom has China on the eaſt, Thibet and the Mogul's dominions on the weſt, Tartary on the north, and Aſem on the ſouth.

A late celebrated traveller ſays, that when the merchants of Patna and Bengal come to the foot of the Naugracut mountains, they are carried over them on the backs of women; there being three women, who alternately relieve each other, to every traveller. The baggage and proviſions are carried by goats, who climb the mountains with wonderful agility, and are able to bear 150lb. weight. They are a week in paſſing theſe mountains. The women, for their trouble, receive to the value of a crown each; and the ſame ſum is paid for every loaded goat.

Both ſexes wear a kind of felt in winter, and fuſtian in ſummer. They wear a high cap adorned with pieces of tortoiſeſhell, or boars teeth, which they deem grand embelliſhments. The women decorate their necks with necklaces of amber or coral; and both male and female wear bracelets on the left arm, from the elbow to the wriſt. They are exceeding fond of ſpirituous liquors, and conclude their entertainments by burning amber. Here is plenty of corn, rice, pulſe, grapes, muſtard-ſeed, rhubarb, muſk, furs, coral, &c.

The natives, who are groſs idolators, more particularly venerate a cow, which they term "the nurſe of mankind."

The uſe of fire-arms has prevailed here many years. From inſcriptions on ſome of their pieces of cannon, they appear to be 500 years old. None are permitted to quit the kingdom without a ſpecial licence from government; nor muſt any one take a muſket with him, unleſs he gives proper ſecurity to bring it back again. On the backs of their elephants and camels they place ſmall cannon, which carry half pound balls. The king is always in fear of treaſon, and has a guard of 8000 men conſtantly attending him; though at the ſame time he is vain enough to call himſelf a god, endued with the attributes of "invincibility and invulnerability!"

The natives have moſtly flat noſes, are ſtrong and well made; but the women are more robuſt than the men. Silver mines are ſaid to abound in this country, and, by the king's order, ſilver money is coined here each piece being of the value of 2s. 6d. and of an octagonal form. They have no gold but what is got in trade.

SECTION VIII.

The Kingdom of ASEM, AZEM, or ACHAM.

THIS kingdom is bounded by China on the eaſt, Indoſtan on the weſt, Tipra on the ſouth, and Boutan, with part of Indepedant Tartary, on the north.

The

The country, in the reign of Aurengzebe, was conquered by the Moguls, who diſcovered it by navigating the river Lacquia, which has its ſource in the lake Chiamay, and diſcharges itſelf into the Ganges. The above-mentioned celebrated Indian lake is 180 leagues in circumference, and lies in 26 deg. north latitude.

Beſides being one of the moſt fertile in the univerſe, this country is rich in mines, which produce both the nobleſt and moſt uſeful metals, viz. gold, ſilver, ſteel, iron, lead, &c. There is plenty of the moſt delicious animal food, but dog's fleſh is deemed the greateſt dainty. They make no wine, though they have excellent grapes, which, when dried, are uſed in making brandy. The lakes of this country are of a ſaline quality, and the ſcum which ariſes to their ſurface is converted into ſalt. Another kind of ſalt is extracted from the leaves of what is called Adam's fig-tree: and a ley is made, which renders their ſilks admirably white.

No taxes whatever are paid to government, the king contenting himſelf with the ſole poſſeſſion of the valuable mines which his country contains. Nor are thoſe mines worked by the natives, but by ſlaves, which he purchaſes of his neighbours.

To every ſubject is allotted a houſe, a large piece of ground contiguous thereto, and an elephant to carry his wives, of whom he is permitted to have four. Previous to marriage, the Aſemians inform the women minutely of what they expect them to do. The females being thus preciſely inſtructed in their duty ſeldom diſoblige their huſbands. The inhabitants towards the north have good complexions; but thoſe who dwell ſouthernly are rather ſwarthy. All have very large holes bored in their ears, from whence deſcend heavy pendants of gold and ſilver. They wear their hair long, have a cap upon their heads, and go naked, except about their middles. They adorn their arms with bracelets, which are buried with them when they die. Their gold is current in ingots; but they have pieces of ſilver coin, each 2s. in value. They have great plenty of gum lacque, which they export to China and Japan, to varniſh cabinets, cheſts, &c.

The reſidence of the king, which is in the metropolis, lies in 25 degs. 23 min. north latitude, and is named Kemmerooſe, or Guergen. The city of Azoo is the royal burial place. When any king is buried in the grand temple, his favourite idol is buried. This always being of gold or ſilver, the vaults are filled with immenſe treaſures. The people imagine that the righteous have, in the other world, plenty of what they deſire; but that the wicked ſuffer all the miſeries of hunger and thirſt.

From this opinion, and not entertaining any very high idea of the morality or piety of their monarchs, they bury with them all kinds of eatables, great riches, ſeveral of their wives, officers, elephants, ſlaves, &c. leſt they ſhould fare worſe in the other world than they did in this.

The Chineſe are ſuppoſed to have received from the people of Aſem, the invention of gunpowder, though they have ſince thought proper to arrogate it to themſelves.

The following places near the coaſt of Ava, are reckoned in the Pegu dominions.

1. The iſland of Dola, which has a good harbour, and where twenty houſes are appropriated to the purpoſe of taming elephants for the uſe of the king of Pegu.

2. Coſmin is a fertile iſland. The houſes of the natives are built on frames of wood, and aſcended to by ladders, on account of the furious tygers with which this country abounds. The inhabitants go from hence to Pegu in boats, in which whole families reſide all the year. This country produces figs, oranges, cocoa-nuts, wild boars, parrots, aſſes, &c.

3. Meden is a tolerable town, where a market is kept on the water in boats, the commodities being ſhaded from the ſcorching ſun-beams, by umbrellas.

4. Negrais is a town and cape on the coaſt, due weſtward from Pegu, from whence it requires about ten days to ſail. The harbour is good, but a ſhelving bar renders its entrance diſagreeable and dangerous.

5. Diamond Iſland, near cape Negrais, is celebrated for two Pagan temples. This iſland is low, barren, and rocky. The chief eccleſiaſtic of the iſland reſides here. He is greatly venerated by the people, and takes the right hand of the king, who, on his demiſe, is obliged to attend his funeral with his whole court, and to defray all expences thereby incurred.

CHAP. XVII.

MALACCA.

SECTION I.

Situation, Boundaries, Extent, and Diviſion. Coaſts. Vegetables and Animals. Account of the Natives. Their Language.

THIS peninſula is ſituated between the 2d and 11th degree of north latitude, and bounded by Siam on the north, by the ocean on the eaſt, and by the ſtraits of Malacca on the ſouth-eaſt, being about 600 miles long, and 200 broad. It is ſeparated into ſmall kingdoms, viz. Malacca, from which it has its name, Johor, Patana, Sincapour, Pahan, Trangano, Pera, Queda, and Ligor. Some of theſe are independent ſtates, under different deſpotic princes, and others are tributary to the king of Siam.

Malacca is ſaid to have been originally joined to the Iſland of Sumatra, and to be the Aurea Cherſoneſus of Ptolemy. The coaſts of the kingdom are flat, marſhy, and unhealthful; and the inland parts of the country conſiſt of ſcarce any thing but barren hills and dreary deſerts: ſo that it produces nothing for exportation, except a ſmall quantity of tin, and ſome elephants teeth. The common neceſſaries of life are produced in gardens; and ſmall quantities of peas and rice are reared in ſuch parts of the mountains as appear to have any tolerable ſoil. The natives have a ſupply of proviſions from Sumatra, Bengal, Java, Siam, and Cambodia. Here is, however, a variety of fruits, and particularly the mangoſtan, which is very delicious, and reſembles a pine-apple. Here are cocoas in abundance, and a great plenty of aloes; and as to pine-apples, there are no better in the univerſe than are to be had here. The ramboſtan, a fine fruit, is about as big as a walnut, with a moſt delicious pulp; and the durian, though not pleaſant to the ſmell, has a very agreeable taſte.

Though ſheep and bullocks are ſcarce here, pork, poultry, and fiſh, are pretty plentiful. The wild animals of the country are tygers, wolves, &c.

The complexion of the natives, who are called Malays, is tawny; and thoſe inhabiting the inland parts of the country, are remarkable for the ferocity of their manners. The men go naked, except having a piece of cloth round their waſtes.

The women of Malacca, who have their hair very long, and are extremely proud, wear a looſe ſilken garment, embroidered with ſilver or gold. Both ſexes have jewels in their ears.

While nature had done every thing in favour of the Malays in their priſtine ſtate; while ſhe had bountifully provided

provided for them, by placing them in a ſerene and ſalubrious clime, where refreſhing gales and cooling ſtreams aſſuage the heat of the torrid zone; where the ſoil teems with delicious fruits, where the trees are cloathed with a continual verdure, and the flowers breathe their odours, ſociety has done them every poſſible injury: for ſuch has been the influence of an arbitrary government, that the natives of the moſt happy country in the globe have become remarkably ferocious in their manners. The feudal ſyſtem which was firſt concerted among the woods and rocks of the north, has reached the ſerene regions of the equator. The Malays are governed by deſpotic princes. This ſcene of arbitrary domain occaſioned a general ſavageneſs of manners. In vain did bounteous heaven beſtow her rich bleſſings on the Malays; theſe celeſtial gifts ſerved only to make the people ungrateful and diſcontented. Maſters let out their ſervants, or rather thoſe of their dependents, to the higheſt bidders, heedleſs of the loſs which huſbandry would ſuffer in the want of hands.

When the Portugueſe took poſſeſſion of the chief city of theſe people, the latter, ill brooking a ſubmiſſion to their new maſters, either retired into the inland parts, or diſperſed themſelves along the coaſt. Having loſt the ſpirit of commerce, they imbibed that of conqueſt, and ſubdued a large Archipelago on their coaſt, while the Portugueſe rendered Malacca the moſt conſiderable market in India. Loſt to all commerce, they fell into every exceſs of fierceneſs and barbarity, and committed murder, when harm was leaſt expected.

Some, however, there are, who are poliſhed, well-bred, and humane; who diſtinguiſh themſelves by their talents, and particularly in the uſe of a language eſteemed the moſt pure, nervous, harmonious, and copious, of any ſpoken in the Indies. They ſtudy it with great care; and many do honour to its natural graces, by furniſhing elegant poetic compoſitions.

SECTION II.

Of the City of Malacca.

THIS city is ſaid to have been founded upwards of 200 years before the arrival of the Portugueſe in 1509: and in the year 1511, Alphonſo Albuquerque ſubdued the city, after it had made a moſt vigorous defence. He plundered it of immenſe treaſures, vaſt magazines, and whatever could contribute to the elegancies and pleaſures of life, and then put the prince to death. The king of Siam, enraged at his cruelty, afterwards took the city by ſtorm, aſſiſted by other princes, equally incenſed againſt the murderer. But the Portugueſe afterwards retook it, and built churches, monaſteries, a caſtle, and a college for the Jeſuits. In the year 1606 the Dutch, in conjunction with the king of Johor, began to be very troubleſome to the Portugueſe, and, after a ſeries of hoſtilities for the ſpace of thirty-five years, deprived them of it in 1641, by the following means. Finding that conſiderable diſputes had ſubſiſted between the king of Johor and the Portugueſe inhabitants, the Dutch inſtantly formed a deſign of attacking and reducing the place. Accordingly they fitted out a formidable ſquadron of ſhips at Batavia, and entered into an alliance with the king of Johor, who attacked the city by land, while the Dutch inveſted it by ſea: but the invaders finding there was no poſſibility of reducing it, and hearing that the governor was a very ſordid, worthleſs man, the Dutch, by letters ſecretly conveyed to him, offered him a conſiderable premium, if he would facilitate the ſurrender of the fort. The bribe was accepted; the Dutch ſoon entered the place, and, to ſave the payment of the premium, murdered the governor.

Malacca is an extenſive and populous city, ſurrounded with a ſtone wall and baſtions. Many of the ſtreets are ſpacious and handſome, and ſhaded with trees on both ſides. The houſes ſtand pretty cloſe to each other, and are built chiefly of bamboos, though ſome of them are of ſtone. The governor's houſe is handſome and commodious, and is ſituated in the fort, garriſoned by 200 Europeans. The harbour is one of the beſt and ſafeſt in that part of the globe, and receives veſſels from moſt parts of the Indies. When poſſeſſed by the Portugueſe, the city was remarkably opulent, being a grand mart for precious ſtones and gold: and before the Dutch made Batavia the chief place of their commerce, it had all the rich commodities of Pegu, Coromandel, and other countries: but at preſent it has little commerce.

SECTION III.

THE KINGDOMS OF JOHOR, SINCAPOUR, PATANA, PAHAN, AND TRANGANO.

THE firſt of theſe kingdoms is about 100 leagues long, and 80 broad: it is the next country to the north of Malacca, and waſhed eaſt and weſt by the ocean. It lies in one degree north latitude.

The country, which is woody, abounds with tin, pepper, elephants teeth, gold, aquila wood, canes, citrons, lemons, &c. and among the quadrupeds are deer, cows, wild boars, and buffalos.

The inhabitants are characteriſed as cruel, treacherous, lazy and laſcivious. The common people, of both ſexes, wear nothing more than a piece of ſtuff round their waiſt. The females, in a ſuperior degree of life, wear callico garments, faſtened with a ſilken girdle. They paint their nails yellow, and the longer they are the more genteel. The iſlanders live principally upon ſago, fruits, roots, and poultry: but thoſe natives who reſide on the coaſt ſubſiſt, for the moſt part, upon fiſh and rice, brought from Java, Siam, and Cambodia.

About 1400 Chineſe families reſide here, who are diſtinguiſhed for their induſtry, and carry on a conſiderable traffic.

The natives, who are a mixture of Mahometans and Pagans, have prieſts ſent to them from Surat.

The Johor iſlands lie to the north-eaſt of Cape Romano, but produce nothing fit for carrying on commerce. Pulo-Aure, one of them, is peopled by Malays, who are ſaid to form a ſort of republic, headed by a chief. In this iſland are ſeveral mountains, which produce plenteous plantations of cocoa-trees. Articles in trade are purchaſed here with iron; and the people have the character of being very honeſt, friendly, and hoſpitable.

Sincapour, or Sincapora iſland and town, lie at the ſouthernmoſt point of the peninſula of Malacca, and give name to the ſouth-eaſt part of Malacca Straits. Here is a mountain which yields excellent diamonds, and ſugar-canes grow to a great ſize. The ſoil of Sincapour is fruitful, and the woods produce good timber for ſhip-building.

On the eaſtern coaſt of Siam lies Patana, which is about 60 miles long. Its port had once a conſiderable traffic with Coromandel, Malabar, Goa, China, Tonquin and Cambodia; but the traders unhappily finding no reſtriction put upon the commiſſion of piracies and murders, were under the neceſſity of withdrawing their commerce, and turning it into another courſe, highly beneficial to Siam, Malacca, and Batavia. Patana abounds with grain and fruits. Here are buffalos, fowls, and ſome of the moſt beautiful doves ever ſeen. The wild animals are tygers, monkies, elephants, &c.

The king of Patana can bring 18,000 troops into the field, and has more veſſels than any of the other neighbouring ſovereigns. The Chineſe bring hither a variety of articles in trade, and take conſiderable returns.

The natives, though proud, are kind and obliging, and remarkable for their ſobriety.

Pahan lies to the ſouth of Patana, on a river of the ſame name, in which there is much gold-duſt found. People of fortune reſide in the capital of Pahan, ſitua-

ted about 150 miles north-eaſt of Malacca. The city, which is but ſmall, has the appearance of a garden, from the number of cocoa and other trees planted in the ſtreets.

The king's palace is a wooden ſtructure, and the other buidings are in general of reeds and ſtraw.

Along the ſides of the river, which waſhes the foot of Malacca hill, is planted pepper. The adjacent country is low, woody, and well ſtored with game. Aquila and Calamba wood, coarſe gold, camphire, nutmegs, &c. are alſo produced here.

Pahan is well peopled, and carries on a conſiderable traffic; but the natives, who are Pagans and Mahometans, are reported to be the moſt arrant cheats in the world.

Trangano is ſituated next to Pahan, and is a fine healthy country. Its hills produce a plenty of rich fruits, ſuch as oranges, lemons, limes, darians, mangoſtans, mangos, &c. and the vallies teem with ſugar-canes and corn. Gold and pepper are likewiſe produced here, and are principally exported by the Chineſe reſident in this country.

The prince's palace ſtands on the banks of a fine river near the ocean; and the Chineſe carry on a conſiderable trade with the adjacent countries.

SECTION IV.

Of PERA and QUEDA.

THIS country, which is mountainous and woody, is famous for its produce of tin, there being more found here than in any other part of India. Pera, its capital, lies at the bottom of a bay about 150 miles north-weſt of Malacca. There are ſome hideous deſarts in this country, abounding with numbers of wild elephants, tygers, &c.

The people are mere barbarians, and of a moſt treacherous diſpoſition.

Queda (the capital of a ſmall territory of the ſame name) is a ſea-port town, diſtant from Patana 140 miles. When a foreign merchant comes here, the king pays him a viſit in perſon, not to compliment him on his arrival, but to receive preſents from him. The preſents, however, are not made till the viſit is repaid; and then the king honours the merchant with a ſeat near his royal perſon. His majeſty at the ſame time chews betel, and putting it out of his mouth on a ſmall golden plate, the merchant takes it with great reſpect, and puts it into his own mouth. The people are Mahometans and Pagans. The chief produce of the place is tin, pepper, elephants teeth, canes, and damer.

CHAP. XVIII.

EMPIRE OF SIAM.

SECTION I.

Name, Situation, Extent, Rivers, Diviſions, Subdiviſions, &c.

THE Portugueſe, and from them the reſt of the Europeans, call this country Siam; but by the natives, it is ſtiled Tai, or Freemen; though they have long been deprived of their liberty.

Siam, which is ſurrounded by mountains, is bounded on the eaſt by Cambodia and Cochin-China, on the weſt by the ſea, on the north by Pegu and Laos, and on the ſouth by Malacca and the bay of Siam.

Siam Proper (by ſome called Upper Siam, to diſtinguiſh it from the Lower, and which contains ſeven provinces, viz. Proſeloue, Sangueloue, Lacontai, Campengpet, Coconrepina, Pechekonne, and Pitchia) is ſituated in about the 11th degree of north latitude, and is ſuppoſed to be above 550 miles long, and 250 broad, though in ſome parts it is not more than about 50 miles in breadth.

The Menam, or, *Mother of Waters*, which is the chief river, diſcharges itſelf into the gulph of Siam. The ſource of this river is unknown to moſt of the inhabitants, or they mirepreſent it, in order to magnify its origin. Another great river is called the Mecon; this paſſes through Laos and Cambodia, and falls into the Indian ocean. A third river, named the Tenaſerin, falls into the bay of Bengal, forming the Iſle of Merguy, which has a moſt excellent harbour.

This country, ſurrounded with mountains, and having few hills, is one wide extended plain, with a great river branching and running through it from north to ſouth. Theſe mountains form two huge chains, one on the weſt, and the other on the eaſt ſide, diminiſhing gradually as they reach ſouthward. They yield diamonds, ſaphires, and agates.

The ſeven provinces of Siam Proper, or Upper Siam, have their names from their principal cities, which are ſituated near the ſea-coaſt, or on ſome of the rivers.

The winter here is dry, and the ſummer wet. Were it not that the ſun draws clouds and rain, and the wind blows from one pole when the ſun is declined towards the other, the torrid zone would doubtleſs be uninhabited. Thus in Siam that great luminary being to the ſouth of the line during winter, the north winds blow continually and cool the air. On the contrary, in the ſummer, while it is to the north of the line, and vertical to the Siameſe, the ſouth winds reign in their turn, and thus either cauſe inceſſant rains, or at leaſt diſpoſe the weather to be rainy. It is theſe winds which the Portugueſe call moncaos, and other nations monſoons; and hence it is that veſſels have ſuch difficulty to approach or depart from the bar of Siam. Thus the bleak winds of the frigid zones temper the exceſſive heat of the torrid, and the warm breezes of the torrid flow through and give genial warmth to the temperate, till they reach the frigid, and in ſome meaſure qualify that extreme cold, which, in thoſe inhoſpitable regions, benumb nature.

The principal places in Siam Proper are the following, viz.

Chantebon or Liam, which is ſituated near the gulph of Siam, at the mouth of a river to which it gives name. It is about a day's journey from the ſea, and has ſome conſiderable inland trade.

Bankaſoy is ſituated on a river near the bar of Siam. The king himſelf is the ſole merchant belonging to this place, for all the elephants teeth, ſapan, and aquila wood, is remitted to him. They make here the exquiſite ſauce called ballichang, on which the epicures of Siam regale; for many of the Siameſe fall martyrs to a luxurious appetite. The bellichang is a compoſition of cod, dried ſhrimps, pepper, ſalt, ſea-weed, &c. pounded together, and beaten to the conſiſtency of a paſte.

In the above-mentioned river are two ſmall iſlands belonging to the Dutch.

Bancock, ſituated about 50 miles ſouth of Siam, is remarkable for its large gardens, ſome of which extend three or four leagues in length, and are filled with trees that produce the moſt delicious fruits. The river Menan runs from hence to Siam, and its banks are adorned with many pleaſant villages, the houſes of which are made

made of bamboos, and erected upon ſtakes, on account of the inundations of the river, which would otherwiſe ſweep them away.

The king of Siam paſſes ſeveral months of the year at Louvo, for the ſake of having more freedom than in the metropolis, where he is obliged to be ſhut up, that his ſubjects may not loſe that profound reſpect which they entertain for him, by ſeeing him too often; for ſolitude and indolence are the chief characteriſtics of his dignity.

Upon a couch of down in theſe abodes,
Supine, with folded arms, he thoughtleſs nods;
No paſſions interrupt his eaſy reign;
No problems puzzle his lethargic brain;
But dull oblivion guards his peaceful bed,
And lazy fogs bedew his gracious head:
Thus at full length pamper'd monarchs lay,
Baſking in eaſe, and ſlumb'ring life away.

There is a communication between Louvo and Siam by means of a large canal, on each ſide of which are extenſive plains abounding with rice.

The king's palace at Louvo is a brick building, but exceeding capacious, and ſurrounded by fine gardens. The roof is covered with yellow tiles, which, when the ſun ſhines upon them, appear like gold. The town itſelf is populous, large, and pleaſant, and ſtands about the diſtance of 14 leagues from Siam.

Probat ſtands on a branch of the river Menan, about 65 miles north-eaſt of Louvo. The king of Siam annually repairs hither in grand proceſſion, to worſhip a mark in the rock, which is pretended to be the print of the foot of their idol Sommona-Codom.

Pourcelano, 320 miles from Siam, was formerly a conſiderable city, defended by fourteen baſtions, but has run to decay.

Six miles to the north of the laſt mentioned place is Menang-tan, celebrated on account of the pilgrimages made to it by many devotees of Siam, Pegu, Laos, &c. who repair hither to pay their reſpects to one of the above-mentioned idol, Sommona-Codom's teeth, which is here preſerved with great care.

Tennaſſerim, about 200 miles from Siam, is a place of conſiderable trade, ſituated on a river, to which it gives name.

Cui is a town near the former, from whence the king of Siam receives great quantities of tin and elephants teeth.

Margui, about 140 miles ſouth-weſt from Siam, is ſituated in an iſland near Tennaſſerim, and deemed the beſt port in India.

Ligor, the metropolis of a country of the ſame name, was formerly an independent ſtate of itſelf, but a few centuries ago was conquered by the Siameſe.

On the weſtern coaſt there is an iſland called Jonſalem, which was formerly a kingdom, but at preſent is of no importance.

Martaban, or Martavan, in the bay of Bengal, was once a kingdom, but is now only a Siameſe province. It produces corn, oranges, lemons, figs, pears, cheſnuts, medicinal plants, oil of Jeſſamin, gold, ſteel, iron, lead, copper, rubies, lacque, bonzoin, &c.

On the weſtern coaſt of Siam are three cluſters of iſlands, viz.

1. The Nicobar iſlands, which are ſituated about 90 leagues from the continent, and 120 north-weſt from Sumatra. The middle cluſter are all well inhabited except one, and the land in general is very fertile. They are called Sombrero. But the northern cluſter, named Carnicubars, are not ſo populous. The inhabitants, who are of a tawny complexion, paint their faces with various colours, and the dreſs of the prieſts is ſingularly whimſical: their cloaths fit them ſo cloſe, that they ſeem to be ſewed up in them. They wear horns on their heads turning backwards, which, as well as their faces, are painted green, yellow, and black.

About eight miles to the ſouth of Sambrero are two well inhabited and fertile iſlands, called Ning and Gowry; the inhabitants of which will ſell a hog for three feet of iron hoop, and a pig for one foot. They ſpeak a broken kind of Portugueſe, and are ſo fond of tobacco, that they will give a fowl for a leaf of it.

The ſouthern cluſter of the Nicobars are very mountainous, and the people much more ſavage than thoſe of the middle and northern cluſters.

The inhabitants of theſe iſlands worſhip the moon, and venerate certain grottos in the rocks as temples. The men ſcrupulouſly confine themſelves to one woman; and murder and theft are ſeldom heard of among them.

Nicobar, properly ſo called, which is the principal of theſe iſlands, and gives name to the reſt, is near 100 miles north of Sumatra, about 10 leagues in length, and 4 in breadth; is watered by many rivulets, and is very fertile. The inhabitants are robuſt, well made, and in their apparel reſemble the people of the neighbouring continent. They employ themſelves principally in fiſhing, and are ſome of the moſt expert ſwimmers in the univerſe. The Engliſh ſhips bound to Sumatra uſually touch at this iſland.

2. The Andeman Iſlands lie in 13 deg. north lat. about 100 leagues north of Sumatra: they are well inhabited by a bold ſavage people.

3. The Cocoa Iſlands, 35 leagues weſt-ſouth-weſt of cape Negrais, produce a great abundance of cocoa-trees, but are uninhabited.

SECTION II.

Soil. Mineral, Vegetable, and Animal Productions. Agriculture.

SIAM may be ſaid to conſiſt of cultivated and uncultivated land. There is ſcarce a flint to be found in the whole country. The land ſeems to be formed by the mud deſcending from the mountains; to which mud, and the overflowings of the river, the ſoil owes its fertility; for in the higher places, and parts not reached by the inundation, all is dried and burnt up with the ſun ſoon after the rains are over.

This country had once the reputation of being very rich in mines; and, indeed, this appears from the great number of ſtatues and other caſt works that are here, many of which are of gold. M. Vincent, a French phyſician, diſcovered a mine of very good ſteel, and another of cryſtal: alſo a mine of antimony, and another of emery; excluſive of a quarry of white marble, and a rich gold mine. The latter mine, however, he concealed from the natives. They have plenty of tin which, however, is rendered hard, as well as white, by being mixed with kedmia, a mineral reduced eaſily to powder; and it is this white tin which is called tutenage. M. Vincent, during his ſtay at Siam, taught the inhabitants the art of ſeparating and purifying metals.

There is a mountain near the city of Louvo which produces loadſtones; and there is another near Jonſalam, on the Malacca coaſt; but theſe minerals, it is ſaid, ſoon loſe their virtue.

Thoſe trees in Siam are the moſt profitable which produce cotton, oil, and varniſh. Indeed the bamboo may be ranked with them, it growing to a prodigious ſize, and being of the utmoſt utility.

In the foreſts is produced timber for ſhip-building, houſe-building, &c. Here is a wood that will not cleave, and is called woodmary by the Europeans. Cinnamon-trees are natives of Siam, but not ſo good as thoſe of Ceylon.

The iron wood which grows here furniſhes anchors. There is likewiſe a wood as light as fir, and of the ſame colour, but more fit for carving, as it always ſtands the chiſſel.

The chief grain uſed here is rice; but wheat is ſometimes ſown upon the land that the inundation does not extend

extend to. This is watered by ſmall channels cut through the fields.

The natives rear pulſe and roots in their gardens; and they have radiſhes, garlic, and potatoes; but no parſnips, carrots, onions or turnips; nor have they any of the kind of herbs that we make uſe of in Europe.

Of flowers here are tuberoſes, jeſſamins, gilly-flowers, tricolets, amaranthuſes, &c. but theſe have not the fragrance of the European flowers. Oranges, lemons, citrons, and pomegranates, grow here, but no other fruit known in Europe. Here are mangoſtans, tamarinds, bananas, ananas, mangos, durians, &c.

The animals here are tygers, elephants, horſes, oxen, buffalos, ſheep, and goats. There are ſome hares, but no rabbits. As to deer, there is a great plenty of them,

The birds are peacocks, doves, pigeons, partridges, ſnipes, parrots, ſparrows, and various others. A bird, called the Noktho, is a very remarkable one: it is larger than an oſtrich, and has a bill near three feet in length.

The inſects are white ants, marin-gowins, or gnats, millepedes or palmer-worms, &c.

In tilling their land the Siameſe employ both oxen and buffalos. Theſe they guide by a cord run through the griſtle of the noſes of the animals, with a knot on each ſide, that it may not ſlip: it alſo paſſes through a hole or ring at the head of the machine uſed for plowing. Nothing can be more ſimple than this plough: it conſiſts of three pieces of wood; one is a long beam, which ſerves for the draught-tree or pole; another is crooked, ſerving for the handle; the third is a ſtrong ſhort piece faſtened underneath at the end of the handle; and it is this which bears the ſhare. The whole is fixed together by leathern thongs.

SECTION III.

Perſons, Dreſs, Manners, Cuſtoms, Marriages, Funeral Ceremonies, &c. of the Natives.

THE natives of this country are of ſmall ſtature, and well proportioned: their complexions are tawny, and both ſexes have broad faces: their eyes are ſmall, their mouths large, their lips thick, their noſes ſhort, and their jaws hollow. Their hair is black, thick, and lank: each ſex has it cut ſo ſhort as to reach only to the top of their ears, which are particularly large. Both men and women dye their teeth black. The great men are ſaid to paint their legs blue, but the ladies never uſe any paint at all.

The dreſs of people of diſtinction is a piece of calico or ſilk, about two ells and a half long, which reaches to their knees. Great officers and placemen wear, beſides, a muſlin ſhirt, as a ſort of veſt. The king wears a veſt of brocaded ſattin under his ſhirt, with ſleeves reaching to his wriſts.

From the Mahometans aroſe the uſe of popuſhes or ſlippers, a kind of pointed ſhoe, without either quarter or heel, which they leave at the doors of the houſes they enter, to avoid ſoiling the rooms. They approve of hats for travelling; though very few cover their heads from the ſun's heat, except on rivers, where the refraction may be too violent.

The natives of Siam, in general, are remarkably clean and neat: they bathe three or four times a day, and perfume themſelves. They waſh their hair with water and ſweet oil, and keep their black dyed teeth as clean as poſſible. They apply a pomatum to their lips to render them pale; for pale lips and black teeth are the marks of delicacy and beauty.

Thoſe of the women as do not chooſe to bathe have water poured upon them. They never go quite naked into a river, the idea of infamy in the ſex being affixed to nakedneſs: nor can a greater affront be offered to a Siameſe lady, than the introducing any obſcene converſation.

The Siameſe have very clear ideas, and are extremely ſmart in converſation. They are by nature kind and complaiſant, though rather haughty when too much ſubmiſſion is ſhewn them. They abhor both drunkenneſs and adultery, and a ſincere affection ſubſiſts between men and their wives, who bring up their offspring to be as temperate, modeſt, obliging, and affectionate as themſelves. They are partial to the cuſtoms of their anceſtors, and little admire the curioſities of foreign countries. They are timorous, careleſs, indolent, and have an averſion to the ſpilling of human blood.

Rice and fiſh are their uſual food. The ſea yields them very excellent fiſh of all kinds. They have fine lobſters, delicate little turtles, and ſmall oyſters, beſides a variety of fiſh that the Europeans are unacquainted with. Here, too, are very fine river fiſh, particularly eels. They, however, prefer dry ſalt fiſh, even though it ſtinks; and they eat mice, rats, locuſts, and lizards.

They are ſo moderate, that a pound of rice, which coſts about a farthing, with a little ſalt fiſh, of no greater value, will ſerve a Siameſe the whole day. Their ſauce is only a little water, mixed with ſpices or herbs. They have a favourite diſh called ba-la-chaun, made of ſmall fiſh reduced to a maſh. They drink arrack, which is very cheap, or elſe common water.

When they receive company they drink tea, but do not put ſugar into their cups, as we do: they put a bit of ſugar-candy into their mouths, and ſip the tea.

Great ſubordination is obſerved here. Servants and ſlaves, when in the preſence of their ſuperiors, muſt never ſtand, but kneel, or ſit on their heels, with their heads inclined a little, and their hands raiſed to their foreheads. When inferior people paſs their ſuperiors in the ſtreet, they bow the body, join their hands, and raiſe them to their heads. In viſits, an inferior proſtrates himſelf, and never ſpeaks till ſpoken to by the perſon to whom he makes the viſit; for the perſon of ſuperior rank muſt always ſpeak firſt. The viſited offers his place to the viſitant, and preſents him with fruit, betel, &c.

The right hand is looked upon as more honourable than the left; and that part of a room oppoſite the door is always offered to a viſitor. If there be much company, they are all ſeated according to their reſpective ranks in life.

Notwithſtanding their general ceremonies, the Siameſe are, in ſome inſtances, rather indecent; for they belch without reſtraint, and wipe off the ſweat from their faces with their fingers.

The children have much docility, and natural ſweetneſs of diſpoſition. They are inſtructed to expreſs great modeſty in every action, and all poſſible ſubmiſſion to their ſuperiors. Parents are the more careful in the education of their children, as as they are accountable for their offences.

Their method of travelling is riding on the buffalo, the ox, and the elephant. Every perſon has an unlimited privilege to hunt and take a wild elephant, but he muſt not kill him. The female is employed in common uſes, and the male is trained for war.

Perſons of rank alſo ride in chairs or ſedans, which are ſquare, with flat ſeats placed on biers, and are carried on mens ſhoulders. To ſome there are eight men, to others four. The Europeans have the privilege of riding in palanquins, or canopied couches, carried on mens ſhoulders. Umbrellas are not allowed but to ſuch natives as have the king's royal ſanction for them.

Daughters are here diſpoſed of in marriage at a very early age. If the parents of the maiden approve of her lover, they conſult an aſtrologer, after the match has been propoſed by a woman advanced in years. The fortune-teller is to inform them whether the match will be happy or not; that is, in fact, he is to know whether the man be opulent or not; for ſuch is the deſpotiſm of the government, that individuals are obliged to hide their wealth. If the anſwer of the aſtrologer be favourable

favourable, the lover makes three formal viſits to his miſtreſs. On the third viſit the relations of the parties meet, when the young lady's portion is paid, and the marriage is looked upon as fully completed, without further ceremony, for the preſent. However, a few days afterwards the new-married couple are ſprinkled with water appropriated for that purpoſe, and prayers are offered to heaven for their felicity. The wedding is then celebrated with feaſting, dancing, and muſic, at the houſe of the bride's father.

Although men have the liberty of marrying ſeveral wives, very few, except the higher claſſes, marry more than one; and this is done rather for grandeur and ſtate, than from motives of either convenience or regard.

Amongſt the ordinary claſs, women work here for their huſbands, and maintain them during the whole time they are in the ſervice of the prince, which is about ſix months in the year. They till the land, buy and ſell goods, and do other neceſſary buſineſs.

Divorce is here tolerated, on condition that the huſband reſtores to his wife the portion ſhe brought him. In this caſe the children are divided equally between the diſuniting parties, who are at liberty to marry again as ſoon as they pleaſe.

Their dead here are buried in lacquered coffins: theſe they place upon a table till every neceſſary preparation is made for the funeral. In the mean time they light up tapers, and burn perfumes. The talapoins, or prieſts, aſſemble, and ſing ſtanzas, for which they are well requited by the relations of the deceaſed. The corps, in proper time, is taken into the fields to be burnt. The pile is made near ſome temple, in a ſquare ſpot of ground fenced with bamboo. The body is decorated with guilt and ſtained paper, repreſentatives of birds flowers, fruits, &c. which are for the uſe of the deceaſed in the other world, where ſuch emblems are ſuppoſed to be animated and realized.

Various inſtruments of ſolemn muſic attend the proceſſion of the corps to the funeral pile, and the mourners are all dreſſed in white.

When they arrive at the place of interment, the body is taken out of the coffin, and laid on the pile; then the prieſts ſing, and a fire-work is ſoon played off. About noon (for it is in the morning the dead are thus carried) the pile is ſet fire to, and the aſhes of the deceaſed are afterwards depoſited in ſome part of the temple.

The poorer ſort of people do not burn the bodies of their deceaſed relations, but either privately inter them, or elſe expoſe them on a ſcaffold in the open field, where they are devoured by birds of prey.

The Talapoins or prieſts teach the doctrine of tranſmigration, and inculcate many tenets equally abſurd and paradoxical. They allow foreigners, however, the practice of all religions.

The principles of the Siameſe morals are reduced to five negative precepts.

The firſt precept, "kill nothing," is extended to vegetables and ſeeds, as well as animals; becauſe they believe the ſeed contains the plant, or is only the plant itſelf under a cover. The perſon, therefore, who keeps the precept inviolate, can live ſolely upon fruit, which they conſider only as part of a thing that has life, and which thing does not ſuffer by having its fruit plucked from it: but in eating the fruit, the kernel muſt not be devoured, as being a ſeed. The precept even forbids the deſtruction of any thing in nature; they believe, that to break a branch of a tree, is like breaking the arm of an innocent man, and offends the ſoul of the tree; but when once the ſoul has been diſlodged from any body, they think there is no crime in feeding upon the latter. They have methods of evading many of the rules ordained by their religion.

The ſecond precept, "ſteal nothing," is moſt ſtrictly and religiouſly obſerved, as is the third generally, "commit no impurity." The fourth, "lie not, nor ſlander," is enforced with great warmth and zeal by the talapoins, and obſerved, as much as the frailty of the human heart will admit, by their diſciples. The fifth and laſt precept, "drink no intoxicating liquors," prohibits not only the drinking ſtrong liquors to exceſs, but even the drinking them at all.

SECTION IV.

Account of the Talapoins and Talapoineſſes.

THERE are two claſſes of the talapoins, thoſe of the woods, and thoſe of the towns; but as any perſon who is learned may become a talapoin, he who inclines to enter into the brotherhood firſt applies properly for admiſſion, and then aſſumes their habit which is a garment of various colours.

A talapoin is never ſuffered to intermeddle in any but religious affairs; nor muſt be, if avariciouſly inclined, in the leaſt ſhew it: he muſt never adorn his apparel, or betray any particular fondneſs for women.

The ſpirit of the inſtitution of his order is to lead a life of devotion and penitence for the ſins of other people. They ſubſiſt entirely upon alms, and are conſtrained ſo long as they continue to follow their profeſſion, to live ſingle, on pain of being burnt.

Theſe fathers educate children, and at every new and full moon expound the principles of their religion in the temples. When the rivers ſwell, they preach conſtantly every day, both morning and afternoon, till the inundation ſubſides. They relieve each other, and ſit croſs-legged, in a high ſtate chair; and when each concludes his ſermon, the people give him alms: ſo that thoſe who are induſtrious in preaching ſoon become rich.

After harveſt, the talapoins of the towns go every night, for three weeks ſucceſſively, to watch in the fields, under little huts, and in the day return and ſleep in their cells, near the temples. In the center of their temporary habitations ſtands the hut of a ſuperior.

At dawn of day the talapoins riſe and waſh themſelves. They then attend their ſuperior to the temple, and ſpend two hours in prayer and ſinging hymns, which are engraved in the Bali tongue upon long and broad leaves. Both the talapoins and the people proſtrate themſelves three times upon entering as well as leaving the temple. The object of their homage is a great idol in the building. When ſervice is over the prieſts go and beg alms in the ſtreet. Their begging is of a peculiar nature: they have an iron bowl in a piece of linen, which they throw acroſs their ſhoulders, by means of a cord, and then fix themſelves at ſome door, without opening their lips. The people, however, generally give them ſomething, and, with whatever they get they repair to the temple, to make an offering of it to the idol. After breakfaſt they apply themſelves to ſtudy, and the inſtruction of their pupils. In the afternoon they ſleep; and towards night, after ſpending two hours in prayer and ſinging, they refreſh themſelves with ſome fruit, and retire to their natural reſt.

The ſuperior is called Chaw Vat, or a lord of the convent. The higheſt, however, in office, is the Sankrat, who ordains the talapoins, as our biſhops do their prieſts.

The talapoins have great privileges granted them. Among others they are exempt from ſervices under the king, who therefore, leſt they become too numerous cauſes them to be examined at particular times, as to their knowledge of the Bali language, and of the holy writings. If they are not deemed ſufficiently learned, he reduces them to a ſecular ſtate.

The talapoineſſes are nuns who live with the talapoins in the ſame convents, which convents are a number of ſingle houſes ſtanding upon bamboo pillars, at a ſmall diſtance from each other.

Though the talapoineſſes reſide with the men in the ſame convents, yet, as they are never admitted till they are old, there is no apprehenſion of a criminal connexion.

Every perſon who goes to a convent goes there entirely by choice, and has liberty to leave it whenever he or ſhe pleaſes.

SECTION V.

The Laws of Siam, Manner of Trial, and Nature of Punishment.

THE governor of every province of Siam is vested with the sole command, both in civil and military concerns. The laws enjoin an unlimited obedience from children to their parents, and subject the former entirely to the jurisdiction of the latter.

Some of their punishments are equitable and rational, others ridiculous and barbarous. That for robbery is the being obliged to pay double the value of the effects stolen, or the suffering corporal punishment, as the delinquent may perhaps have no effects to compensate.

He who wrongfully keeps possession of another man's estate is considered in the light of a thief or robber; so that when ejected by law, he is not only obliged to give up the inheritance to its right owner, but also to pay, exclusively, the full value of such estate; half of which goes to the party injured, and the other half to the judge who tries the cause.

Those convicted of rebellion are ripped up alive. Those of treason or murder are trampled to death by elephants. If a great man of the court be detected in embezzling any of the royal treasure, they pour melted lead or melted metal down his throat. Omissions in a general execution of orders are punished by cutting the head with a sword, called pricking the head, as if to punish the memory. The bastinado is sometimes exercised in a very rigorous manner. Almost the smallest appearance of guilt confirms the crime; and to be accused is nearly enough to render a man culpable. When a person, however, designs to prosecute another, he is obliged to draw up a petition, in which he states his complaint, and presents it to the Nai, or chief, who conveys it to the governor of the province in which the offence was committed. When every thing is prepared for trial, the parties have summonses sent them to make their personal appearance in court, where, merely by way of form, they are advised to compromise matters. At length, however, the governor fixes upon a day for all parties to attend again, and on this day, if sufficient testimonies are not produced as to matter of fact, and admissible defences made, both plaintiff and defendant are constrained to walk upon red-hot coals, and he who escapes unhurt is looked upon to be innocent. In some cases the parties are obliged to put their hands into boiling oil: and in both these ordeal trials, by some dexterous management, one or the other of the parties is said to remain unhurt.

A French writer relates, that a Frenchman from whom a Siamese had stolen some tin, not having sufficient proof to convict him, was advised to put his hand into a pot of boiling oil, with this assurance, that if he was just in his accusation, the oil could not possibly hurt him. The Frenchman agreed to the trial, but almost consumed his hand, whilst the Siamese, who had readily submitted to the same proof, drew his hand out of the oil unhurt.

There is also a proof in this country, by placing the parties under water, and he who can remain there longest is supposed to be innocent. Sometimes emetic pills are administered, and he who can keep them on his stomach without vomiting is looked upon as guiltless. "These trials (says an author) are made in the presence of the king and magistrates; and it sometimes happens that the former causes both plaintiff and defendant to be thrown to tygers, and if either of the persons has the good fortune to escape, he is deemed innocent."

Appeals are frequently made from one province to another; and the president of the tribunal, in the city of Siam, can reverse a judgment given in any of them, except the province appeals to the king: so that where the parties are opulent, a suit is sometimes very tedious and expensive: and when the poorer sort of people have formidable adversaries to cope with, their innocence is but a slender shield to them. Suits ought always to end in three days, but some last as many years.

Having spoken of the punishment inflicted for treason, we shall add a quotation from an author who treats of the trial of Captain Hamilton for that offence, at Siam, in the year 1719.

"In 1719, Captain Hamilton being at Siam, and conversing with Oya Sennerat, a man in power, about some alteration in the English treaty of commerce, happened to say, that "the king had been imposed on." Now it seems that the merely saying that the king of Siam can in any thing be deceived is treason. The captain was therefore in a few days taken into custody, and brought to a court of justice, where Oya Sennerat appeared against him, and brought as evidence one Collison, who affirmed he had heard the captain utter the words in the Indostan language: but Collison being asked by the judge if he understood that language, and the former acknowledging he did not, the captain was acquitted. Had he been convicted, he would have been immediately executed on the spot, the elephants being ready."

Crimes of an inferior nature are usually punished in a very equitable manner: for lying, the mouth is sewed up. A cheat is obliged to walk about several days with a small wooden pillory about his neck: and one who is guilty of assaulting another with a malicious intent, is sentenced to be quickset, that is, set in the ground up to the shoulders, and his head severely buffetted about. In these rational punishments strict equity seems to deal her judgments with impartiality.

In Siam, as well as other places, favour may be bought. Equity is frequently sacrified to a bribe, and the smiles of the law are disposed of to the best bidder.

Laws bear the name, but money has the power:
The cause is bad whene'er the client's poor.
Those strict-liv'd men, that seem above our world,
Are oft too modest to resist our gold;
So *judgment*, like our other wares, is sold;
And the grave knight that nods upon the laws,
Wak'd by a fee— Hems! and approves the cause."

One excellent custom, however, prevails here, which is, that none are permitted to upbraid a delinquent with his offence, after he has suffered the sentence of the law. Nay, the crime is so little thought of, after the punishment has been inflicted, that the person is caressed as much as ever; and an offender, who is one day in the utmost disgrace, may the next be advanced to the highest dignity.

SECTION VI.

Languages, and Skill in the Sciences.

IN this country there are two languages spoken, the Siamese and the Bali. The former consists chiefly of monosyllables, that have neither conjugation or declension. The latter is the learned language.

Arithmetic is much studied here. In it they use ten figures, as we do, and are very ready in casting up accounts.

Oratory is not much cultivated; nor have they the art of printing among them: books are engraved with an iron pencil.

Of philosophy they have very slender conceptions: and as to the laws of their country, these they do not study, unless placed in some office where a knowledge of them is essentially requisite.

They know nothing of astronomy, but think that eclipses are occasioned by a mighty dragon ready to destroy both the sun and moon, and therefore make a great noise with brass pans, &c. to frighten away the monster. They believe the earth to be square, on the extremities of which the arch of the firmament rests.

Their calendar has been regulated twice by able European astronomers, who have taken two remarkable epochas; the first refers to the years 545 before Christ; the second to the year 638 after Christ. Their year they divide

divide into three ſeaſons, beginning it at the firſt moon of November or December. They have no clocks, but judge of the time by the ſun. They have four watches for the night: and in a court of the royal palace there is an hollow veſſel with a ſmall hole therein; and this, ſet upon water, gradually lets it in, till it ſinks juſt as the hour expires; and then particular perſons about the palace ſtrike loudly upon copper baſons, to proclaim the expiration of the hour.

No affairs of conſequence are ever undertaken without a previous conſultation with ſome prophetic and learned ſage, in the ſublime ſcience of aſtronomy.

There are ſome phyſicians among them; but theſe muſt act with great caution; for if they preſcribe for the king or royal family, and do not give relief, they are ſeverely cudgeled. They cure moſt diſeaſes by ſudorifics. Their whole practice of phyſic conſiſts in uſing certain receipts, handed down from their anceſtors. They ſometimes preſcribe purgatives, but very ſeldom emetics. The chief diſeaſes are fluxes and dyſenteries; and the ſmall pox often makes great havock amongſt them. When a patient is paſt all cure, they ſay he is enchanted.

An author, ſpeaking of theſe people, ſays, "They know nothing of chymiſtry, though they paſſionately affect it; and ſome boaſt of profound ſecrets. A king of Siam once ſpent a prodigious ſum in ſearch of the philoſopher's ſtone."

Their muſical inſtruments are a kind of violin, with three ſtrings, and a ſhrill hautboy; alſo little drums and copper baſons; but neither play nor ſing by any kind of notes. They have alſo a trumpet, that makes a very harſh noiſe.

On the king's going out, and the whole royal band attending him, the ſounds have an extraordinary effect upon an European ear.

SECTION VII.

Power, Palace, Guards, Elephants, and Female Attendants of the King. His annual Proceſſions, Army, Navy, and Revenues.

HAUGHTINESS and deſpotiſm are the diſtinguiſhing characteriſtics of the king of Siam. He is almoſt adored by his ſubjects. Even his miniſters, when in council, never muſt preſume to ſpeak to him but upon their knees. His palace is a moſt ſplendid edifice, ſituated on an eminence, and may be compared to a city, ſo extenſive is it, and ſo grand are its ſeveral pyramids, &c. This ſuperb pile, which ſtands on the north ſide of the city of Siam, and is built with brick, is ſurrounded by three incloſures, and ſpacious courts between each wall. The apartments of the king and queen are in the innermoſt court, which includes ſeveral elegant gardens. The people always proſtrate themſelves on entering or quitting this inner court.

His majeſty has alſo two bodies of horſe-guards, who are natives of Laos and Moen; and a third, compoſed partly of the natives of Indoſtan and Chineſe Tartary. Theſe horſe-guards always attend his majeſty when he goes abroad: but it muſt be obſerved, they are never ſuffered to be within the palace gates.

The ſtables of the beſt elephants and horſes are in the firſt incloſure of the royal palace: the former are named by the king, and attended with great care: that which has the moſt honourable name is treated with the greater reſpect. They have always their rich trappings on when taken out of the ſtables; and the people have an opinion, that theſe ſagacious animals poſſeſs the ſouls that formerly lived in the bodies of great and famous men. The king will never ride upon a white elephant, from a notion that it is animated with the ſoul of ſome prince. His majeſty, however, is ſtiled king of the white elephant; a title, however, which the king of Pegu diſputes with him.

Ladies only are allowed to attend his Sameſe majeſty in his bedchamber, they dreſs and undreſs him, except indeed putting on his night cap, which he does himſelf, as nobody muſt touch his head. His proviſions are dreſſed by females alſo, who wait on him at table, after ſome little ceremony between them and the eunuchs, with regard to bringing in the diſhes.

The eldeſt ſon of the queen does not always ſucceed to the crown, but generally the eldeſt ſon of the king, by the firſt concubine that brings him a child. Daughters never inherit the throne.

The king, when he goes abroad, either rides upon an elephant, moſt richly capariſoned, or is carried in a grand chair. Once a year he paſſes through the city, with a numerous train of elephants, and bands of muſic. The populace, during the proceſſion, fall proſtrate at the approach of his majeſty, and riſe, after he has paſſed them, to gaze at him.

His majeſty alſo ſhews himſelf once a year on the river in a grand balon, covered with a rich canopy; ſeveral thouſand other balons are ſeen upon the water at the ſame time, forming a moſt elegant ſight. He is rowed to a temple on the oppoſite ſhore, where the prieſts pray for him, and preſent him with a couple of yards of cotton cloth, ſpun and woven on that day. At ſun-ſet he leaves the temple, and is rowed back to the palace.

An author, ſpeaking of the king of Siam's water proceſſion, ſays, "his reaſon for honouring the river and his people at this time is to forbid the water riſing above ſuch an height, or to continue increaſing above ſuch a number of days: however, it often diſobeys his majeſty's commands."

No officer or other perſon muſt ever preſume to approach the king in his royal apartment, without a previous order given him: this is a law made for the prince's ſafety.

Nor muſt the great officers viſit each other privately; the viſit muſt be on ſome public occaſion; and they muſt always ſpeak loud, ſo as to be heard; for if they ſpeak in a low tone of voice, it is ſuſpected they are conſpiring againſt the ſtate.

Though it is high treaſon to ſay the king can be deceived, yet he is often and eaſily deceived; for all informers are diſhoneſt, and the Indian princes love to be flattered; the courtiers conceal their real ſentiments from their prince, and the prince conceals his own from them: they muſt never preſume to point out any error the ſovereign has committed, or be ſo bold as to tell him that it is impoſſible to execute what he commands; they therefore implicitly obey him, and if they miſcarry, excuſe the miſcarriage afterwards in the gentleſt terms.

The common people live in much greater ſecurity and happineſs than the nobility and officers of the crown; for honours here never lead to happineſs, but to anxiety, dread, and a perpetual diſturbance of mind. "The common people, ſays a reſpectable author, enjoy pleaſures which their ſuperiors are ſtrangers to; nor indeed are they ſo liable to be oppreſſed as the ſubjects of ſome other countries, free acceſs to the throne being always had when complaints are to be made."

The Sameſe order of encampment and battle is thus: the army arranges itſelf in three lines, and each line is compoſed of three great ſquare batallions, the king being in the center one. The nine batallions thus formed, each has ſixteen male elephants in the rear, accompanied by two females, beſide others of thoſe animals for carrying baggage, &c. The Sameſe rely much on their elephants, who, when they are wounded, often turn back on their maſters, and throw the whole army into diſorder.

The engagement begins with a diſcharge of artillery, with which they have been ſupplied by the Portugueſe, and then they exerciſe their arrows, but never come to a cloſe engagement.

An author ſays, "the armies of Siam, and indeed all the neighbouring countries who hold the metempſychoſis or tranſmigration of ſouls, buſy themſelves only in making ſlaves; and the uſual way among them of waging

waging war, is to invade each other's dominions in different parts, at the ſame time, and to carry off whole villages into captivity."

The king of Siam's navy conſiſts of about half a dozen capital ſhips, the crews of which are foreigners; he has, however, excluſive of theſe, about ſixty gallies of war; but they are ſmall, with only one man to an oar, who is obliged to row ſtanding, the oar being ſo ſhort, for lightneſs ſake, that if not held perpendicularly, it would not touch the water. The king, in his naval expeditions, only makes repriſals on ſuch of his neighbours as injure him in his commerce. His royal balons, or pleaſure barges, conſiſt of about an hundred and fifty, and are very magnificent.

The revenues of the king ariſe from cultivated lands, exports and imports, veſſels, gardens, fruits, fines, confiſcations, &c. &c. His treaſury is immenſely rich.

SECTION VIII.

The Nobility, great Officers of State, and Ambaſſadors.

NEITHER dignity of birth, nor extent of poſſeſſions, but the prince's favour alone, conſtitute nobility in this country. He ſometimes ennobles people of the very meaneſt extraction, provided they have any particular ſervices to recommend them. To theſe he gives, as a mark of diſtinction, either a golden or ſilver bouſſette to hotel their betel.

The king of Siam has many lords, who are peculiarly attached to his royal perſon: theſe always live within the palace. Others there are, who are employed without, to govern affairs, and preſerve good order among the people. The rank of each nobleman is diſtinguiſhed, when he appears abroad, by the richneſs of his ſword, as well as other marks of honour. The ladies are alſo diſtinguiſhed in proportion to their reſpective ranks.

The officers of ſtate reſiding in the capital muſt daily attend in ſome part of the palace, except they have leave of abſence, on pain of being ſeverely whipped with ſplit rattans, which cut deep in the fleſh.

In Siam ambaſſadors are conſidered in a very inferior light, being deemed only the ſpecial meſſengers of the princes whom they repreſent. Thoſe who come from the neighbouring ſovereigns, that are dependent on, or connected with, the emperor of Siam, are obliged to proſtrate themſelves before him, and advance towards him, creeping on their hands and knees. Ambaſſadors from Aſiatic monarchs are treated with ſome trifling degree of greater reſpect. But the European ambaſſadors are exempted from many of the ceremonials which the others are obliged to obſerve. They muſt not, however, attempt to open their lips till the emperor has firſt ſpoken; and, when they do ſpeak, to be very brief, a long harangue being deemed an egregious inſult.

SECTION IX.

Deſcription of the City of Siam.

SIAM, the metropolis of the Siameſe empire, is in 14 deg. north lat. and 101 deg. 5 min. long. its circumference is 10 miles; and many canals, whoſe ſources are in the river Menan, paſs through it; as they are navigable, the conveniency to the inhabitants is very great. The walls are thick and high, built of ſtone and bricks, of both which materials ſome of the bridges are erected, though moſt are built of wood. The only public ſtructures worth notice are the temples, which are ſo gilded on the outſide, that the effulgence of the ſun-beams, reflected from them, dazzle the eyes of the beholders. In one of the latter, which is a ſquare building, are 100 idols, placed in niches four feet from the ground. They are as big as life, ſit croſs legged, and are all gilt. The figures of dreadful dragons are placed at the gates of the temples. All the houſes are built of timber or cane, except in one ſtreet which contains 200 brick dwellings of only one ſtory. The markets here are well ſtocked with cattle, wild and tame, rice, fruits, pulſe, roots, &c. The trade conſiſts of the admirable gems of Pegu, ſilver bullion, manufactured iron, broad ſtammel cloth, looking glaſſes, &c. China wares are cheaper than at Bantam. The river will contain veſſels of 400 tons burthen, and divides the city into eight parts.

The walls and floors of the houſes are of cane materials, covered with mats; the windows are holes in the ſides, which are always open; the ſtair caſes are ladders; the chimnies are apertures in the roof, and their fire place is only a baſket of earth in the middle of the room. The cattle are kept in the houſes for fear of inundations. The principal pieces of furniture are, a ſmall couch covered with a mat, which ſerves for a ſeat by day, and a bed by night; but when they retire to reſt, a mattreſs ſtuffed with cotton is added in lieu of a bed; many have likewiſe a ſheet, a quilt and pillow; the reſt of the furniture conſiſts of lacquered tables, cabinets with drawers, copper and earthen veſſels, china ware, &c. Beſides which, every family has a cheſt of working tools.

The ſovereign claims ſix months labour from all his male ſubjects; if he is at war, they are inrolled as ſoldiers; but if it is a time of peace, they are employed in agriculture, mining, building, fiſhing, rowing, &c. They are divided into bands, each of which is under the direction of a proper officer who frequently ſupplies their neceſſities by lending them money, paying their creditors, &c. but this often turns out to his own advantage, as all who are inſolvent become his ſlaves. Thoſe who row the emperor's balons, barges, and gondolas, are branded in the wriſts to be peculiarly diſtinguiſhed; they are better fed than ſuch as belong to the other bands; but at the ſame time they are harder worked and oftner corrected.

Thus all the advantage which from dreſs they gain,
Is loſt in puniſhment, and ſunk in pain;
While the ſtill greater ſlav'ry renders crude
The fineſt ſauces to the daintieſt food.

SECTION X.

Hiſtory of Siam.

THE hiſtory of Siam cannot be traced with any degree of certainty, previous to the year 1300, nor do the Siameſe themſelves pretend to be poſſeſſed of any ancient records.

The Portugueſe affirm, that in 1511, when they took the city of Malacca, it was governed by an Arabian prince, named Mahomet, who was totally independent of the Siameſe ſovereign. From the above æra nothing remarkable happens till 1640, when the Dutch took Malacca, (which they ſtill retain) from the Portugueſe.

In 1648 the general of the Siameſe troops, being popular among the ſoldiers, and having the army at his devotion, took occaſion to quarrel with his ſovereign in order to dethrone him. This he effected, and deprived his maſter of life, by pounding him to death in a large iron mortar with a wooden peſtle. The ſecretary of ſtate was kept confined three years with the Siameſe pillory about his neck, and was never, during that time, permitted to quit his dungeon, but when he was taken out to be ſeverely laſhed, in order to make him accuſe ſome of the principal people of having accumulated riches by clandeſtine means, that the uſurper, might have ſome pretext to plunder them. The uſurper however, enjoyed but little ſatisfaction from reigning; as he lived the martyr of guilt and ſlave of ſuſpicion; his crimes increaſed his fears, and his fears multiplied his crimes, for, while his conſcience tormented him with the idea of the murders he had done, the dread of being himſelf murdered prompted him to commit more,

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AN ACCURATE MAP of the EAST INDIES. from the latest Improvements and Regulated by Astronomical Observations.
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MOGULS EMPIRE
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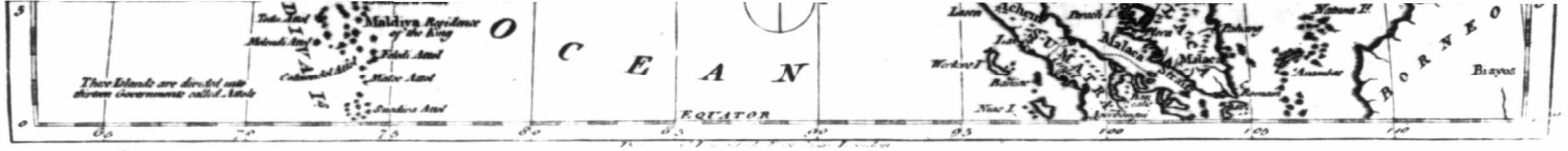
INDIA beyond the GANGES
CHINA
BAY OF BENGAL
INDIAN OCEAN
GULF OF SIAM
CEYLAN I.
BORNEO
Tropic of Cancer
EQUATOR
These Islands are divided into thirteen Governments called Atolls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These Islands are divided into thirteen Governments called Attolls
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EQUATOR
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Mentawi I.
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Borneo
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Engraved for T. Bankes's Complete System of Geography.

Various kinds of VESSELS used on the Coast of MALABAR

more, and induced him to fancy that his ſecurity could only be founded on the blood of thoſe he ſuſpected.

" The man who riſes on his country's ruin,
" Lives in a crowd of foes, himſelf the chief:
" In vain his pow'r, in vain his pomp and pleaſures;
" His guilty thoughts, thoſe tyrants of the ſoul,
" Steal in unſeen, and ſtab him in his triumph.
" Wretched diſtracting ſtate! when ev'ry object
" Strikes him with horror, ev'ry thought with fear."

The above revolution was the ruin of the factory which the French had but a little time before erected at Bancock.

The Siameſe monarch, in 1717, invaded Cambodia with 50,000 men by land, and 20,000 by ſea, but proved unſucceſsful in his expedition, which is the moſt recent circumſtance relative to this country, that can be depended on as authentic.

CHAP. XIX.

HINDOSTAN, OR INDOSTAN, OR INDIA PROPER.

SECTION I.

Name, Situation, Boundaries, Diviſions, Rivers, Mountains, &c.

HINDOSTAN, or Indoſtan, the principal, richeſt, and moſt fertile part of India, is more famed for its luxuriant, ineſtimable productions, than any circumſtances that have been handed down by ancient and authentic records. Avarice has, however, at different periods, taught innumerable ſordid adventurers to ſtudy its geography ſword in hand, who have not ſcrupled to wade through blood to glean riches; and the bowels of the inhabitants have been ripped open to come at the precious products of the bowels of the earth. The richneſs of the country has been the greateſt misfortune to the natives; their gold ſhined, and their diamonds blazed, but to invite robbers to plunder them; and while the heat of the climate, and the delicious fruits of the earth, lulled the effeminate people into the lethargic ſlumbers of luxury, they became an eaſy prey to thoſe who were more ſordid and bold, and had leſs conſcience than themſelves.

Well may the worldly miſer pant for theſe regions, and ſay,

Waſt me! O waſt me to that diſtant ſhore,
Where dwells the precious idol I adore!
Health, danger, friends, religious, moral ties,
I from the bottom of my ſoul deſpiſe,
And pant for nothing but the glittering prize.
Hail, happy clime, whoſe boſom gold contains,
Whoſe bowels glow with radiant brilliant veins:
Thy rivers, wealthy as the flaming mine,
With golden ſand and di'mond pebbles ſhine.
To graſp at treaſure is alone to live:
Is there a bleſſing but what wealth can give?
Ten ample lacks of dear rupees I'd take,
And freely part with conſcience for their ſake.
What's virtue or humanity to me,
When captivating precious ſtones I ſee?
To be a man, and poor, will never do:
I'll brute commence, and be a rich one too.

India on this ſide the Ganges was anciently ſubject to the Perſians; and Alexander the Great puſhed his conqueſts into India, to the extremity of thoſe parts which had been tributary to Darius. Previous to the time of Alexander, ſome Grecians had traverſed India in ſearch of ſcience; and above 2300 years ſince the celebrated Pilpay there wrote his admirable fables, which have ſince been tranſlated into moſt of the known languages in the world.

This extenſive country received its name from the river Indus, and is called by the natives Mogulſtan, or the Empire of the Great Mogul. It lies between the Indus and the Ganges, which fall into the Indian Ocean, at the diſtance of 400 leagues from each other: and is bounded by Uſbec Tartary and Thibet on the north; by Acham, Ava, and the Bay of Bengal, on the eaſt; by the Indian Ocean on the ſouth; and by the ſame ſea and Perſia on the weſt. It is ſituated between 66 and 92 degrees of eaſt longitude from London, and between the 7th and 40th degrees of north latitude, being 2042 miles long from north to ſouth, and upwards of 1400 broad in the wideſt part from eaſt to weſt.

The Mogul empire is divided into ſeveral provinces: though it cannot be ſaid the Mogul is ſole and abſolute maſter of them all, as there are a number of rajas, or petty princes, ſovereigns independent of him.

The north-eaſt diviſion of India contains the province of Bengal, as well as Jeſual, Naugracut, Patna, Necbol, Gor, and Rotas. The north-weſt diviſion extends to the frontiers of Perſia, and contains the provinces of Surat, Jeſſelmere, Sinda, Tatta, Bucknor, Maltan, Hercan, and Cabul. Theſe are ſituated on the river Indus. The ſouth-eaſt coaſt, or coaſt of Coromandel, contains Orixa, Golconda, the eaſt ſide of Biſnagar, or the Carnatic Madura, and Tanjore, Aſme, Jengapour, Caſſimere, Hendowns, Lahor, Agra, Dehli, Gualior, Narvar, Katipore, Chitor, Berar, and Crandiſh, are ſituated in the center diviſion. The ſouth-weſt contains Guzarat, the Decan, and Biſnagar, or the Carnatic.

The tropic of Cancer runs through the center of the empire. The ſouthern part lies within the torid zone; yet in the very hotteſt part of the year there are generally rains, which, from about the end of June to November, refreſh the earth and cool the air; the ſhowers then, eſpecially in Auguſt and September, falling for ſeveral days without intermiſſion, attended with thunder and lightning. Even in the faireſt weather they have lightning, though without thunder, for ſeveral weeks ſucceſſively; but this lightning never does the ſmalleſt detriment: the ſky at this ſeaſon is clear and ſerene, and the earth refreſhed with gentle breezes, which, in the mornings and evenings, are extremely agreeable: the heavens have a moſt beautiful appearance, and vegetables ſpring forth with incredible forwardneſs. The air is perfumed with the choiceſt fruits, affording an wholeſome and refreſhing nouriſhment, while the trees form a ſhade impenetrable to the rays of the ſun.

The monſoons, or periodical winds, blow ſix months in one direction, and ſix in the oppoſite direction. For inſtance, ſuppoſe they blow from the ſouth-weſt from April to October, they then turn about, and blow from the north-eaſt from October to April. At the ſhifting or breaking up of the monſoons, there are uſually ſuch ſtorms of wind as will not ſuffer a veſſel to ride with any degree of ſafety.

The Ganges and Indus are the chief rivers of this empire. The former riſes from different ſources in Thibet, and, after ſeveral windings through Caucaſus, penetrates into India acroſs the mountains on its frontiers. This river, after having formed, in its courſe, a great number of large, fertile, and well peopled iſlands, diſcharges itſelf into the ſea by ſeveral channels, of

which only two are frequented. It runs a winding courſe of about 3000 miles.

The Indians hold the Ganges in the higheſt eſteem, worſhip it as a deity, and deem that perſon happy who terminates his exiſtence upon its margin: and even felicitate that family, an individual of which has been drowned in its ſtream. Towards the ſource of this river was once the city of Palibothra; the antiquity of which was ſo great, that Diodorus Siculus ſcruples not to ſay it was built by that Hercules to whom the Greeks aſcribed the moſt ſurpriſing actions which had been performed in the world. In the days of Pliny, the opulence of Palibothra was celebrated throughout the globe; and it was the general mart for the inhabitants of both ſides the river that waſhed its walls.

The Indus, which runs an equal courſe with the Ganges, waters the weſtern ſide of India, flowing from the north-eaſt to the ſouth-weſt, and falling into the Indian ocean by three channels.

In Hindoſtan are ſeveral rivers, as the Attock, (the Hydaſpes of the ancients,) the Jemmima, the Guenga, &c. which are all too inſignificant to merit a particular deſcription.

The mountains of this country divide it into two equal parts, running acroſs from north to ſouth, and extending as far as Cape Comorin. Many of the mountains produce diamonds, rubies, amethyſts, granates, chryſolites, jaſper, agate, &c.

SECTION II.

Climate, Soil, Vegetables, Animals, Inſects, &c.

THE ſeaſons of this country ſeem to be ſeparated by a barrier erected by nature in the mountains; for the countries that are divided by them, though under the ſame latitudes, have a different climate; and while it is ſummer on one ſide of theſe mountains, it is winter on the other: though all that is meant by winter in this country, is that time of the year when the clouds, which the ſun attracts from the ſea, are violently driven by the winds againſt the mountains, where they break and diſſolve in rain, accompanied with frequent ſtorms; hence the torrents which ruſh from the mountains, ſwell the rivers, and overflow the plains. Hence, too, the vapours which obſcure the day, and diffuſe a gloom over the country. It is a rule here, that they have the faireſt weather when the ſun is at the greateſt diſtance from them, and the worſt when it is vertical. The ſoil of this country is rendered ſo pliable for its various productions, by the exceſſive, but nouriſhing, rains, that it needs little aſſiſtance from the hands of the huſbandman.

The natives in the ſouthern part of the peninſula live principally upon rice: indeed, ſcarce any thing elſe is ſown there. In the northern part there is excellent barley and wheat, and they have good peas and beans. Their buffalos, cows, and goats, ſupply them with milk in plenty, with which they make a great deal of cheeſe.

The gardens of India, though extremely pleaſant, do not produce any great choice of flowers. Here is, however, a variety of fruit-trees; and what flowers there are have a moſt elegant mixture of colours, though few of them have any fragrance. The fruits are mangos, guavas, pomegranates, ananas, pine-apples, cocoa-nuts, oranges, lemons, limes, plantains, tamarinds, mulberries, &c. There are, in the north part of the empire, alſo apples, pears, and other fruits that are produced in Europe. Both fruit and foreſt-trees in the ſouth part of India are ever-greens; and ſome of the fruit-trees have green and ripe fruit on them at the ſame time. Their kitchen-gardens yield water-melons, pot-herbs, potatoes, &c. They have alſo ginger, ſaffron, turmeric, ſugar, cotton, indigo, opium, the pepper-plant, &c. with ſpacious plantations of ſugar-canes.

The moſt uſeful trees in India are the cocoa and cotton trees. The cocoa yields meat, drink, and oil, as well as timber for building. Of the fibres of the bark they make their cordage, and with the branches they cover their houſes. From the cotton-tree they make their calico, and moſt of their cloathing. This tree grows to a conſiderable height. There is alſo the cotton ſhrub, of which are made ginghams, muſlins, &c. The ſhrub and tree put forth yellow bloſſoms, ſucceeded by pods, the ſkin of which burſting, diſcovers a fine ſoft white wool.

Here is the indigo tree or ſhrub, which is about the ſize of a roſe-tree, but has a ſmooth rind. The leaves, when ſtripped off at the proper ſeaſon, are laid together, when a vegetable dew exhales from them. They are then immerſed in water, contained in veſſels adapted for the purpoſe. After the water has extracted the blue from the leaves, it is drained off: the ſediment is then expoſed in broad ſhallow veſſels to the ſun's beams, thro' the heat of which the moiſture evaporates, and the indigo itſelf remains in cakes at the bottom.

The oxen of India are of great utility, either for draught or carriage: though not ſo large as ours, they make much greater ſpeed, travelling thirty miles a day, and more. Ten thouſand of theſe animals are ſometimes ſeen in a caravan. By a caravan we mean a prodigious number of oxen, camels, or other beaſts of burthen, loaded with merchandize. Their drivers never have any fixed habitation, but take their families with them. Each caravan as a captain, who is particularly diſtinguiſhed by wearing a ſtring of pearls round his neck, and receives ſingular homage from all ranks of people. The caravans are divided into four claſſes, each claſs conſiſting of many thouſand perſons. Theſe are attended by their prieſts; and each morning, before they ſet out, they pay their uſual devotions to ſome idol. One caravan carries barley, another rice, a third beans and peas, and a fourth ſalt. Ten or a dozen oxen are generally employed in drawing a waggon, and two in drawing lighter carriages. When they bait, they are fed with graſs, if it can be got: but there is little of this to be had in the ſouth of India in this fair ſeaſon, which is the proper time of the year for travelling, in which caſe they ſubſtitute fodder. The whole company ſleep in tents, except thoſe appointed as centinels. Camels are but ſeldom uſed here, being inferior in utility to oxen. Thoſe they have differ but little from the Arabian camels already deſcribed.

The elephant is the largeſt quadruped in the univerſe: it is in height from 12 to 15 feet, and in breadth about 7. There cannot be a finer deſcription of this unwieldy animal, than what we find in the ſacred writings, where the elephant is termed Behemoth, which word, in Hebrew, implies, "the collective ſtrength of many beaſts."

"Behold, now, Behemoth, which I made with thee; he eateth graſs as an ox. Lo, now, his ſtrength is in his loins, and his force is in the navel of his belly. He moveth his tail like a cedar; the ſinews of his ſtones are wrapped together: his bones are as ſtrong pieces of braſs; his bones are like bars of iron. He is the chief of the ways of God: he that made him, can make his ſword to approach unto him. Surely the mountains bring him forth food, where all the beaſts of the field play. He lieth under the ſhady trees in the covert of the reed and fens. The ſhady trees cover him with their ſhadow. The willows of the brook compaſs him about. Behold, he drinketh up a river, and haſteth not: he truſteth that he can draw up Jordan into his mouth: he taketh it with his eyes: his noſe pierceth through ſnares." Job xl. 15, &c.

The above paſſage is thus elegantly paraphraſed by the celebrated Dr. Young:

Mild is my Behemoth, though large his frame:
Smooth in his temper, and repreſt his flame,
While unprovok'd. This native of the wood
Lifts his broad feet, and prowls abroad for food.
Earth ſinks beneath him as he moves along
To ſeek the herbs, and mingle with the throng.

See with what ſtrength his harden'd loins are bound,
All over proof, and ſhut againſt a wound.
How like a mountain cedar moves his tail!
Nor can his complicated ſinews fail.
Built high and wide, his ſolid bones ſurpaſs
The bars of ſteel: his ribs are ribs of braſs.
His port majeſtic; and his armed jaw,
Give the wide foreſt and the mountain law.
The mountains fear him; there the beaſts admire
The mighty ſtranger, and in dread retire:
At length his greatneſs nearer they ſurvey,
Graze in his ſhadow, and his eye obey.
The fens and marſhes are his cool retreat,
His noon-tide ſhelter from the burning heat:
Their ſedgy boſoms his wide couch are made,
And groves of willows give him all their ſhade.
His eye drinks Jordan up; when fir'd with drought,
He burſts to turn its current down his throat:
In leſſen'd waves it creeps along the plain:
He ſinks a river, and he thirſts again.

The elephant commonly lives upon roots, leaves, graſs, ſhrubs, &c. but he is fond of corn when he can get it, and will drink wine to intoxication. The female goes two years with young, brings but one at a time, which continues growing till it is thirty years of age, and is exceedingly fond of her progeny. In croſſing a river, the dam takes up her offspring with her trunk, and carries it ſafely over. It is remarkable that the male is the ſtrongeſt and moſt courageous; but the female is the largeſt and moſt graceful. The docility and ſagacity of this animal are univerſally acknowledged: though able to encounter the moſt ſtrong, it may be brought to be managed by the moſt weak. Its ſenſibility is ſuch, that it expreſſes gratitude for thoſe who treat it kindly, and always evinces a ſpirit of reſentment againſt ſuch as behave to it with indignity. Its eye, though ſmall, is expreſſive and penetrating. Its ſenſe of ſmelling is exquiſite: but in the ſenſe of feeling it is ſuppoſed to exceed all other animals.

When tamed, the elephant may be taught many things, by which it is rendered both uſeful and entertaining. It travels quick with a great burden; and, when trained to war, will carry upon its back a wooden tower, containing men, ammunition, and proviſions. In the fortification which it bears, a piece of cannon is often planted, and it will ſtand the firing of it without the leaſt trepidation.

Many ancient writers have given various inſtances of the uncommon ſagacity of this animal, which the obſervations of modern travellers ſeem to confirm. In particular, a celebrated traveller relates, in his account of the Eaſt Indies, that an elephant puſhed his trunk into the window of a taylor's work-ſhop, when one of the men ran his needle into it, which ſo highly affronted the animal, that he went to a neighbouring brook, and having filled his trunk with water, returned to the ſhop, ſpouted it in at the window, and waſhed all the taylors from off the place where they ſat working; evidently ſhewing that he had ſenſe ſufficient to comprehend an indignity, and ſpirit enough to reſent one, at the ſame time joining humanity with his anger, and giving his revenge a ridiculous inſtead of a tragical turn.

To conclude, the celebrated Mr. Pope ſeems perfectly to acquieſce in the opinion of this animal's near approach to rationality in theſe lines:

How differs inſtinct in the grov'ling ſwine,
Compar'd, half reas'ning elephant, with thine!

There are ſheep, aſſes, buffalos, &c. here in plenty. In the ſouthern parts are ſheep which have reddiſh hair inſtead of wool, and are much thinner and longer legged than ours. Their fleſh is very dry and coarſe. Fine Perſian ſheep, however, are brought into India, with good fleeces, and tails weighing ſeveral pounds. They have plenty of goats, and their kids are pretty good food. The hogs here, particularly the wild ones, are looked upon as the beſt butchers meat in the country. Antelopes, deer, and hares, are here in great numbers, and people have full liberty to hunt them whenever they pleaſe. Among their wild beaſts are leopards, tygers, wolves, monkies, &c. There is alſo the jackall, commonly called the lion's provider, from an opinion that it rouſes the prey for that animal. The truth is, every creature in the foreſt is ſet in motion by the cries of the jackalls, which run about in companies at midnight, making ſo dreadful an howling, as to terrify other animals; when the lion, and other beaſts of rapine, attending to the chaſe by inſtinct, ſeize thoſe timorous animals which fly from the noiſe of this nightly pack. The jackall is ſaid to be of the ſize of a common fox, and to reſemble that animal in the hinder parts, eſpecially in the tail, and the wolf in the fore parts, particularly the noſe. Its legs are ſhorter than thoſe of the fox, and its colour is a bright yellow. It has the ferocity of a wolf, and at the ſame time the familarity of a dog. Its cry is between howling and barking, and its voice doleful, like that of human diſtreſs. Theſe creatures often go together in packs of 40, 50, 100, or 200 together, hunting, like hounds in full cry, from evening till morning, and will ſometimes make their appearance in towns and villages. Thus united, they deſtroy flocks and poultry, ravage gardens, and even attack children that are unprotected. When they cannot obtain living prey, they ſubſiſt upon roots, fruits, and carrion. They will voraciouſly take up the dead from their ſilent graves, and feed on the putrid fleſh. They are conſtant attendants upon caravans and armies, expecting that death will ſupply them with a feaſt.

The tygers here are a kind of cats of the foreſt: their heads reſemble that of a cat; and they never purſue their prey fairly, but, on perceiving it at a diſtance, lie down cloſe in ſome cover till the object approaches which they intend to ſeize, and then ſpring upon it with all imaginary fury and eagerneſs.

In the channels of the Ganges are amphibious animals, called alligators, ſome of which are twenty feet long, with their backs armed with impenetrable ſcales, and are capable of ſwallowing a man. They purſue their prey as well upon land as in the water. Their bodies, however, being of ſo conſiderable a length, they turn with great difficulty, and a man may eaſily avoid them.

India abounds with poultry, but the fleſh of them is not ſo good as the European. Here are likewiſe great numbers of vultures, and white headed kites, which the banyans hold in high eſtimation, and pay them religious honours. They have no great variety of ſinging birds in India; but they have bats nearly as large as kites.

The inhabitants here are annoyed by ſwarms of troubleſome inſects and reptiles. The moſketos or gnats will ſeize upon a perſon on his firſt landing on ſhore, and, in one night's time, ſwell a man's face and head ſo much, that his friends ſhall hardly know him. However, when an European has been ſome time in the country, he does not ſuffer by them ſo much; their ſtings have not then an equal effect; but they are at all times ſo troubleſome, that people keep ſlaves on purpoſe to bruſh them off, eſpecially in the ſeaſon of ſleep and retirement. Bugs alſo are here in ſwarms; but theſe are avoided, indeed, by tarring the feet of the couch on which people repoſe themſelves, for they cannot crawl over the tar. There are houſe ſcorpions, which are both troubleſome and dangerous: they are about as thick and as long as a man's little finger, and ſhaped almoſt like a lizard: their ſtings are not mortal, but cauſe the moſt excruciating pain, inſomuch that the perſon ſtung is almoſt deprived of his ſenſes whilſt the pain laſts. If the leaſt duſt be left in the corner of a room near the ceiling, theſe creatures will get into it, and drop upon the couches that people ſleep on. They carry their ſtings open at the end of their tails curled upon their backs. Snakes will likewiſe get into the rooms or warehouſes, and ſuddenly dart at people. There are various kinds of ſnakes and ſerpents in India; and

and the *cobre capelle*, or hooded ſnake, is extremely beautiful, though his ſting is dangerous. It will ſpread its head as broad as one's hand, and at that time diſcovers a kind of human face. The jugglers and merry-andrews of the country carry ſeveral of theſe reptiles in baſkets, and, on ſinging to them, and playing on ſome inſtrument, the ſnakes raiſe the upper parts of their bodies, and keep time with the muſic by the motion of their heads. Theſe reptiles are firſt drawn from their holes by means of a muſical inſtrument ſomewhat like a flagelet; ſo powerfully does muſic operate on them. This might appear fabulous, was it not authenticated by perſons of veracity and character.

To the little green ſnake, which will dart from tree to tree, where the trees ſtand thick, ſome people have given the appellation of the flying ſerpent. The centipede is no other than what the French call *cent-pied*, and the Engliſh *wood-louſe*. It is obvious that it receives its name from its great number of legs. Its ſting or bite is as dangerous as that of the ſcorpion.

Frogs, toads, and rats, grow here to a conſiderable ſize. The rats are at leaſt three times as big as Engliſh rats, and very daring: they will ſometimes ſcarcely ſuffer a perſon to paſs. There is, however, one ſpecies of rat, called the muſk-rat, covered with a ſoft white down. It is naturally very inoffenſive, and obnoxious only on account of its ſpoiling tea and wine by its infectious breath, which it effects by running over the boxes of the firſt, and knawing the corks from the bottles of the latter.

In many parts are ſwarms of ants, which are particularly deſtructive to cloaths, furniture, and even buildings.

The ſeas in India abound with fiſh. Among theſe are dolphins, bonetas, and albacores. The former has not the ſaintеſt reſemblance to the deſcriptions of that fiſh as given by our painters: it is as ſtrait a fiſh as any that ſwims, and has a bright golden colour, appearing through the ground-work of a beautiful azure that is mixed with it. The fiſh, however, is no ſooner out of its element, than its colours begin to fade.

There are many ſorts of ſhell-fiſh on the coaſt of India, particularly oyſters, which are little inferior to thoſe caught on the coaſt of England.

SECTION III.

Perſons, Dreſs, Manners, Cuſtoms, Marriages, Funerals, Cuſtom of Women burning themſelves with their deceaſed Huſbands, Deſcription of the Polygars, &c.

THE natives of theſe climes differ in complexion according to ſituation, but are, in general, of the middle ſtature, and have good features. Thoſe of the northern part are of a deep olive colour, and thoſe in the ſouth black. Thoſe who dwell on the mountains in the center of the peninſula are exceedingly black. All have black eyes, and long black hair.

The dreſs the men wear is a white veſt, girt with a ſaſh. Some are of ſilk, ſome of muſlin, and ſome of cotton. The ſleeves are very long; and the upper part of the garment is contrived to fit ſo as the wearer's ſhape may be ſeen. Under this is another, ſomewhat ſhorter. Their legs are covered by their breeches. They wear ſlippers peaked like womens ſhoes, into which they put their bare feet. Their hair is tied up in a roll, over which they wear a ſmall turban.

The dreſs of the women is a piece of white callico tied about their waiſts, which reaches to their knees, and the reſt is thrown acroſs their ſhoulders, covering their breaſts, and part of their backs. Their hair, like the mens, is tied up in a roll, and adorned with jewels, or toys in imitation of them. They have pendants in their ears and noſes, and ſeveral ſtrings of beads round their necks. They wear bracelets on their wriſts and ancles, and rings on their fingers and toes. They put their bare feet into ſlippers as the men do: though, indeed, in the ſouthern parts, ſome of the women wear no ſlippers or ſhoes at all.

The dreſs of the Moors, or Mahometans, is very handſome and becoming. They have grand turbans of rich muſlin, and their garments reach down to their feet. Their ſaſhes are embroidered in great taſte, the ends being decorated with gold and ſilver tiſſue. In their ſaſhes they ſtick their daggers: and they wear embroidered ſlippers, which they take off, and leave at the foot of a ſopha, when on a viſit.

They are remarkably fond of ſmoaking tobacco, and uſe the calaan; their method of doing which has been already deſcribed under the head of Perſia, p. 145. The poor roll up a leaf of tobacco about four or five inches long, and lighting it at one end, ſmoak the other till it is about half exhauſted, and then throw it away.

In manners the inhabitants of Hindoſtan reſemble the other natives of Southern Aſia. They are effeminate, luxurious, and by education taught to affect a grave deportment. This naturally initiates them early into the arts of diſſimulation; ſo that they can careſs thoſe whom they hate, and even behave with the utmoſt affability and kindneſs to ſuch as they intend to deprive of exiſtence by the moſt ſanguinary means. Many of them may juſtly ſay,

"Why, I can ſmile, and murder while I ſmile;
And cry content to that which grieves my heart;
And wet my cheeks with artificial tears,
And frame my face to all occaſions."

Thus educated, they ſeldom ſcold or wrangle, but often ſtab each other invidiouſly, and, without any public quarrel, gratify a private revenge.

Their common method of ſalutation is by lifting one or both hands to the head, according to the quality of the perſon ſaluted; but they never ſalute with the left hand ſingly. The ſalutation of a prince is bowing the body very low, putting the hand to the ground, then to the breaſt, and afterwards raiſing it to the head; this is repeated thrice: and ſome fall on their faces before a prince. An elegant modern writer obſerves, "That ſometimes, to ſhew greater awe and deference, they throw themſelves into a fit of trembling, as if they were ſhaken by an ague." But this laſt piece of mummery is reſerved for great occaſions. In ſhort, there is no poſture too baſe, no language too humble, no ſubmiſſion or flattery too groſs, to be given to thoſe they fear.

On viſits among friends, the maſter of the houſe never gets up to receive his viſitor, but requeſts him to ſit down by him on the carpet, (for their floors are ſpread with rich carpets,) and betel and areka are then offered him to chew, which, as in the neighbouring countries, they have almoſt continually in their mouth. They ſit and chew together, but talk very little. They play at cards ſometimes, but never game ſo high as the Chineſe; nor are they out of temper when they loſe.

At a public entertainment they ſend for a number of dancing girls, who entertain the company with a variety of dances, and perform plays by torch-light in the open air, which they execute with great judgment. They embelliſh their necks with carcanets, their arms with bracelets, and their ancles with ſmall gold or ſilver chains. In their noſes they wear jewels: and ſome of them form black circles round the whites of their eyes, which they think heightens their beauty.

The manner of drinking among the Gentoos is remarkable. They religiouſly avoid touching the veſſel which contains the liquor with their lips, and pour it into their mouths, holding the veſſel at a diſtance. Their idea is that they would be polluted by ſtagnant water. They will drink from a pump, or of any running ſtream, but not out of a pool.

The Mahometans ride upon elephants, horſes, and in palanquins. A palanquin is a kind of couch, covered with an arched canopy, and hath cuſhions, a quilt, and pillows. It hangs upon a bamboo, and the perſon in it may either ſit upright, or loll at his eaſe. They are commonly carried by four men, two before, and two behind, by means of poles, the ends of which they place on their ſhoulders. Thoſe in which the ladies ride are covered with a ſilk netting of different colours, that entirely

entirely prevents their being ſeen by any perſon. This is done by order of their huſbands, who are naturally very jealous.

None but the Mogul himſelf, the princes of the blood, and great men, ride upon elephants, which are moſt ſuperbly capariſoned: and here it muſt be obſerved, that the animal appears always delighted with the finery of its trappings.

The beſt horſes uſed in India are brought from Perſia and Arabia, and the Mahometans take great care of them.

Their houſes are of two kinds, thoſe built by the Moguls, and thoſe by the original Indians. The houſes of the Moguls are all in the Perſian taſte. In ſhort, they imitate the Perſians in moſt things: like them, they are fond of having elegant gardens, with pavilions, fountains, caſcades, &c.

Moſt of the principal towns conſiſt of the habitations of the Gentoos, which are, for the moſt part, very mean. In front of theſe houſes are ſheds on pillars, under which the natives expoſe their goods to ſale, and entertain their friends and acquaintance. There are no windows opening to the ſtreets. Even the palaces of their princes have no external elegance. The apartments in the houſes of the wealthy are ornamented chiefly with looking-glaſſes, which are purchaſed of the Europeans; and many of their ceilings are inlaid with mother-of-pearl and ivory. The private rooms are always in the back part of the houſes, for the better ſecurity of the women, ſo meanly jealous are the men.

All the great men have their ſeraglios or haarams well ſupplied with handſome women; and ſo jealous are they, that they confine them very cloſe, and follow the uſual Aſiatic method of committing them to the guard of eunuchs. Thus are frequently ſacrificed numbers of beautiful young creatures to the caprice and jealouſy of one man.

The Mahometans have public hummums for bathing, cupping, champing, &c. Champing is chafing and rubbing the limbs of a perſon, and cauſing the joints of the wriſts and fingers to crack, in order to procure a briſk circulation of the blood.

The Indians marry at an early period; and ſome of the higher ranks of the Gentoos have the privilege of taking ſeveral wives. The little bride and bridegroom are carried through the ſtreets, dreſſed in the moſt elegant taſte, for ſeveral ſucceſſive nights, the houſes being at the ſame time illuminated. They are preceded by their relations and friends, with muſic playing, and ſtreamers flying. They all proceed to the houſe of the bride's father, and the little couple being ſeated oppoſite to each other, and ſeparated by a table, they reach out and join their hands acroſs the table, when the prieſt puts a ſort of hood upon the head of each, and ſupplicating heaven to proſper them, gives them the nuptial benediction.

The women begin to bear children at the age of about twelve, and treat their huſbands with the moſt profound reſpect, affection, and tenderneſs. They are entirely in the power of their huſbands, and bring them no other dowry than their wearing apparel, and perhaps a few female ſlaves. They, however, enjoy much greater freedom than the wives of the Mahometans; at leaſt thoſe who are married to tradeſmen and mechanics.

The Bramins and Banyans generally content themſelves with one wife; though the other tribes of Gentoos often take more.

A ſtrange cuſtom prevails among ſome of the naires or nobles, of one wife being ſubject to ſeveral huſbands. The number is not ſo much limited by any ſpecific law, as by a ſort of tacit convention, by which it rarely exceeds half a dozen. The huſbands cohabit with her alternately, according to priority of marriage; and each, on going to viſit her, leaves his arms at the door, as a ſignal that none of the others muſt preſume to enter.

When the wife who has more huſbands than one brings forth a child, ſhe nominates its father, who is at the expence of educating it; but from the impracticability of aſſigning the real heir, the eſtates of the huſband devolve to the children of their ſiſters, or others near in blood.

In Hindoſtan the expence of cloaths is trifling, as is that of food, firing, and lodging; but this muſt be underſtood as reſpecting the natives only. The Hindoos are not addicted to any expenſive views, their paſſions and deſires being gentle and moderate. They are frugal and induſtrious, and as eager to amaſs riches as any of the natives of Europe. Yet they admire ſplendour and magnificence, and particularly in what relates to their women, inſomuch, that, upon the occaſion of marriages, they pour forth the collected treaſures of many induſtrious years.

Some tribes bury the bodies of the deceaſed, and others burn them on piles; but the latter is the moſt cuſtomary. Before they burn their dead, they carry them on a bier to a ſmall diſtance from the town or village where they died, dreſſed in their uſual wearing apparel. A pile is erected on the deſtined ſpot, and the corpſe placed upon it; and as ſoon as the Bramin, or prieſt, has done praying, one of the corners of the pile is ſet fire to. When the body is conſumed, its relics, or aſhes, are gathered, and thrown into the ſea by the Bramin: for the funeral pile is always erected near the ſea, or ſome large piece of water. Some perſons, on the approach of their diſſolution, requeſt that their aſhes may be put into an urn, and carried to the Ganges. The perſon who ſets fire to the pile is always the neareſt relation, who walks bare-headed, in a coarſe tattered garment, (their common mourning,) round it three times before he places the fire-ſtick, and when the whole is in a blaze, he appears diſtracted with the moſt agonizing grief.

Fidelity to their huſbands is the moſt diſtinguiſhing and ſupreme characteriſtic of the Indian married ladies. Some of the wives of the Bramins have even burnt themſelves in conſequence of the deaths of their huſbands: though, perhaps, it may be ſaid, that the injunction of the laws, more than ſentiments of affection, occaſioned ſuch ſacrifice. This cuſtom is ſaid to have originated from the practice of burning Gentoo wives for poiſoning their huſbands: but this, perhaps, may not be the caſe, as the law recommends a voluntary ſacrifice.

As it has been aſſerted, by ſome writers, that the cuſtom of the Gentoo women burning themſelves with their deceaſed huſbands is now diſuſed in India, we inſert the following account communicated by Joſeph Cator, Eſq. who reſided at Calcutta in the year 1779, to Thomas Pearſon, Eſq. of London.

"Being informed that the wife of a Bramin of ſuperior caſt, a man of integrity, and much reſpected among the Europeans, was reſolved to be burnt with her deceaſed huſband, I accordingly went to the deſtined ſpot, where the corpſe of the Bramin lay naked on a pile of ſandal wood and dry ſtraw, about four feet from the ground. His wife was ſeen praying near the pile, where her children, two boys and a girl, (one of the boys ſeven years, the other five, and the girl thirteen months old,) and her huſband's eldeſt brother, were preſent with her. At ſight of her children, the ties of nature ſtruggling with her reſolution, drew a tear from her; but ſhe ſoon recovered herſelf, and told her children that their father was dead, and ſhe was going to die with him; that they muſt look up to their uncle, who would be both father and mother to them, and therefore demanded the obedience once due to them. This done, ſhe committed them to the care of the uncle, left them, and advanced towards the funeral pile, which was ſurrounded by a vaſt concourſe of people, chiefly Bramins, about eight or ten feet from it, ſo that there was a free paſſage round the pile.

"When ſhe appeared in the circle, ſhe ſeemed confuſed, but whether from the ſight of her huſband laying dead on the pile, the crowd aſſembled, or ſeeing Europeans among them, could not be aſcertained. However, ſhe ſoon recovered herſelf. She then walked

gently unattended round the pile in silence, strewing flowers as she went round; and when she had nearly completed the third time, she got up at her husband's feet upon the pile without assistance, strewed flowers over it, and then laid herself down at the left side of her husband, raising his head, and putting her right arm under his neck, then turning her body to his, threw her left arm over him, when one of the Bramins raised his right leg, and put it over her legs, without a syllable being uttered. Being thus closely embraced, a blue shawl was laid over them, and they were not seen afterwards by any body. Some dry straw was laid over the shawl, and then some light billets of sandal wood was put upon the straw; but altogether not sufficient to prevent her raising herself up, throwing all off, and extricating herself from the pile, if she had repented, or, from feeling the heat of the fire, had been inclined to save her life. The dry straw, which composed a part of the pile, was then lighted. During the whole time, from the moment she made her appearance in the circle, to the lighting of the pile, there was a profound silence: but on the pile being lighted, the Bramins called out aloud, some dancing and brandishing cudgels or sticks, perhaps to prevent the cries being heard by the multitude, so as to give them a bad impression of it, or deter other women from following what the Hindoos term a laudable example.

"I was so near the pile, that, notwithstanding the noise made by the Bramins, and those that danced round it, I could have heard any cries or lamentations she might have made; so that I am convinced she made none, and that the smoak must have suffocated her in a very short space of time. I staid about ten minutes after the pile was lighted; for such a sight was too dreadful to remain long at: besides, nothing more was to be seen except the flames, which Mr. Shakespeare and I had a perfect view of at a distance, as we returned from the funeral pile.

"This Bramin's wife was a tall, well made, good looking woman, fairer than the generality of Hindoo women are, about twenty or, perhaps, twenty-two years of age, at most. She was decently dressed in a white cloth round her waist, and an oorney of white cloth, with a red silk border thrown loosely over her head and shoulders; but her face, arms, and feet, were bare.

"I have heard, and, indeed, supposed, that women in such a situation intoxicate themselves; but, from the relation given me of what passed between the Bramin's wife, her children, and brother-in-law, as well as what Mr. Shakespeare and I saw at the funeral pile, I am persuaded she was as free from intoxication during the whole ceremony, as it is possible to be; for she appeared to be perfectly composed, not in the least flurried, except at first, for an instant of time, as before observed; but went through it deliberately, with an astonishing fortitude and resolution.

"This barbarous custom, so shocking to Europeans, if I mistake not, was practised by our ancestors in Britain, in the time of the Druids; but whether our countrywomen in those days were treated with the same contempt, after the death of their husbands, as the Hindoo women are, I know not; for, by the religion of the Hindoos, they never can marry again, or have any commerce with another man, without prejudice to their casts, which, to them, is as dear as life itself; but generally are reduced to perform the most menial offices in the family of which they were before the mistress.

"This reflection, together with the great credit they gain amongst the Bramins, in undergoing so painful a ceremony, may be very strong inducements to their continuing this practice.

"I have now given a full and circumstantial relation of the whole matter respecting the wife of this Bramin sacrificing herself on the funeral pile of her husband. Such parts of it as were told me of what was done out of my sight, I have no reason to doubt; and what I have written may be depended on as literally true. But I omitted to observe, that though the Bramins shed tears when praying by their brother the night previous to his death, there did not appear the least concern in any of them during the ceremony at the funeral pile, not even in his eldest brother, or any of his dependents."

When this astonishing instance of attachment to husbands is considered, it cannot be easily reconcileable to European ideas, that a people, boasting of some refinement, should, in the most public manner, be guilty of every species of indelicacy to their females. Many nations have the custom of immuring their women, but the Hindoos seem singular in the grossness of their ordinances relative to them.

It is unaccountably strange, that, notwithstanding all this severity of disposition, and their contemptuous treatment of the Hindoo women, the men are very constant to their wives, the women are remarkably chaste, and adultery is a crime seldom to be heard of among them.

As to their food, both Mahometans and Gentoos eat rice stewed till it is quite dry: this they eat as we do bread. A favourite dish with them is what they call pilau: it is a fowl boiled with rice, and seasoned with turmeric. Another dish is the curry, which is a sort of fricassee of animal food or vegetables: and another is the kitcharee, which is rice stewed with a sort of pulse, and is eaten commonly with pickles of different kinds. They never use any knives, forks, or spoons, but eat with their fingers only. They always wash their hands both before and after meals, and use only the right hand in eating. Water is their common liquor: they also drink the milk of the cocoa-nut. As to beer, ale, or wine, there is not a drop of either of these liquors made in India; they buy all of the Europeans. They have spirits of several sorts, which they call arrack, some of which is distilled from sugar, and some from rice: the latter is drank chiefly by the common people. These Indians are in general very sober, and some of them abstain from all animal food. The Bramins, in particular, never eat any thing that has had animal life: curries of vegetables are their common diet, the chief ingredients of which are turmeric, spices, and the cocoa nut pulp.

It is generally known, that the practice of inoculating for the small-pox is common in all Asiatic countries. It may not, therefore, be improper to observe, from the declaration of a late ingenious traveller, that there is an art in Hindostan, not yet known in Europe, by which the women effectually prevent any traces of the small-pox on the faces of their little ones. This preservative is composed of a salve made of certain Indian herbs, and a certain kind of oil, which they apply as soon as the pock begins to blacken. It is presumed that the nature of this preparation would be communicated on enquiry; and it must be allowed, beyond a doubt, a matter worthy of notice.

The same person mentions another operation of the chirurgical kind, as attended with the happiest effects. In cases of bruises in any part of the body by a fall, a blow, or otherwise, those who are nearest the patient presently strip off the greater part of his cloaths, and, with the palms of their hands, gently rub the afflicted part, and proceeding from that spot, rub over, with greater force, the whole body. This good office is generally performed by the women, who are, indeed, the surgeons and physicians of the country, and who handle their patients with the utmost ease and tenderness.

There are people in Indostan, inhabitants of almost impenetrable woods, who are under the absolute direction of their own chieftains, and in times of peace are professional robbers, but in times of war the guardians of their country. The general name of these people is *Polygar*. Their original institution (for they live in distinct clans) is not very well understood.

The

The pollams or woods, from which is derived the word Polygar, lying in profuſion through all the ſouthern parts of Hindoſtan, the ravages committed in the open countries by thoſe adventurous clans are both frequent and deſtructive. Cattle and grain are the conſtant booty of the Polygars. They not unfrequently deſpoil travellers of their property, and ſometimes murder if they meet with oppoſition: yet theſe very Polygars are the hands into which the aged and infirm, the wives, children, and treaſure of both Hindoos and others are entruſted, when the circumjacent country unfortunately happens to be the ſeat of war. The protection they afford is paid for: but the price is inconſiderable, when the helpleſs ſituation of thoſe that fly to them, and eſpecially when their own peculiar character is properly attended to. The government of Indoſtan is under a neceſſity of tolerating this honourable banditti. Many of them are ſo formidable as to be able to bring 15 and 20,000 men into the field.

The Hindoo code of laws, in ſpeaking of robberies, hath this remarkable clauſe. "The mode of ſhares amongſt robbers ſhall be this: If any thief or thieves, by the command of the magiſtrate, and with his aſſiſtance, have committed depredations upon, and brought away booty from another province, the magiſtrate ſhall receive a ſhare of one ſixth part of the whole. If they received no command or aſſiſtance from the magiſtrate, they ſhall give him in that caſe one tenth part of his ſhare, and of the remainder their chief ſhall receive four ſhares: whoſoever among them is perfect maſter of his occupation ſhall receive three ſhares; whichever of them is remarkably ſtrong and ſtout ſhall receive two ſhares, and the reſt ſhall receive each one ſhare."

Here then we ſee not only a ſanction, but even an inducement to fraudulent practices: another ſingular inconſiſtency among a people who in many periods of their hiſtory have been proverbial for innocency of manners, and uncommon honeſty in their conduct towards travellers and ſtrangers.

The natural indolence to which the people of this country are accuſtomed may, in ſome degree, be accounted for, from the exceſſive heat of the climate, which prevents them either from purſuing buſineſs or amuſement the chief part of the day. The only times they can follow theſe are, the early part of the morning, and the latter part of the evening, ſo that they are obliged to riſe early, and ſit up late. All ranks of people, even the moſt menial ſervants, retire to reſt after dinner; and from that time till near ſun-ſet, every thing is as ſilent as at midnight; after which they dreſs and recreate themſelves according to their reſpective ſtations.

The genius of theſe people being rather imitative than inventive, they have naturally leſs curioſity than the Europeans, and do not, therefore, ſo often vary their faſhions. From their temper and tenets, as well as from ſeveral hints in ancient hiſtorians, it appears more than probable, that the ſame kind of garments, food, furniture, buildings, and manners in general, which prevailed among their progenitors ſome thouſand years ago, actually prevail among the Hindoo tribes at this day.

SECTION IV.

Ancient and preſent State of Science, Languages, &c. in India.

THE ſciences muſt have been cultivated in this country at an early period, as before the time of Pythagoras the Greeks travelled into India for inſtruction. The native Indians, or Hindoos, are men of ſtrong natural endowments, though they have but little literary knowledge: they have, however, ſome of Ariſtotle's works in the Arabian language, as well as thoſe of Avicenna, and ſome paſſages in the Old Teſtament. The Gentoos, or original Indians, begin their year on the firſt day of March, and the Mahometans on the tenth, and their year is compoſed of thirteen moons. The day they divide into four parts, and the night into four, which they again ſubdivide into eight, and meaſure them by water dropping from one veſſel into another. In ſome of the principal towns there is a large veſſel fixed, which a perſon conſtantly attends.

The Bramins are adepts in arithmetic, at leaſt in the practical part; in their childhood they are inſtructed to caſt up ſums by their fingers only. They have tables for calculating the approach of an eclipſe, but are no theoriſts in their calculations.

Their grand and favourite ſcience is aſtrology, and the Indian Bramins are the almanack-makers, who mark down what they prophecy will be lucky or unlucky days; and ſo infatuated are the Gentoos, that their merchants will tranſact no kind of buſineſs on the days predicted to be unlucky.

They have very little ſkill in phyſic and anatomy. The Bramins uſe charms for the expulſion of diſorders: they, however, at the ſame time apply ſimples, and with good ſucceſs: they allow no liquor but water, mixed with caſſia, lignum, or cinnamon.

The Indians are ſubject to the bloody flux, which they cure by the preſcription of ſtewed rice.

The languages and dialect ſpoken in India are various. The language ſpoken at court is the Perſian; what is deemed the learned language is the Arabian; but none is ſo generally underſtood as the Perſian, though much corrupted. The Hindoo, incorporated with a great many Perſian and Arabic words, is ſpoken throughout Indoſtan and other parts of India, though the accent and dialect differ in the ſeveral places where it is ſpoken; the pureſt is ſpoken in the province of Agra.

Here was invented the game of cheſs: we owe to them the uſe of cyphers, which, though imported amongſt us by the Arabians, came originally from India. The ancient Indian medals, in ſuch eſteem among the Chineſe, prove that the arts were cultivated in India even before they were known in China.

SECTION V.

Religion of India in general, and the different Sectaries particular.

THE mythology of the Indians is very irregular. The religious and philoſophic books of the Hindoos are called bedas. They are written in Shanſcrita, a language known only to the Bramins, who confine thoſe writings entirely to their own tribe.

The Hindoos inflexibly adhere to the Moſaic injunction, "Thou ſhalt not muzzle the ox when he treadeth over the corn." They muzzle not the ox, but let him quietly tread out the grain as the Iſraelites uſed to do of old.

There is reaſon to believe, that the Indians were almoſt as civilized when Brama inſtituted his laws as they are at this time. It is from him the Indians derive their religious veneration for the two great rivers, Ganges and Indus; it was he who conſecrated the cow, whoſe milk is ſo wholeſome and agreeable in hot countries; and to him is attributed the diviſion of the people into tribes; which inſtitution is antecedent to all traditions and known records, and may be conſidered as the moſt ſtriking teſtimony of the antiquity of the Indians. Throughout all Indoſtan, the laws of government, cuſtoms, and manners, form a part of religion, and are all derived from Brama, who was the author of the ſacred books. He preſcribed different ſorts of food for the reſpective tribes: the military, and ſome other ranks, were allowed to eat veniſon and mutton; fiſh was allowed to ſome huſbandmen and mechanics; and others lived upon vegetables and milk.

Although we are not ſo well acquainted with the caſt of Bramins, as might be expected from the enlarged knowledge, commerce, and curioſity of the preſent times,

times, we know enough of them to conclude with certainty, that they have degenerated from the purity of their anceſtors. In the preſent times it is aſſerted, that European uſurpers ſometimes make uſe even of the Bramins as tools of oppreſſion and inſtruments of plunder. But whatever their lives be, their doctrines, upon the whole, are true and excellent; for among ſeveral errors, they maintain thoſe truths which form the harmony of the world, viz. "That God is delighted with charity and good works, more than by any other ſacrifices." In general, their religious tenets are very conſiſtent with the ideas which are entertained of the Divinity in Europe. Many ſuperſtitious practices have been introduced among the generality of the people, and the uſe of images is common, though ſeemingly (according to a candid obſerver) not as objects of adoration, but lively repreſentations of thoſe attributes which they believe the Almighty Being only to poſſeſs.

The Bramins are very ſober and temperate, and, upon the whole, exemplary in their conduct. They divide paſt time into four diſtinct ages, and pretend to trace the exiſtence of time through a vaſt ſucceſſion of years. The four ſacred books, or bedas, contain an hundred thouſand poetic ſtanzas, each conſiſting of four lines; the firſt treats of aſtrology, natural philoſophy, aſtronomy, and the creation of matter; the ſecond treats of religious and moral duties, and has ſacred ſongs or hymns in honour of the Divinity; the third has for its ſubject all religious rites and ceremonies, as faſts, feſtivals, penances, purifications, &c. and the fourth comprehends the whole ſcience of theology and metaphyſical philoſophy. However, ſince the riſe of the Mahometan religion, the Bramins have laid aſide the fourth book, or beda; as the hereſy of Mahomet, according to them, hath been founded upon that book.

It may be neceſſary to obſerve, that the term Gentoo diſtinguiſhes the Hindoos from the Mahometans or Muſſulmen, commonly, though improperly, denominated Moors. The word has it derivation from Gentio, in Portugueſe, ſignifying Gentile.

The Hindoos are divided into four tribes, the moſt conſiderable of which are the Bramins; of theſe there are ſeveral orders: thoſe who mix in ſociety are, for the moſt part, very corrupt in their morals; they ſay that the water of the Ganges will waſh away all their crimes; and, as they are not ſubject to any civil juriſdiction, they live without either virtue or reſtraint; except, indeed, that they have the great character of compaſſion and charity; principles eminently diſtinguiſhable in the mild climate of India.

An Hindoo, being baniſhed and diſgraced, is forced to join the Hallachores, who are a tribe, or rather the refuſe of all tribes: for they perform the vileſt offices in life, and are held in ſuch general abomination, that on the Malabar ſide of India, if one of them happens to touch a perſon of a ſuperior tribe, he receives a dagger in his body, and the law countenances the deed.

The Hindoos, or Gentoos, are conſiderably more numerous than the Mahometans. Avarice is their chief paſſion; a paſſion which prevails, for the moſt part, in perſons of weak bodies and little minds.

The lateſt writer upon this ſubject, which we have ſeen, thus deſcribes their character:

"To ſum up their general character in few words; they are gentle, patient, temperate, regular in their lives, charitable, and ſtrict obſervers of their religious ceremonies. They are ſuperſtitious, effeminate, avaritious, and crafty; deceitful and diſhoneſt in their dealings, void of every principle of honour, generoſity or gratitude. Gain is their predominate principle; and, as a part of their gains, beſtowed in gifts to their prieſts, or charities to the poor, will procure their pardon, they can cheat without fearing the anger of their gods."

The diviſion of the Gentoos into tribes or claſſes, diſcovers a ſtriking peculiarity in their government and religion. The tribes are headed by a chief, who is, in ſome degree, reſponſible for the conduct of thoſe under him; and individuals, on proper occaſions, are ſometimes ſummoned to aſſemble together in conformity to the requiſitions of government.

SECTION VI.

Government, Climate, Conſtitution, Civil, Military, &c. of India.

BOTH the lives and fortunes of the people are wholly at the diſpoſal of the Great Mogul. Civil ſlavery hath been here added to political ſlavery; the ſubject oppreſſed has no law to protect him. Here a man ſcarce dares to think; his ſoul is ſo much debaſed, that its faculties are deſtroyed; deſpotiſm debaſes and ſtifles every kind of ſentiment. The ſubject is not maſter of his own life; he is not maſter of his own underſtanding: he is debarred from all ſtudies that are ſerviceable to human kind, and is only allowed ſuch as are calculated to enſlave him. He is not maſter of his own field; the lands, and their produce, belong to the ſovereign; and the peaſant muſt be contented, if he can earn juſt enough to keep himſelf and his family with a common degree of decency. He is not maſter of his own induſtry; every artiſt, who has been ſo unhappy as to betray his talents, lives in dread of being fated to ſerve the monarch, or ſome powerful courtier, who hath purchaſed a right to uſe and employ him as he thinks proper. He is not maſter of his own money; he is forced to conceal it in the earth, by way of ſecuring it from the tyrannic hand of power. The will of the Mogul is the only law of his ſubjects; it decides all law-ſuits, without any perſon's daring to call it in queſtion, on pain of being deprived of life. At his command alone, the greateſt perſonages are put to death, and their poſſeſſions taken from their families. No doubt this abſolute and tyrannical authority, with which the Indian is every where oppreſſed, muſt ſubdue his ſpirit, and render him incapable of thoſe efforts which courage requires.

The climate of this country is another obſtacle to any liberal exertion: the indolence it inſpires is an invincible impediment to great revolutions and vigorous oppoſitions, ſo common in northern regions. The ſoul and body equally enervated, have only the virtues and vices of ſlavery. Since, then, the climate hath ſo powerful an effect over both mind and body, its influence muſt bear a mutual analogy to the different heights of the ſoil on which a man breathes, independent of other local cauſes, which muſt make ſome exceptions to the general rule.

The emperor of Hindoſtan ſometimes appears at a window at ſun-riſe, when all the great men of his court are obliged to attend in his apartments to do him homage. At ſun-ſet he alſo appears at a window, and receives the acclamations of the people. The principal officers of his empire are the prime vizier, the firſt ſecretary of ſtate, the treaſurer, the chief of the eunuchs, the general of the elephants, and the maſter of the wardrobe.

No perſons muſt preſume to enter the imperial palace except the rajas and great officers, and they muſt pay a moſt profound reverence to the emperor, and proſtrate themſelves when they depart from him.

No pomp, magnificence, or luxury, is comparable to the oſtentatious brilliancy of the Great Mogul when he appears in public. He ſits upon a throne of gold, glittering with precious ſtones. The throne and monarch are both upon the back of an elephant, which elevation gives the emperor ſuch an air of grandeur, as muſt ſurpaſs the conception of any European who has not ſeen him.

As the elephant moves ſlowly on, the people fall proſtrate before their great and mighty prince. Thus, by dazzling the eyes of his ſlaves, and inſpiring them with terror, he ſupports his deſpotic authority.

On the ſhield of this ſplendid deſpot are placed diamonds and rubies; on his head is a gaudy turban, and on

on his neck a rich chain of pearls. Beſides a ſword, he has a quiver of arrows; and on the right and left ſide of him hang rubies or diamonds. He holds a ſtaff in his hand, adorned with drilled diamonds. He has rich bracelets on his wriſts, as well as above his elbows; and on his fingers are coſtly rings.

When the emperor marches with his troops, he is attended by about 100 elephants, richly capariſoned, and 10 or 12,000 men. In the center, either on an elephant, or a fine Perſian horſe, he rides himſelf. When he goes into the country, he is ſeated in a covered chariot, drawn by oxen.

The emperor has under him four principal ſecretaries of ſtate.

The ſons of the emperor are ſtiled ſultans, and his daughters ſultanas: the nabobs are viceroys or governors of provinces: the next in rank have the title of khan, or cawn: the great officers in the army are ſtiled omrahs; and the chief, or general, is called mirza. The Subah of the Decan hath the ſuperintendance of all the Mogul governors within his juriſdiction, and whoſe ſupreme viceroyalty is made up of ſeveral provinces, which were formerly ſo many independant ſtates. The women in the emperor's ſeraglio are upwards of 1000. He allows himſelf ſeveral wives, and generally marries ſome of his own ſubjects. The firſt ſon of either wife is heir to the emperor, though the crown is uſually enjoyed by him whoſe ſword can do the moſt execution.

At the age of about twelve or fourteen years the ſultans are married, and ſent to different governments, the heir to the throne excepted, who ſtays at home. The ſultanas, who are reſtrained from marrying, are educated very liberally; and, in conſequence of that reſtriction, great indulgences are often given to thoſe princeſſes. The governeſſes of theſe ladies have frequently no inconſiderable ſhare in the government; for great offices are often diſpoſed of through the ſole influence of theſe women, each of whom, indeed, has a title anſwerable to ſome conſequential department and correſponding with the miniſter whoſe title ſhe bears. The emperor, in retirement, is attended and ſerved entirely by women.

With reſpect to the laws of Hindoſtan, the emperor himſelf decides in all capital caſes, as do his viceroys in their different governments. There are no written laws, particular puniſhments being inflicted for particular offences. Murder and robbery are puniſhed with death: but the mode of executing it is ſolely in the will of the Mogul or his viceroy. Some offenders are beheaded, ſome hanged, ſome impaled upon ſharp-pointed ſtakes, and others trampled to death by elephants.

The poor criminal who is doomed to ſuffer exceſſive torture, has the bones of his legs and arms broken by the elephant, who kicks him in thoſe parts with his heavy foot, and then leaves the victim to expire. There have been inſtances of delinquents being torn to pieces by dogs in the empire of Hindoſtan.

A court of juſtice is held at ſtated times for determining diſputes relative to property, and other controverſies among the people. It is called the *durbar*, and is a large building, open on one ſide for the admiſſion of ſpectators. Hither the injured perſon repairs, and addreſſing himſelf to the court, calls out with an audible voice for juſtice againſt the offender. As ſoon as he is obſerved by the judge, he proceeds to the upper end of the court, and relates his grievances with all the humility he is maſter of, as the favour of the judge is his only dependance for redreſs. This degree of flattery, however, will not operate without it is attended with pecuniary compliments; and that party which outvies the other in this particular, is ſure to obtain a conqueſt over his adverſary; ſo that the grievance of the complainant is often increaſed by advancing one part of his property in expectation of obtaining the other.

Courts are likewiſe held in every town and village for the adminiſtration of juſtice, the principal perſon acting as judge, and determining all diſputes within his diſtrict. The determination, however, is generally formed in favour of him who diſplays the greateſt degree of liberality.

Law-ſuits are here very quickly adjuſted, as the whole power of deciding is ſolely veſted in the judge, whoſe principle is avarice, and whoſe ſoul is a ſtranger to tender or equitable ſentiments.

When the Great Mogul himſelf holds a divan or public court, he is ſeated on the muſnud, which is a kind of ſtage elevated to the height of about two feet, covered with a ſuperb cloth, embroidered and fringed with gold. In the center of the muſnud is placed an oblong plate of gilded ſilver, turned up at the edges, and reſembling a tea-board, upon which the *Conqueror of the World* (for ſo the Mogul ſtiles himſelf) ſits croſs-legged. His officers ſurround him, his courtiers adulate him, and the unfortunate petition him. As there is ſomething ſingular in the ceremonial of the latter, it may be entertaining to particularize it. The petitioner is obliged to leave his ſlippers on the outſide of the door, and to advance barefooted in token of humility: he then makes three ſalams, or ſalutes, to expreſs his profound veneration, bows his forehead to the ground, and preſents his petition, together with a purſe of gold, as the one would be uſeleſs without the other; for the firſt only contains a detail of grievances, but the latter is filled with that perſuaſive eloquence which alone can induce the monarch to redreſs them. The petitioner, on preſenting the paper and purſe, uſually ſays, "Read this, my petition: the day will come when all petitions ſhall be read." If the Mogul does not chooſe to receive the petition, he frowns, and turns away his head; but if the petitioner finds favour in his ſight, that is, if the bribe is ſufficiently large, and the miniſters have been previouſly well fee'd, he ſmiles, and gives a gracious nod of approbation. The Mogul does not, however, always redreſs the grievance when he receives the memorial and its golden attendant, but is frequently ſo charmed with the rhetoric of the latter, that he puts the object of oppreſſion to the trouble and expence of repeating the former. Such is the determination of juſtice in India!

The civil inſtitutions of the Hindoos reſpecting the diviſion and ſecurity of property, and the internal police of the country, were originally founded on principles of the ſoundeſt political wiſdom, and were well calculated to promote the happineſs of the people; but the different innovations of deſpotiſm have marred the harmony of the ancient conſtitution, and rendered property and perſonal liberty more precarious, leſs defined, and more expoſed to chicanery and miſconſtruction.

Every year two grand and ſolemn feſtivals are celebrated in honour of the Mogul. The firſt, which commences with the new year, continues about twenty days. Before the royal palace is built a ſplendid theatre, which the emperor aſcends, and ſeating himſelf on a cuſhion, decorated with pearls and gold, receives the preſents brought to him from his people. The other feſtival is held on his birth-day, when he dreſſes himſelf in his moſt gaudy apparel, and enters a magnificent pavillion, attended by his courtiers, where are two large ſcales, the chains of which are of maſſy gold, adorned with jewels. In one of theſe ſcales the emperor places himſelf, in order to balance or preponderate the other, which is filled with rubies, emeralds, pearls, gold, ſilver, fine ſtuffs, cinnamon, cloves, herbs, &c. and an exact account is taken of the difference of his weight from the laſt year: if he weighs more the preſent year than the laſt, the people ſhout and rejoice; if leſs, they manifeſt every expreſſion of concern.

The ſoldiers make up the ſmalleſt part of the Indian camps, which are pitched in one form, and are nearly round. Every trooper is attended by his wife, his children, and two ſervants. The generals and officers train is proportioned to their ambition and vanity. The ſovereign himſelf, more intent upon parade and magnificence than the emergencies of war, has an unbounded train of wives, courtiers, elephants, &c.

In general, the troops of the mogul are furniſhed by the rajahs. He has ſeveral regiments called houſehold troops, which are his body guards. There are alſo the guards of the golden mace, the ſilver mace, and the iron mace: theſe carry maces, and are all choſen men, who have diſtinguiſhed themſelves by their valour. But the moſt reſpectable and honourable body among the emperor's forces is a regiment of 4000 men, called the emperor's ſlaves; theſe are the principal of the houſehold troops, or body guards; and their daroga, or commander, is a perſon of very great authority.

The arms of the cavalry are a ſabre, a dagger, a bow and quiver of arrows, a lance, a kind of carbine, and a ſhield. Thoſe of the infantry are a ſword and dagger, a bow and arrows, a ſhield, and either a ſpike or muſket. They have alſo ſmall guns, which they fire from the backs of elephants. Added to all theſe they have an heavy artillery; though it muſt be confeſſed they are obliged to have European gunners to manage it.

The whole country is in agitation to provide for the oſtentation and pomp of a camp, and orders are iſſued for the bringing in proviſions from every quarter to ſupply it. There is always great confuſion in its operations; and a famine, with contagious diſtempers, frequently attend it. There are, beſides, conſiderable loſſes ſuſtained in men, beaſts, and implements of war, in croſſing difficult roads, and particularly in paſſing over rivers; for, in the rainy ſeaſon, the rivers become ſo rapid, that the landing-places are often a mile below the places of embarkation.

Notwithſtanding they affect a ſtrong paſſion for military glory, the natives of Hindoſtan engage in war as ſeldom as poſſible. Thoſe who have had the good fortune to obtain ſome marks of diſtinction in battle, are excuſed from ſerving for ſome time, and there are few who do not avail themſelves of this privilege.

SECTION VII.

Commerce, Manufactures, Architecture, Revenue, Coins, Weights, Meaſures, &c.

THE merchants of Hindoſtan carry on a briſk and flouriſhing trade to Perſia and the Red Sea, ſupplying both Perſia and Turkey with all the rich merchandize of India; in return for which they import pearls, carpets, and other Perſian commodities, but chiefly treaſure to a vaſt amount.

As revolutions in Aſia are ſo frequent, trade cannot be carried on in the ſame continued track as it is in Europe. European ſhips are uſed for the importation of Indian treaſure, by way of ſecurity from the aſſaults of pirates.

They do not univerſally obſerve one and the ſame method in painting their cottons; either becauſe there are ſome niceties peculiar to certain provinces, or becauſe different ſoils produce different drugs for the ſame uſes.

The chief manufactures of Hindoſtan are callicos, ſilks and muſlins. We import from thence indigo, ſalt-petre, opium, pepper, &c. &c. with diamonds and other precious ſtones.

The commodities exported from Europe are gold and ſilver lace, Engliſh broad-cloth, ſword-blades, looking-glaſſes, hard-ware, tin-ware, brandy, beer, &c. &c. All the goods carried to India, however, are trifling in proportion to the bullion and foreign coin taken thither.

The natives forge very good blades of ſwords and poniards in ſome places. However, they cannot make either clocks or watches.

The cement uſed in houſe-building is made of ſea-ſhells, and is harder than brick-work: they cover the tops of flat-roofed buildings with it, through which no bad weather can penetrate; and with this ſame cement they frequently lay the floors of their rooms.

The natives do not carry on the foreign trade of Coromandel. In the weſtern part, indeed, there are Mahometans who ſend veſſels to Achen, Merguy, Siam, and the eaſtern coaſt. Excluſive of ſhips of conſiderable burthen employed in theſe voyages, they have ſmaller embarkations for the coaſting trade of Ceylon, and the pearl fiſhery.

The Indians of Maſſulipatan import white callicos from Bengal, which they dye or print, and diſpoſe of them again at the places from whence they had them, at a very conſiderable profit. Excepting theſe tranſactions, the trade is entirely veſted in the hands of the Europeans, whoſe only partners are a few Armenians and Bramins.

Weaving is the principal employment throughout India; but the greateſt manufactory is at Dacca, in Bengal, where the fineſt callicos, muſlins, and dimities are made.

The filligree is admirable, the workmanſhip coſting infinitely more than the metal itſelf. It is not perforated as with us, but cut into ſhreds, and joined with ſuch inimitable art, that the niceſt eye cannot perceive the junctures.

The embroidery and needle-work are infinitely ſuperior to any thing of the kind done in Europe; but it is remarkable, that the embroiderers and ſempſtreſſes (if we may be permitted ſo to call them) are all men, whoſe patience is as aſtoniſhing as their flowneſs is ſingular.

The gold and ſilver ſilks and gauzes are manufactured at Benares, but their richneſs exceeds their elegance. They are executed without taſte, and make a very dull appearance when finiſhed, wanting the delightful gloſs, and vivid colours, which ſo greatly enliven, and give ſuch ſpirit and beauty to the ſilks and gauzes of Europe and other places.

The exceeding flowneſs of the manufacturers renders moſt of the commodities of India very expenſive: none will work but when abſolute neceſſity compels them to it: ſo that when a merchant has occaſion for any article, he is obliged to ſend for the maker, furniſh him with materials to proceed, and advance him the money that his labour will amount to, previous to his entering upon the buſineſs.

They copy with exactneſs, but have neither genius to invent, or ingenuity to improve: hence their works are admirably neat, without being pleaſingly elegant; and diſplay the moſt exquiſite fineneſs, without the leaſt delicacy of taſte.

At Surat they are very ſkilful in the ſhip-building art; though it muſt be acknowledged that their naval, as well as their other architecture, is rather aukward and clumſy. Their veſſels are made of a wood called teak, which is as durable and ſolid as oak, and their maſts come from the coaſt of Malabar. Their ropes are produced from the fibres of the cocoa-nut tree, and their ſail-cloths from their cotton manufactures. They uſe the gum of the damar tree for pitch, and their anchors are for the moſt part European; and, indeed, the moſt valuable of their cordage is the produce of Europe. The ſmall veſſels that are uſed along the coaſt of Malabar are made of the above wood, the planks being faſtened together with cords. They are flat at the bottom, and have not any rudder.

The Mogul's revenue is ſuppoſed to have amounted to about forty millions per annum, before Nadir Shah committed his depredations in the empire, who deprived it of its moſt valuable treaſures, and, by enfeebling the ſovereign's authority, enabled ſeveral nabobs to emancipate themſelves from his power. The revenues ariſe from the cuſtoms of the ſea-ports, the produce of the fields, the devolution of the eſtates to the crown, the preſents from ſubjects, &c. &c.

The coins of Hindoſtan are the rupee, the gold mahor, the pagoda, the fanam, and the pice. The value of the rupee, a ſilver coin, is about 2s. 3d. the gold mahor is worth about 14 rupees; the pagoda is valued at 9s. and is ſo called from its being ſtamped with the figure

figure of a pagoda; the fanam, a ſilver coin, is worth 3d. and the pice, which is a copper piece, is valued at about a halfpenny. Foreign coins are alſo current: but, for trifling articles, they ſometimes make uſe of cowries or ſea-ſhells, threeſcore of which are valued at about a halfpenny. Capital ſums are reckoned by lecks or lacks, carons or carols, and arabs. A lack is 100,000 rupees, a caron is 100 lacks, and an arab is 10 carons. They make a threefold diviſion of intereſt; one of which is vice, another neither vice or virtue, and a third virtue. This is their manner of expreſſion. The intereſt that is vice, is four per cent. a month; and the intereſt that is virtue, one.

The common weight at Surat is the ſeer, which is about thirteen ounces; but their weights differ in almoſt every port, and ſometimes even in the ſame port. We cannot, therefore, with any degree of accuracy, ſpecify them.

The coſs, with which they meaſure their land, is about an Engliſh mile and a half. In liquid and dry meaſures, one meaſure is a pint and a half; eight meaſures are one mercall, or twelve pints; and 400 mercalls are one garſe, or 600 gallons.

SECTION VIII.

Chief Provinces and Cities of Hindoſtan. Dehli invaded by the Patans. City of Agra. Deſcription of a Fight between Men and Beaſts at an Entertainment given by the Great Mogul. Divers other Provinces and Cities of Hindoſtan.

THE chief cities in the midland provinces of Hindoſtan, are thoſe of Dehli and Agra. The city of Dehli, or Delli, capital of the province of Dehli, ſituated in the heart of the empire, is in 78 degrees eaſt longitude from London, and in 26 degrees north latitude. It ſtands in the form of a creſcent, on the river Gemma, which divides it; and it is diſtinguiſhed into three towns, lying within about 120 miles north of Agra, in a fine plentiful country, where the air is more cool and ſalubrious than at Agra. The firſt town that was built is ſaid to have had 9 caſtles and 52 gates. At ſome diſtance is a ſtone bridge, and a delightful plantation of trees, leading to the ſecond town, which was taken from the Indians by the firſt Mogul conqueror. This was adorned and enriched by ſeveral magnificent ſepulchres of the Patan princes, as well as other ſtately monuments, which were all demoliſhed by Shah Jehan, father of Aurengzebe: but the latter rebuilt the town, and called it Jehan-Abad, transferring the ſeat of the empire hither from Agra, where the heat of the ſummer was too violent. The third town, which was erected cloſe to the ſecond, and formed out of its ruins, was called Dehli by the Indians, inſtead of Jehan-Abad, the baſis of which was ſaid to have been laid in blood, as the throats of malefactors were cut, by Jehan's order, "the better (he ſaid) to cement the ſtones." He ſpared no expence whatever to adorn and beautify the gardens belonging to the royal palace, which were formed by an ingenius Venetian, after an Italian model.

The city of Dehli is entered by a long ſtreet, with arches on each ſide of it, under which are the ſhops of the tradeſmen. This ſtreet leads directly to the palace, at the entrance of which are a couple of elephantic figures, on whoſe backs ride two famous rajahs, repreſentatives of two brothers, who loſt their lives in bravely defending certain towns laid ſiege to by Eckbar. The palace is a very magnificent building, with brilliant porticos, elegant apartments, and every appurtenance that can conduce to uſe and ornament.

In this city is a ſpacious moſque, and a very magnificent caravanſera. The latter of theſe was erected by a Mogul princeſs. It is ſituated in a large ſquare, and ſurrounded by arches ſupporting open galleries, where the Perſian, Uſbec, and other foreign merchants lodge, and have alſo warehouſes for their effects.

The houſes of the great, which are on the banks of the river, or in the ſuburbs, are ſpacious and airy, having large courts, cellars, gardens, groves, ponds, fountains, and enormous fans on each ſide for the purpoſe of cooling the air.

The houſes of the poorer ſort of people are built with clay, and thatched, but have convenient courts and gardens. There are beſides theſe a great number of ſmall cottages, built of clay and ſtraw, or mats joined together, and faſtened to poles.

Mechanics are not numerous in this city, not from want of ſkill in the people, but from the ill treatment of the omrahs, who, if they can meet with them, oblige them to work, and reward them according to their own diſcretion.

Many of the principal inhabitants are wealthy; and their moſt ineſtimable poſſeſſions are jewels, which they take particular care ſhall be faithfully tranſmitted to their poſterity.

The Patans, a people who live at the foot of Mount Imaus, to which they fled from the power of the Moguls, rendered themſelves formidable againſt Nadir Shah; and after the latter had abandoned Hindoſtan, they themſelves invaded the country in its then weak and defenceleſs ſtate.

The Mogul no ſooner heard of the march of the Patans towards his empire, than he called his great officers of the army together, and holding in his hand, agreeably with the eaſtern cuſtom, a betel, he offered it to that general who ſhould inſtantly take on him the command of his forces, to oppoſe the deſigns of the enemy: but ſuch was the puſillanimity or perfidy of his officers, that not one of them would accept the offer made by their ſovereign; upon which the young prince, who was then only about 18 or 19 years of age, being much concerned for the diſtreſſed ſituation of his father, ſolicited that he might be ſuffered to accept the betel. The emperor, however, refuſed it him; but the officers, or omrahs, joining in the intreaty of the prince, as he had ſo voluntarily made the offer, the emperor conſented, and veſted him with the command.

Piqued at the preſumption and boldneſs of the young prince, the military officers entered into a conſpiracy to betray and give him up to the enemy; but the prince being happily apprized of their deſign, laid them all under arreſt, threw them into priſon, and then vigorouſly attacking the invaders of his country, repulſed and drove them entirely away.

The conſpirators getting out from priſon in the meantime, cauſed a report to be circulated, that the prince was ſlain in the battle, and entering the palace gates with violence, ſtrangled the emperor, and propagated a freſh rumour, that the ſovereign, on account of his ſon's death, had put an end to his own life. At this fatal criſis it was, that the young victorious prince was returning in all the pomp of war to Dehli, when hearing of the horrible cataſtrophe which had happened, and apprehending his own life to be in imminent danger, he had recourſe to ſtratagem. He affected to believe that his father had died a natural death, or had killed himſelf; and, aſſuming a faquir's garb, declared he ſhould from that moment renounce the world, and not trouble himſelf in the leaſt about government.

In conſequence of this reſolution the conſpirators went forth to meet him, and acknowledged him their lawful ſovereign. But the prince, however, aſſured them he ſhould not ſucceed to his father's crown, but ſhould retire to ſome ſequeſtered place for meditation; to which end he begged their attendance that evening in the palace, in order to conſult on the election of an emperor. The omrahs attended, the guards ſeized their perſons, and the young Mogul, Amet Shan, triumphed over both his foreign and domeſtic enemies.

The tranquillity of Dehli, however, was ſoon after more effectually diſturbed: for the Patans, conſiderably reinforced, again attacked the city, conquered it, plundered it, and ſeized on the royal treaſury. They then marched home with their ſpoil, which conſiſted

of

of almoſt all the riches left in the place after it was pillaged by Nadir Shah, and amounted to a very capital ſum.

The Patan chief, when he halted at Lahor, drew a line from north to ſouth, claiming a vaſt track of land to the weſt of that line, tributary to the empire of Hindoſtan; and leaving his ſon Timur there as generaliſſimo and governor of this extent of territory, he no farther moleſted Hindoſtan at that period. But as all the riches of the land were carried off, a general dejection enſued, the grounds lay fallow, and the manufacturers ſtood ſtill: the people would not work for foreign plunderers, and want and famine were ſpeedily felt. Thus did ambition oppreſs the fine region of Hindoſtan.

Many revolutions happened afterwards at Dehli, and, in the year 1757, Timur was placed on the imperial throne.

Agra is the capital of the province of that name. It was founded in the year 1566, by Eckbar, who called it Eckbarabat, and made it the metropolis of his empire. It is ſituated in 26 degrees north latitude, and 79 degrees eaſt longitude, from London. It lies on the river Gemma, about 700 miles north-eaſt of Surat, a journey which the caravans generally perform in nine weeks, and about 500 leagues north of Pondicherry, on the Coromandel coaſt. It ſtands in the middle of a ſandy plain, which greatly adds to the heat of the climate. It is about eight miles long, but not near ſo broad, and no part is fortified but the palace. There are, however, generally a great number of ſoldiers here.

The houſes are ſo ſituated as to command an agreeable proſpect of the river. The buildings of the omrahs, and other great men, are of ſtone, and elegantly conſtructed. The great number of moſques, caravanſeras, ſquares, baths and reſervoirs, intermixed with gardens, trees, and flowers, render this place extremely pleaſant. The royal palace is a magnificent ſtructure, ſituated in the form of a creſcent on the banks of the river.

Around the palace are elegant gardens, with fine canals; and there are alſo extenſive parks; ſo that the circumference of the whole is very conſiderable.

In 1638 here were no leſs than ſeventy moſques; and pilgrimages are at this time made to a famous moſque, in which there is the ſepulchre of a ſaint 30 feet long, and near 16 broad.

Criminals purſued, in order to be puniſhed for offences, fly directly to a moſque, and there find a certain ſhelter. Not even the emperor himſelf can hurt them after they have once flown to its ſacred walls; for the attempt to puniſh, in this caſe, would be a direct violation of that profound reſpect and reverence due to ſuch as have the title of ſaints.

In this city are 800 purifying baths; and near it ſtands that grand piece of architecture the mauſoleum, which 20,000 men were twenty-two years in building.

The greateſt part of the inhabitants of Agra are Mahometans and Moguls; and the city flouriſhes when honoured with a viſit from the Great Mogul; but in general it has little to boaſt of with regard to commerce.

There is a very ſingular entertainment given by the Great Mogul to foreign ambaſſadors; it conſiſts of wild beaſts of various ſorts fighting with each other, or combated by men, who engage in ſuch dangerous enterprizes to obtain the favour of the king. The manner of one of theſe fights, which was exhibited at Agra, when the Moguls kept their court there, is thus deſcribed. Firſt, two buffalos were let looſe at each other, and afterwards a lion and a tyger, the two latter of which fought deſperately for ſome time. Theſe being taken away, the governor aroſe and ſaid, "The Great Mogul's will and pleaſure is, that if any valiant heroes are minded to give proofs of their valour, in fighting againſt the wild beaſts with ſhield and ſword, let them come forth: if they conquer, the Great Mogul will ſhew high favour to them." On this three perſons entered the liſt and engaged to undertake the combat; when the governor calling out, ſaid, "None muſt fight with any other weapon than ſword and ſhield: thoſe who have a dagger about them muſt throw it away, and fight fairly." A lion was then driven into the ring, where one of the three ſtood ready to encounter him. The lion immediately ran to him with the greateſt ferocity, but the man defended himſelf a conſiderable time, till his arms growing weary, the lion laid one of his paws on the ſhield, and the other on his arm. The man finding himſelf unable to uſe his ſword, and ſeeing the danger he was in, with his left hand drew out his Indian ſtiletto, and gave the lion ſo violent a ſtab in the throat, that he immediately let go his hold; after which he ſevered his body almoſt in two with his ſword, and, purſuing his victory, effectually killed him. The Mogul, however, ſmiling, ſaid to the conqueror, "You are a brave ſoldier; you have fought valiantly; but did not I command you to fight fairly, with ſword and ſhield only? but, like a thief, you have ſtolen the lion's life with a ſtiletto." After this the king ordered the man's belly to be immediately ripped open, and that his body ſhould be carried on the backs of elephants throughout the city; which ſentence was immediately executed.

A tyger was then brought to the ring, which was encountered by a very ſtrong man; but the tyger was ſo active, that he ſuddenly leaped on his antagoniſt, and tore him to pieces. A very ſmall perſon then engaged the tyger, and, at the firſt encounter, cut off both his fore feet, which obliged him to fall: he then purſued his efforts, and ſoon killed him. On this the king calling to him, aſked his name; to which he anſwered, Geiby. The king then ordered one of his ſervants to carry him a cloth of gold, who, when he delivered it to him, ſaid, "Geiby, receive this coat, which the Mogul of his bounty hath ſent." The conqueror received the coat with great humility, kiſſed it ſeven times, and afterwards holding it up, prayed to himſelf for the Mogul's proſperity; which done, he cried aloud, "God grant the Mogul to grow as great as Tamerlane, from whom he is derived; may he live ſeven hundred years, and his generation continue for ever." After he had thus expreſſed himſelf, he was conducted by an eunuch to the king, who, on his going away, ſaid, "Be praiſed, Geiby Khan, for your heroic exploits. This name you ſhall keep for ever. I am your favourable lord, and you my vaſſal."

There is a very formidable nation on the north of Hindoſtan, called the Scheiks, who can bring into the field 60,000 cavalry. They poſſeſs the whole province of Punjal, the greateſt part of the Moultan, and the Sindi, and all the country towards Dehli, from Lahor to Serhend. Theſe people have found means to free themſelves from the chains of deſpotiſm, though encompaſſed by nations of ſlaves. During the calamities of the Mogul empire, their number increaſed conſiderably, by refugees from different nations. It is affirmed that they have a temple with an altar, on which ſtands their code of laws, and next to it a ſceptre and a dagger. To be admitted amongſt them, nothing more is required than to ſwear an utter abhorrence of monarchy.

Caſhmire, or Caſſimire, which is about 76 miles in length, and 30 broad, is one of the moſt pleaſant countries in all India: it is divided from Tartary by Mount Caucaſus, and is ſituated in the northern part of the empire. This place, though inconſiderable as to its revenues, was uniformly held in the higheſt eſtimation by the emperors of Hindoſtan. Thither they repaired in the plenitude of their greatneſs, when the affairs of ſtate would admit of their abſence, and there they diveſted themſelves of form, and all the oppreſſive ceremonies of ſtate.

The royal manner of travelling to Caſhmire was grand, though tedious and unwieldy, and ſhewed, in an eminent degree, the ſplendour and magnificence of eaſtern potentates.

The temperature of the air here, elevated as it is ſo much above the adjoining country, together with the ſtreams which continually pour from its mountains, enables

enables the husbandman to cultivate with success the soil he appropriates to agriculture, whilst the labour of the gardener is amply repaid in the abundant produce of his fruit.

The rivers supply the inhabitants with almost every species of fish; the hills yield sweet herbage for the cattle; the plains are covered with grain of different kinds; and the woods are stored with variety of game. In this country, therefore, it is not to be wondered that the woman are so singularly beautiful. The picture intended by nature would have been incomplete without them.

Adown their necks, more white than virgin snow,
Of softest hue, the golden tresses flow:
Their heaving breasts, of purer, softer white
The snow hills glist'ning in the moon's pale light,
Except where cover'd by the sash, were bare;
And love itself smil'd soft and panted there.

In almost every other part of Asia the Scythian feature is to be traced in a greater or less degree. It is not so here. The Cashmireans seem a race distinct from all others in the east. Their persons are more elegant, and their complexions more delicate, and more tinged with red.

Where beauty is, there ever will be love; and love will always be attended by poetry and music. Thus we find the Cashmireans cultivate those arts with extraordinary success; poetry in particular. No country of the east has produced more elegant effusions of imagination than Cashmire, nor has any been more celebrated in story or romance.

On the decline of the Mogul power in Hindostan, Cashmire felt some of the ravages of war. It is now, however, in peace, and the inhabitants are desirous of keeping it so. Industry, sprightliness, and goodfellowship, fill up the measure of their time. They gratefully return thanks to heaven for the blessings they enjoy. Their days are days of comfort, and their nights are crowned with tranquillity and repose.

To the north of Cashmire is the province of Lahor, situated in 32 degrees north latitude, which was subdued by the Patans. In this province are mosques, caravanseras, baths, pagodas, palaces, and gardens. There is, in particular, antique edifices here, once the residences of the Moguls, and on which are inscribed the exploits of many of those monarchs.

The province of Sindy, situated on the river Sind, is a very fruitful country. Here is a great plenty of cattle of all sorts, and numbers of tame and wild fowl. The province abounds in wheat, rice, and pulse. They never have a dearth, the Indus overflowing all the low grounds in April, May, and June, and leaving a fat slime that enriches the earth.

This country produces salt-petre, sal-ammoniac, borax, lapis-lazuli, lapis-tutiæ, assa-fœtida, lignum-dulce, bezoar, opoponax, and raw silk.

The natives manufacture both silk and cotton, as well as chintz, and very handsome counterpanes. They also make fine cabinets, lacquered, and inlaid with ivory. They export a great deal of butter, which is put into duppas, or jars, containing from 5 to 200 lb. weight. The quota of forces, furnished from hence to the Mogul, is 4000 horse, and 8000 foot.

The established religion of the people is Mahometanism. There are, however, ten Gentoos to one Mahometan.

They have here a particular festival, called the Feast of Wooly, when both sexes meet, and dance to the sound of drums, pipes, and cymbals. The women distribute sweetmeats, and the men squirt oil at each other.

The capital of the province, called Tatta, is situated in a large plain; it is about three miles in length, and about one and an half in breadth. Here is a palace for the nabob, and a citadel. The citizens are particularly celebrated for making extraordinary handsome palanquins.

Near the city are several very large and magnificent tombs, which contain the remains of some of the ancient monarchs of Sindy. The largest, which is in the form of a cupola, is about 30 feet in height, and 21 in diameter. It consists of the most beautiful variegated porphyry, polished in the most exquisite manner.

The province of Guzurat, or Cambaya, lies to the south of Sindy, and is rendered a peninsula by Cambaya bay on the south-east, and Sindy bay on the north west. From north to south it extends about 300 miles and from east to west about 400 miles.

Amadab is the chief city of Cambaya, and lies about 140 miles to the northward of Surat, in 23 degrees north latitude, and 72 degrees east longitude, from London. It stands in a most delightful plain, watered by the river Sabremetty, and is surrounded by a wall of brick and stone, flanked with round towers, forty feet high and twelve gates. The town, including its suburbs, is about four miles in length. It is so intermixed with gardens and groves, that it has a most pleasing and rural aspect at a distance; and has upwards of 20 towns, and near 300 villages under its jurisdiction. One of the villages, called Serquech, is distinguished for the tombs and monuments of the ancient kings of Cambaya, or Guzurat.

The city of Cambaya is situated in 23 deg. north latitude, at the bottom of a gulph of the same name. It is about two leagues in circumference, and has very extensive suburbs, exclusive of fine gardens: the streets are spacious, and the houses well built with brick. The English and Dutch have factories here, though great part of the trade is removed to Surat; on which account the city is but thinly inhabited. It is surrounded by a brick wall, and has several sepulchres, besides a stately castle for the nabob.

The Banian inhabitants here shew a particular indulgence to monkies, which swarm and are very mischievous. Originally there was an hospital for animals in this place, and the ruins of it are still visible. In the country is a prodigious number of peacocks, which the natives catch after the birds have retired to rest. The flesh of the young ones is white, and the taste of it somewhat like that of a turkey.

The tide in the bay of Cambaya runs with such amazing rapidity, that it is said to exceed the pace of the swiftest animal.

Surat is a great commercial city, situated in the province of Guzurat, on the river Tapta, a short distance from the ocean. The streets of this city are irregularly laid out, though wide at bottom. The shops have rather a mean appearance, the chief traders keeping their commodities in warehouses. Here are, however, a great number of very good buildings.

The building of this city was begun about the middle of the last century, and in a few years became a very considerable place. It is said to contain about 200,000 inhabitants.

Before the English East India Company possessed Bombay, the president and council managed their affairs at Surat, where a factory, which had been established there, was still continued, after the presidency was removed to Bombay. This factory had received from the Mogul government many valuable immunities and Persians, Moguls, Indians, Arabs, Arminians, Jews and Europeans, all resorted to Surat, where money was easily obtained, and bills of exchange were to be had for every market in India. Bags of money, ticketed and sealed, would circulate for years, without being weighed or counted; such was the honesty of the traders. Fortunes were proportionable to the ease and readiness with which they were to be obtained by commerce; and a fortune of 200,000l. was common.

In hot weather the principal people retire into the country; and the English factory have a very pleasant garden, kept in the most regular order.

This place abounds with all kinds of provisions; the soil of this country is extremely fertile, and produces the finest wheat in India. Here are great numbers of

antelopes, and ſome deer, with a great plenty of wild fowl.

The Moors, who have the government entirely in their own hands, tolerate all religions. When they take an European into their ſervice, they never make any enquiry about his religion, or wiſh him to become a proſelyte.

In the year 1664 Surat was plundered by Rajah Savagi, who carried off no leſs than 1,200,000l. The plunder would have been much more conſiderable, had not the Engliſh and Dutch avoided the depredation, by having placed their richeſt commodities in the caſtle, which was out of the Rajah's reach: they had, beſides, well fortified their factories: ſo that the plunderer thought it prudent to retire, without attempting to attack them.

In conſequence of the above loſs, the inhabitants built walls round the city: not, however, that this precaution was attended with the advantages expected; for the Engliſh, in 1686, ſtopped all the ſhips that were fitted out at Surat for the ſeveral ſeas; and this oppreſſion continuing a conſiderable time, Surat was deprived of almoſt every branch of commerce that was not its own immediate property.

However, notwithſtanding theſe and other misfortunes, Surat is at this time a flouriſhing city. Of the produce of the manufactures of Guzurat, which are depoſited in warehouſes, a conſiderable part is carried into the inland countries, and the reſt to all parts of the globe. The commodities moſt commonly known are blue linens, white linens, blue and white checks, printed callicos, ſilk and cotton ſtuffs, gauzes, ſhawls, and dutties. Surat receives in exchange for her exports great quantities of ſpices from the Dutch; iron, lead, cloth, cochineal, and hard-wares, from the Engliſh; ſilk from Bengal and Perſia; maſts and pepper from Malabar; ſlaves and perfumes from Arabia; teas, ſugars, camphire, quickſilver, and toys, from China; and gums, dried fruits, pearls, and copper, from Perſia. The manufacturers here have generally their work beſpoke by the wholeſale merchants; and this being the only ſea-port of any importance in the Mogul's dominions, that the Europeans do not poſſeſs, the inland trade employs great numbers of caravans for the diſtribution of the articles imported; and a continual intercourſe is preſerved from hence with Bombay, both by ſea and land. The governor of Surat, who, in the adminiſtration of public juſtice, attends perſonally in the durbar, preſides with great ſtate, and decides on all actions of a civil and criminal nature.

Biſnagar, the capital of the kingdom of the ſame name, and which is about 200 miles to the eaſt of Carwar, ſtands on the ſummit of a high mountain, and is ſurrounded by no leſs than three walls.

SECTION IX.

Engliſh Poſſeſſions and Settlements in the Eaſt Indies. Account of the Cruelties exerciſed on the Engliſh in the Black Hole at Calcutta.

THE province of Bengal is well known by giving its name to the greateſt gulph in Aſia, which ſeparates the two peninſulas of the Indies. It is bounded by Aſem and Araccan on the eaſt, by ſeveral provinces belonging to the Great Mogul on the weſt, by hideous rocks on the north, and by the ſea on the ſouth. It is upwards of 240 leagues from eaſt to weſt, and is deemed the moſt fertile country in India for a variety of valuable articles, ſuch as ſugar, ſilk, gum-lack, ſaltpetre, rice, opium, pepper, fruits, &c. The greateſt part of the Bengal ſilk is produced in the territory of Coſſimbuzar, where the ſilk-worms are reared and fed in the ſame manner as in other places; but the natural heat of the climate hatches and brings them to perfection at all times of the year. Conſiderable quantities of ſilk and cotton ſtuffs are manufactured here, and circulated through part of Aſia.

The Engliſh Eaſt India Company's forces eſtabliſhed in Bengal are very conſiderable; and the whole kingdom may be ſaid, in a great meaſure, to be entirely under their rule and guidance; as the ſubah, and the others rajas and princes, can only act under their controul.

A late writer gives the following account of a review of the company's troops in the preſence of the Great Mogul.

"On a great holiday among the Mahometans, by deſire of the Great Mogul, the Engliſh troops were ordered out to be reviewed by him: but it appeared very extraordinary that he did not take the leaſt notice of any thing, or even look on the troops while they were going through their evolutions: if he did, it was with an eye aſkaunt, much practiſed by the Muſſulmen. It ſeems it is inconſiſtent with dignity to appear to obſerve. All the trappings of dignity were diſplayed upon this occaſion. The Mogul himſelf was on an elephant richly covered with embroidered velvet, the howder magnificently lacquered and gilded; and his ſons were likewiſe on elephants. The plain was almoſt covered with his attendants: the officers of his court, their ſervants, their ſervants ſervants, ſeapoys, peaders, &c. &c. did not amount to leſs than 1500 people. All, except the ſeapoys, were, according to cuſtom, dreſſed in white jemmers, and turbans. The principal people were on horſeback, and well mounted. The train was increaſed by a great number of ſtate elephants, ſtate palanquins, and led horſes, richly capariſoned. The gilding of the howders and palanquins, the gold ſtuffs of the bedding and cuſhions, the ſilver and gold ornaments, the taſſels and fringe of various colours, ſome of them even mixed with ſmall pearls, the rich umbrellas, trappings of the horſes, and all together, glittered in the ſun, and made a moſt brilliant appearance."

Patna, which is ſituated in the Upper Ganges, is thought to be the moſt famous place in the univerſe for the cultivation of opium; but it is far inferior in its ſtrength to that made in Syria and Perſia. The Indians in general are exceeding fond of it; though its uſe has been prohibited by the moſt ſevere penal laws. In the neighbouring iſlands, however, it is conſumed in great quantities. They not only chew it, but intermix it with their tobacco when they ſmoak, which frequently intoxicates them even to a degree of inſanity, and prompts them to commit outrages of the moſt prejudicial tendency.

Patna is the capital of the territory of the ſame name, and one of the largeſt cities in India. The Engliſh have a capital factory here, at which is bought up immenſe quantities of opium and ſalt-petre.

Dacca is ſituated in 24 degrees north latitude. The ſoil is rich, the ſituation fine, and to its market are brought the richeſt commodities of India and Europe. It receives conſiderable advantages from its cottons, from which are produced ſtriped and worked muſlins, more valuable in their texture than thoſe made in any other part of India.

The factory of Fort William, at Calcutta, belongs to the Engliſh Eaſt India Company, and is the moſt capital ſettlement they poſſeſs on the continent of India, being the reſidence of their governor-general, who is aſſiſted by a ſupreme council, of which he is preſident, and a board of trade. It is ſituated on the river Hughly, the moſt weſterly part of the Ganges. Here are a great number of ſtore-houſes, magazines, and an hoſpital. Here is alſo a good garriſon of ſoldiers. All kinds of proviſions are very cheap at this place; though the air of Calcutta is unhealthy, the water brackiſh, the anchorage unſafe, and the neighbouring country affords but few manufactures; notwithſtanding which, great numbers of the moſt wealthy merchants, invited by the proſpect of ſecurity and liberty, have fixed their reſidence here.

In 1757 the Subah of Bengal, from motives of eaſtern haughtineſs and deſpotiſm, inveſted Calcutta, which was then in a defenceleſs ſtate. The governor, alarmed at

at the appearance of a very numerous army, abandoned the fort, and, with many of the chief inhabitants, repaired on board a veſſel in the river. Mr. Holwell, however, who was ſecond in command, aſſiſted by a few intrepid officers, and a weak garriſon, defended the place for ſome time, but was at length obliged to ſurrender; and the inhabitants, with the whole garriſon, were all forced into a dungeon called the Black Hole, from which only 25, out of 146 perſons, came out alive; the reſt being ſuffocated by extreme heat.

The humane mind will eaſily paint to itſelf the moſt wretched ſituation of ſuch a number of fellow-creatures crammed together in a cube of 18 feet, in a cloſe ſultry night, with ſcarce the fainteſt circulation of air. They had been but a few minutes confined, when every miſerable captive fell into ſo violent a perſpiration, as brought on a moſt raging thirſt. They all ſtripped off their cloaths except Mr. Holwell and three other gentlemen; and a propoſition was then made, that every man ſhould ſit down on his hams. This expedient was accordingly practiſed ſeveral times, and at each time many of the unhappy wretches, more weak than others, and who could not recover their legs when the word was given to riſe, fell all along, and were inſtantly ſuffocated, or trod to death. Repeated efforts had been made to force the door, but to no purpoſe. Before nine o'clock every man's perſpiration and thirſt was ſo exceſſive, that "water! water!" was the general cry; and an old jemmidar, among the guards, being moved with compaſſion at their extreme ſufferings, ordered ſome ſkins of water to be brought.

The tumult, madneſs, tranſport! the fury and avidity, the confuſion and violence, the lunacy and ravings of the miſerable captives, on the appearance of water, cannot poſſibly be conveyed to our readers in a more ſtriking view, than by quoting the words of Mr. Holwell.

"The water appeared! (ſays Mr. Holwell). Words cannot paint to you the univerſal agitation and raving the ſight of it threw us into. We had no means of conveying it into the priſon, but by hats forced through the bars; and thus myſelf, who ſtood cloſe to the bars, and Meſſrs. Coles and Scott, ſupplied our fellow ſufferers as faſt as poſſible. But thoſe who have experienced intenſe thirſt, or are acquainted with the cauſe and nature of this appetite, will be ſufficiently ſenſible it could be no more than a momentary alleviation: the cauſe ſtill ſubſiſted. Though we brought full hats within the bars, there enſued ſuch violent ſtruggles and frequent conteſts to get at them, that before they reached the lips of any one, there would be ſcarcely a tea-cup-full left in them. Theſe ſupplies, like ſprinkling water on fire, only ſerved to feed and raiſe the flame.

"O, my dear friend! how ſhall I give you a conception of what I felt at the cries and ravings of thoſe in the remoter parts of the priſon, who could not entertain a probable hope of obtaining a drop, yet could not diveſt themſelves of expectation, however unavailing! and calling on me by the tender conſiderations of friendſhip and affection, and who knew they were really dear to me! Think, if poſſible, what my heart muſt have ſuffered at ſeeing and hearing their diſtreſs, without having it in my power to relieve them! for the confuſion now became general and horrid. Many forced their paſſage from the further part of the priſon, and preſſing down thoſe who were too weak to withſtand them, trampled them to death."

Mr. Holwell, from nine to near eleven, thus ſtood at the bars of the window, ſupplying the poor creatures with water, and was almoſt preſſed to death. His two companions, and Mr. Parker, who had forced himſelf into the window, were really ſo; as were Meſſ. Bailie, Jenks, Reveley, Law, Buchanan, Simpſon, and ſeveral others who lay dead at his feet.

Mr. Holwell now calling out to his fellow priſoners and begging, as the laſt inſtance of their regard, they would remove the violent preſſure on him, and ſuffer him to leave the window, they gave way, and he, with great difficulty, got into the middle of the priſon, where the throng was leſs, by the many that were dead, and by others who flocked to the windows; for by this time they had water alſo at another window.

In the priſon there was a platform, raiſed between three and four feet from the floor, and open underneath. Upon this platform Mr. Holwell lay down among many dead bodies, hoping here ſpeedily to breathe his laſt: but, alas! he had not lain many minutes before he was ſeized with a moſt violent pain in his breaſt, and palpitation of the heart, attended with a difficulty of breathing, and an increaſing exceſſive thirſt. Unable to bear theſe united pains, he made a vigorous effort to get to a window oppoſite to him, and gaining the third rank at it, with one hand ſeized the bars, and by that means gained a ſecond. In a few moments the air from the window relieved the pain in his breaſt, as well as the palpitation and difficulty of breathing; but his thirſt was as great as ever. He got ſome water; but this increaſing, inſtead of abating his thirſt, he contented himſelf with ſucking into his mouth the perſpiration from his ſhirt ſleeves, and catching large drops as they fell from his face.

"Whilſt I was at the window (ſays Mr. Holwell) I was obſerved by one of my miſerable companions on the right of me, in the expedient of allaying my thirſt by ſucking my ſhirt ſleeves, upon which he took the freedom to rob me from time to time of a conſiderable part of my ſtore; though, after I detected him, I began upon that ſleeve he was making free with, and our mouths and noſes often met in the conteſt. This plunderer I found afterwards was a worthy young gentleman in the ſervice, Mr. Luſhington, one of the few who eſcaped from death, and ſince paid me the compliment of aſſuring me, he believed he owed his life to the many comfortable ſucks he had from my ſleeves."

About half after eleven, the majority of the ſurviving priſoners were in an outrageous delirium. Every poſſible abuſe of the ſubah, and every inſult againſt the guard, that could be thought of or ſpoken, in order to provoke them to fire into the priſon, were repeatedly practiſed to no kind of effect. Indeed, even before nine o'clock, many inſults were offered to the guards, to provoke them to fire.

"I need not, my dear friend, (ſays Mr. Holwell,) aſk your commiſeration, when I tell you, that in this plight, from half an hour after eleven, till near two in the morning, I ſuſtained the weight of a heavy man, with his knees on my back, and the preſſure of his whole body on my head; a Dutch ſerjeant, who had taken his ſeat on my left ſhoulder, and a black Chriſtian ſoldier bearing on my right; all which nothing could have enabled me to ſupport, but the props and preſſure equally ſuſtaining me all around. The two latter I frequently diſlodged by ſhifting my hold on the bars, and driving my knuckles into their ribs; but my friend above ſtuck faſt, and, as he held by two bars, was immoveable.

"The repeated trials and efforts I made to diſlodge this inſufferable encumbrance on me, at laſt quite exhauſted me; and towards two o'clock, finding I muſt quit the window, or ſink where I was, I reſolved on the former, having borne, truly for the ſake of others, infinitely more for life, than the beſt of it is worth.

"In the rank cloſe behind me was an officer of one of the ſhips, whoſe name was Carey, and who behaved with much bravery during the ſiege, (his wife, a fine woman, country born, would not quit him, but accompanied him into the priſon, and was one who ſurvived.) This poor wretch had been long raving for water and air. I told him I was determined to give up life, and recommended his gaining my ſtation. On my quitting, he made an attempt to get my place, but was prevented.

"Poor Carey expreſſed his thankfulneſs, and ſaid he would give up life too: but it was with the utmoſt labour we forced our way from the window, (ſeveral in the inner ranks appeared dead, ſtanding, unable to fall by

by the throng and preſſure around.) He laid himſelf down to die; and his death I believe, was very ſudden; for he was a ſhort, full, ſanguine man. His ſtrength was great; and I imagine, that had he not retired with me, I ſhould never have been able to force my way. I was at this time ſenſible of no pain, and little uneaſineſs. I found a ſtupor coming on apace, and laid myſelf down by that gallant old man, the Rev. Mr. Jervas Bellamy, who laid dead, with his ſon, the lieutenant, hand in hand. When I had lain here ſome time, I ſtill had reflection enough to ſuffer ſome uneaſineſs in the thought that I ſhould be trampled upon when dead, as I myſelf had been obliged to trample upon others. With ſome difficulty I raiſed myſelf, and gained the platform a ſecond time, where I preſently loſt all ſenſation. The laſt trace of ſenſibility that I have been able to recollect after my laying down, was, my faſh being uneaſy about my waiſt, which I untied, and threw from me. Of what paſſed in this interval, to the time of my reſurrection from this hole of horror, I can give you no account.

"When the day broke, and no intreaties whatever could prevail to get the priſon door opened, it occurred to a gentleman, (I think Mr. Secretary Cook) to make a ſearch for me, in hopes I might have influence enough to gain a releaſe from this ſcene of miſery. Accordingly Meſſrs Luſhington and Walcot undertook the ſearch, and by my ſhirt diſcovered me on the platform, from whence they took me, and, imagining I had ſome ſigns of life, brought me towards the window I had firſt poſſeſſion of. But as life was equally dear to every man, and the ſtench from the dead bodies was intolerable, no one would give up his ſtation in or near the window; ſo they were obliged to carry me back again. Soon afterwards Captain Mills, who was in poſſeſſion of a ſeat in the window, had the humanity to reſign it. I was again brought by the ſame gentlemen and placed in the window.

"At this juncture the Subah, who had received an account of the havock which death had made amongſt us, ſent one of his jemmidars to enquire whether the chief ſurvived. They ſhewed me to him, telling him I had the appearance of life ſtill remaining, and that it was poſſible I might recover, if the door was ſoon opened. This anſwer being returned to the Subah, an order came immediately for our releaſe, it being then near ſix in the morning."

Mr. Holwell then proceeds to relate, that from the number of dead bodies that were piled up againſt the door, which opened inwards, there were no poſſibility of opening it till the dead were removed; and that this work took up twenty minutes.

About a quarter after ſix o'clock, the remains of 146 ſouls, being only 23, came alive from the dungeon, among whom was Mrs. Carey. The dead bodies were dragged out of the priſon by the ſoldiers, and thrown into a ditch.

The ſurvivors were all ſet at liberty, except Mr. Holwell, Mr. Court, Mr. Walcot, Mr. Burdet, and Mrs. Carey; the firſt was ordered into the cuſtody of an officer; and the laſt was detained, on account of her perſonal beauty, to be the further victim of a freſh tyranny, the luſt of ſome great officer.

Mr. Holwell was in a high fever when he came out of the priſon, and was in this condition taken before the Subah; as he was unable to ſtand, they carried him to the tyrant, who ſaid to him, "I hear there is treaſure to a very conſiderable amount ſecreted in the fort; if you do not diſcover where it is, you muſt expect no mercy." Mr. Holwell aſſured him that he did not know of any treaſure; and the Subah, finding no intelligence could be got, ordered Mhir Muddon, the general of his houſhold troops, to take Mr. Holwell into his cuſtody.

It was the voluntary oppoſition made by Mr. Holwell, after the governor (Drake) had quitted the fort, that ſo particularly enraged the Subah; and this led him to believe, that there muſt certainly be ſome conſiderable treaſure hidden; for Mr. Holwell, it was imagined, would not have undertaken a work of ſuch danger, had he not been actuated to it by very intereſted principles.

Mr. Holwell and his companions were conveyed in a hackry to the camp, and there loaded with fetters: they were lodged in the tent of a Mooriſh ſoldier, which was ſo ſmall, that they were under a neceſſity of lying, ill as they were, half in, and half out of the tent, during a moſt diſagreeable and rainy night. The following day, however, their fever fortunately coming to a criſis, boils broke out on their bodies, and the day enſuing they were removed to the coaſt, from whence they were ſoon ſent by ſea to Muxadabad, to be diſpoſed of as the Subah ſhould think proper, who was expected to return to that capital from Calcutta.

On their arrival at Muxadabad, after a voyage of thirteen days, their boils had become running ſores, and the irons on their legs had conſumed their fleſh nearly to the bone. Mr. Holwell now ſent a letter to Mr. Law, chief of the French factory, with an account of their miſerable ſituation, and Mr. Law was ſo humane as to ſend them every neceſſary they wanted.

They landed on the 7th of July, in the afternoon, and after walking ſome conſiderable way as a public ſpectacle, were placed upon a ſhed, not far from the viceroy's palace, where they were relieved with great humanity by the French and Dutch chiefs, as well as by the Arabian merchants.

On the 18th of July the Subah arrived, and on the 25th the poor priſoners were led to his palace to know their future fate; but it happened that no audience could be given them on that day: and in the evening the Subah's grandmother interceded for their reſtoration to freedom, at a feaſt celebrated in honour of the viceroy's return home.

The next morning, very early, the unhappy ſufferers waiting the Subah's paſſing to his palace of Mooteejeel, and paying him, as ſoon as he came near them, the uſual homage, he caſt his eyes on them with an appearance of ſome compaſſion, and ordered their irons to be knocked off; he at the ſame time ordered two of his officers to conduct them wherever they ſhould be inclined to go, and charged them to prevent any inſult being offered to their perſons.

As ſoon as Mr. Holwell and his friends obtained their diſcharge, they took boat, and arrived at Corcemadad, a Dutch ſettlement; whence they embarked, and ſailed for England.

Meſſrs. Watſon and Clive, ſoon after this dreadful cataſtrophe, made their appearance before Calcutta, and entirely reduced the place. The Subah, now more enraged than ever, led his army towards Calcutta, and encamped within about a mile of the town, when Colonel Clive attacked him ſo vigorouſly, that the viceroy was forced to retreat, after having ſuſtained a conſiderable loſs, in killed, wounded, and priſoners.

The town of Calcutta is ſituated on the banks of the river Hugly, which is an arm of the Ganges. It is very large, but appears rather uncouth to the eye from the ſtrange irregularity of its buildings. Every perſon who erects a houſe, pleaſes his own fancy, with reſpect to the manner of the edifice, without paying any attention to the uniformity of the town; ſo that large and ſmall, elegant and mean, are blended together. Near the centre of the town is the old fort, in which is the place of confinement called the Black Hole, where, as before mentioned, the unhappy Engliſh ſuffered the moſt wretched puniſhment, by order of the Nabob Serajah Dowlah.

About a mile from the town, by the ſide of the river, is the new fort, which is a very handſome and ſtrong building. It is ſurrounded with walls, and exceeding ſpacious, containing magazines for ſtores, barracks for ſoldiers, and elegant apartments for the reſpective officers; beſides which, there are houſes in it for the accommodation of the engineers and other officers who reſide at Calcutta.

In

In the environs of Calcutta are ſeveral beautiful villages, which contain many elegant buildings, the country reſidences of Engliſh gentlemen, who retire here, particularly in the hot ſeaſon, to enjoy the benefit of the air, which is cooler, and much more wholeſome, than in town.

Of the many diſeaſes cauſed by the heat of the climate, the moſt fatal is that called the *pucker fever*, which carries off the perſon ſeized with it in a very ſhort ſpace of time. It is ſaid that leſs women die here, in proportion, than men, which is attributed to the abſtemiouſneſs of the former, and the intemperance of the latter.

Madras, or Fort St George, or Madraſpatan, (ſignifying, in the Indian language, the town of Madras,) is a capital ſettlement of the Engliſh in India, and is ſituated in 80 degrees eaſt longitude, and 13 degrees north latitude. It is near 4800 miles eaſt of London; and the ſun riſes and ſets ſix hours ſooner at Madras than with us.

This place is by no means convenient; for the ocean beats with prodigious violence againſt the ſhore, and it is ſubject to inundations from a ſalt water river behind it; nor is there a drop of freſh water to be got within a mile of it. It has a fort and garriſon, and in the middle of the fort is the governor's houſe, which is a handſome ſtone building.

In the town are ſeveral handſome ſtreets, with good houſes. The Europeans inhabit what they call the White Town, which forms an oblong ſquare of about a mile long, ſurrounded by walls. The Engliſh church here is a very pretty ſtructure, with an handſome altar, a carved gallery, and an organ.

The Black Town, occupied by Armenians, Indians, Portugueſe, and others, is near two miles in circumference, and encompaſſed by a very thick brick wall, fortified in the modern manner. The ſtreets are wide, but the houſes mean. It is a place of conſiderable wealth, however, and very populous. In this town there is an Armenian church, as well as ſeveral ſmall pagodas, to which belong great numbers of ſinging girls.

The trade of this colony is chiefly in the hands of Armenians and Jews. The articles the Engliſh deal in, are diamonds, chintz, callicoes, &c.

Madras was taken by the French in 1746, but reſtored the following peace. In 1758 they attacked it again under General Lally, but were repulſed by the forces under the Generals Lawrence and Draper.

Some years ſince it was computed that the towns and villages belonging to Fort St. George contained 80,000 people, 5000 of whom were Europeans.

Trade is carried on from hence to all parts eaſtward of the Cape of Good Hope; but the largeſt ſhips uſe the Mocha, Perſia, and Surat markets, with Bengal and China commodities, and touch on the voyage for pepper, cocoa, drugs, &c. on the Malabar coaſt. The European goods, which fetch the beſt market prices here, are wines, beer, ale, cyder, cheeſe, gold and ſilver lace, worſted and thread ſtockings, lead, flint ware, looking-glaſſes, &c. &c.

The nabob of Arcot has an elegant villa at a little diſtance from Madras, ſupported by pillars inſtead of walls. The apertures of colonades admit the light in lieu of windows, and open porticos ſerve the purpoſe of doors. The ſtile of architecture is thus elegantly airy and open, and the conſequent coolneſs renders it a luxurious retreat in a climate ſo exceeding ſultry.

Gingi, or Gingee, which is encompaſſed with mountains, conſiſts of two towns, called Great and Little Gingee, both of which are ſurrounded by a wall and five lofty rocks; and on the top of each rock is a ſtrong fortreſs. From eaſt to weſt theſe towns are ſeparated by a wall fortified with cannon, which one of the five rocks defends as a citadel.

Fort St. David is a colony and fort belonging to the Engliſh, ſituated four or five leagues to the ſouth of Pondicherry. In the year 1686 this place was bought for the conſideration of 90,000 pagodas, by the governor of Fort St. George, for the Eaſt India Company, and is eſteemed a ſituation of great conſequence to the Engliſh. In 1758 it was taken by the French forces under the command of General Lally, who blew up the fortifications, but fortune afterwards turning her back upon the victors, they were forced to give up to the Engliſh moſt of their poſſeſſions. Great quantities of chintz, callicoes, and muſlins, are manufactured here.

Tanjore (the capital of the kingdom of Tanjore) is ſituated in 11 degrees north latitude. This kingdom is bounded by the ocean on the eaſt, by Trichinopoly on the weſt, by the river Coleroon on the north, and on the ſouth by the territories of two great perſonages, ſtiled polygars, or lords. The Engliſh have a fort, with land belonging to it, near the mouth of the Coleroon.

When General Lally made his appearance before this place in 1741, he privately erected batteries at the very time he was pretending to commence a negociation with the prince, and even fired upon the town; when the inhabitants, inflamed with a juſt revenge; attacked the French with ſuch ſpirit and vigour, as to drive them entirely away.

The fort poſſeſſed by the Engliſh at the mouth of the river Coleroon, and which is named Davecotah, was granted to them by the king of Tanjore.

Bombay is an iſland ſeven miles in length, and about 20 miles in circumference, ſituated in 18 deg. 41 min. north latitude, on the coaſt of Decan, and forms a commodious bay. The harbour will hold 1000 ſail of ſhipping. This is one of the Engliſh Eaſt India Company's principal ſettlements in India, being well fortified, and having a good garriſon.

Bombay formerly belonged to the Portugueſe, who, in 1660, gave it up to King Charles II. on his eſpouſing the Infanta of Portugal; and the king afterwards gave it to the Eaſt India Company.

They have wet weather at Bombay about four months in the year, which is commonly preceded by a very violent thunder ſtorm. During this ſeaſon moſt of the trading veſſels are laid up. The rains begin about the latter end of May, and end in September, when the black merchants hold a feſtival, gilding a cocoa-nut, which they conſecrate, and commit to the waves.

The town or city of Bombay is ſurrounded by a wall and ditch, a mile long, and has a good caſtle. The land is laid out principally in groves of cocoas, rice fields, and onion grounds. This place is a great mart for cotton for the Engliſh trade to China.

There is not a place in the world where there is a greater medley of different nations than in the preſidency of Bombay. This region being conveniently ſituated for commerce by ſea with all maratime nations, and having alſo a communication by land with the Perſian empire, here are, beſides Europeans of all countries, Turks, Perſians, Arabians, Armenians, and a mixed race, the vileſt of their ſpecies, deſcended from the Portugueſe, and the outcaſts from the Gentoo religion.

There is a race of mortals in this country, that they call Caffrees, who are ſlaves to every other tribe. They have black woolly hair, and came originally from Caffria, in the ſouth promontory of Africa. They are ſenſible of their inferiority, in education at leaſt, if not in nature, to the Moors, Hindoos, and Chriſtians, and ſeem contented with their ſituation. They are ſo habituated to ſlavery, that they ſeem to have loſt all deſire of freedom, and to be happier in the ſervice of a good maſter, who is their protector, than they would be in a ſtate of independence.

The natives of this country are more ſlim, and generally of a ſhorter ſtature, than Europeans. It is a curious ſight to ſee their children running about naked, and ſpeaking by the time they are half a year old. It muſt be aſtoniſhing to a traveller, on his viſit to theſe parts, to be ſaluted by thoſe little figures, who, after giving him the ſaalam, (putting their hands to their foreheads,

foreheads, and bowing to the ground,) will aſk for ſomething; for all the children of the lower caſts are great beggars, and they go ſtark naked until they are nearly at the age of puberty. Their mental faculties, as well as their bodily powers, arrive much ſooner at maturity than thoſe of Europeans, nor do they ſo ſoon decay as is commonly believed.

Children are all taught reading and arithmetic in the open air. They learn to diſtinguiſh their letters, and the figures they uſe in the arithmetic, by forming them with their own hands, either in the ſand, or on boards.

In Bombay, where people of ſo many different nations are collected together, there is a kind of language which is compoſed of the moſt common words of the language of each nation, and of natural ſigns. Converſation is carried on, in a great meaſure, by geſticulation, pointing, and various diſtortions of countenance. This affords to a ſtranger a ludicrous ſpectacle; and as the Hindoos ſpeak in a very loud tone of voice, it appears diſagreeable to ſtrangers, before cuſtom (that reconciles us to every thing) renders it familiar. Yet their voices are not harſh, but naturally ſweet and melodious.

The trade of a potter is an excellent one in this country; for the Gentoos never uſe the ſame pot or plate twice; that would be pollution: but as to plates, their place is generally ſupplied by the broad and tough leaves of banian trees, and they uſe no ſpoons. The carnivorous appetites of Europeans ſhock them; for, the warrior excepted, the Gentoos eat no fleſh meat. Certain other caſts are allowed to eat fiſh. Of the Engliſh, particularly, they ſay, ſhaking their heads, "Ah! Engliſhmans eat every thing, fight every thing."

The chief Iſlands near Bombay are Butcher's Iſland, Elephanta, and Salſette. The firſt is ſo called, from great numbers of cattle being kept on it for the uſe of Bombay; and the ſecond has its name from the enormous figure of an elephant cut in ſtone, and which, at a diſtance, appears as if alive, the ſtone being exactly of the colour of the quadruped.

Salſette lies to the northward of Bombay, being about 26 miles in length, and 9 or 10 broad. Here is a ruinated place called Canara, where are ſeveral caverns in rocks, which conſiderably gratify the curioſity of ſuch Europeans as viſit them. The ſoil of this iſland is extremely fertile, and abounds with great plenty of game. It was originally comprehended under the regality of Bombay, and of conſequence became the property of the Engliſh crown when Bombay was given to Charles II. but the Portugueſe defrauded them of it; though it is ſo connected with Bombay, that the people thereof cannot ſubſiſt without it, having almoſt all their proviſions from it. The Portugueſe, however, loſt it by an invaſion of Marattas; and they ceded it to the Engliſh at the concluſion of a peace with them a few years back.

The Maratta nation are equally bred to arms and agriculture. The uſe of the former they have learnt of the Europeans, though they depend greatly on targets, which will turn the ball of a piſtol, and even that of a muſket, from ſome diſtance. If their muſkets are but very indifferent, their ſwords are excellent, and they uſe them with great execution. Their targets are quite round, and riſe in the center nearly to a point. The horſes on which they ride are ſmall, active, and will go through any fatigue.

We ſhall now give an account of the celebrated pirate, Konna Ji Angria, whoſe dominions were taken from him by the Engliſh.

This notorious and common diſturber, about a century ago, from the humble condition of a private individual among the Marattas, roſe to the elevated ſphere of admiral, and ſerved in the wars againſt the Mogul. Being, in conſequence of his ſervices, appointed governor of the little Iſland of Severndroog, he took the liberty to ſeize many veſſels that he had once the command of, and became a very formidable enemy in time. He took ſeveral of the ſea-ports belonging to his countrymen, and extended his depredations gradually near 60 leagues along the coaſt.

The ſucceſſors of this man, by a ſeries of good fortune on their ſide, became at length ſo powerful, and with their power ſo daring, that they ſeized not only the veſſels of their countrymen, but likewiſe all European and Mooriſh ſhips that they met with; ſo that the Eaſt India Company were under the neceſſity of taking meaſures to cruſh theſe common robbers. No attempts againſt them, however, ſucceeded till the year 1755, when commodore James, with a ſmall fleet of ſix ſhips under his command, levelled ſix of Angria's forts with the ground, and deſtroyed ſeveral ſhips that were riding in his harbours.

It is here to be obſerved, that the ſucceſſors of the firſt pirate Angria, were all of the ſame family and name.

In February 1756, Rear Admiral Watſon and Colonel Clive anchored in the road of Geriah (the ſtrongeſt place belonging to Angria) and ſummoned the fort to ſurrender; but the anſwer was, that the fort would be defended to the laſt extremity. Next day however, ſome relations of Angria came to the admiral, deſiring the indulgence of a few days to conſider upon this important matter. This was abſolutely refuſed; and in the afternoon of the ſame day the fleet weighed, and ſtood in for Geriah harbour. The engagement commenced about two o'clock, and about ſeven Mr. Clive left the ſhips with the forces under his command; landed at a convenient place, eaſtward of the fort, and was ſoon joined by a conſiderable Maratta reinforcement.

The bomb veſſels threw ſhells continually into the fort till the next day's dawn; and on this day a ſecond ſummons was ſent to the fort to ſurrender. The anſwer was, that the fort would be defended.

A general attack now began, and about two in the afternoon, a magazine in the fort blowing up, a flag of ſubmiſſion was diſplayed about four.

Upon this, the admiral demanded immediate admittance into the fort; but the meſſenger whom the admiral had ſent returning with an anſwer by no means ſatisfactory, the attack was renewed, and they then ſoon hung out a flag of ſurrender.

Mr. Clive, who had conſiderably annoyed the enemy by land, then came on board the admiral's ſhip, in company with an officer from the fort, with articles of capitulation, which were agreed to, and Geriah became poſſeſſed by the Engliſh with very little loſs, there not being above twenty men killed.

Angria, who had prudently eſcaped from the fort before it was attacked, was now totally ruined. A prodigious quantity of ſtores and ammunition, rupees to the amount of 100,000 pounds ſterling, and effects to the value of about 30,000 more, were found in the fort.

Angria left in the fort his mother, his wife, and two children; and a very affecting ſcene paſſed between theſe captives and the admiral, as the reader will find in the following quotation from Captain Ives's voyage to India.

"The admiral, with great humanity," ſays Mr. Ives, "viſited theſe unfortunate captives. Upon his entrance they all made a reverential bow, even to the very ground, ſhedding many tears. The admiral bade them be comforted, promiſing them that they ſhould ſuffer no injury. Angria's mother, ſtrongly affected, cried out, that the people had no king, ſhe no ſon, her daughter no huſband, the children no father." Mr. Watſon replied, "he would be their father and their friend."

Upon this, the youngeſt child, about ſix years old, innocently taking the admirals's hand, cried, "Then you ſhall be my father." The admiral, overpowered by the ſenſations of the moment, turned aſide to conceal the tears that were ready to ſtart from his eyes. It

was

was his intention to ſettle theſe poor captives at Bombay; but they aſked permiſſion to remain at Geriah.

Trichinopoly ſtands in a plain that was once encompaſſed by plenteous plantations of trees and opulent villas, but which now wears a much leſs pleaſing aſpect. The town is about four miles in circumference, fortified with a double wall, and defended by towers; it has a ditch near thirty feet wide. In this town there is a rock about 300 feet high, on the ſummit of which is a pagoda. Trichonopoly is the key of Tanjore and Madura, and gives them great influence. It was a principal ſcene of our military operations laſt war.

In the year 1753 the French made an attempt to take it by ſurprize: vainly ſurmiſing, that firing alone would terrify the garriſon, they turned a couple of our 12 pounders on the battery againſt the town, having previouſly ſcaled the outer wall. They were, however, through the exertion of equal judgment and bravery, entirely repulſed, and upwards of 360 Europeans were made priſoners.

Madura, which was taken by the Engliſh in 1757, is the capital of the province of Madura, and is a large fortified town.

At Tellicherry the Eaſt India Company have a well defended factory. The town ſtands at the back of the fort, and has a ſtone wall round it. The religion of the place is that of the Gentoos; there are, however, ſome few black Chriſtians who live protected by the factory. A fine deep purple opium is produced hereabout.

The Engliſh have alſo a factory with a fort and garriſon at Anjengo, which is farther to the ſouth.

SECTION X.

Poſſeſſions of the French in India.

THE capital of the French ſettlements in India is Pondicherry, on the Coromandel coaſt; it is a large handſome town, ſituated in 80 deg. 30 min eaſt longitude from London, and 12 deg. 20 min. north latitude. The ſtreets are all regular, and the principal one not leſs than half a league long. The city is ſurrounded by a wall, and has 6 gates, 10 or 18 baſtions, and upwards of 400 canon mounted, excluſive of mortars, bombs, &c.

Pondicherry ſtands upon a low ground, and veſſels cannot anchor nearer than within about half a league; even the canoes cannot come up to it by ſome way; ſo that the blacks convey perſons and mercantile articles to the fleet in flat-bottomed boats.

The chief buildings in Pondicherry are, the houſe of the Governor, the Jeſuit's houſe, and an elegant ſtructure in the Company's gardens. The houſes in common conſiſt only of one ſtory, as is uſual in moſt of the towns of the province. The Gentoos generally ſleep in their courts, or on the tops of their houſes: theſe people toil hard in their reſpective profeſſions, ſuch as weaving, painting, &c. for about a penny per day, and their uſual food is boiled rice; for the country, notwithſtanding its natural dryneſs, produces great quantities of that neceſſary of life, owing principally to the unwearied induſtry of the Gentoos, who at proper diſtances dig wells in the fields for refreſhing the ground.

The Mahometans are never animated by the laudable ſpirit of induſtry in the Gentoos, but are as indolent and lazy as the former are aſſiduous and careful.

The governor, when honoured with a viſit from any great perſonage, is attended by three hundred peons, or foot-guards; and when he goes out on any public occaſion, he is carried on a palanquin, the canopy of which is embelliſhed with the moſt ſuperb ornaments.

Pondicherry, which in the year 1693 was taken by the Dutch from the French, and reſtored to them at the peace of Ryſwick, was, in 1751, taken by the Engliſh, but reſtored in 1763. It was again taken by the Engliſh in October 1770, but reſtored to them by the peace in 1783.

Karical is an ancient city and ſettlement belonging to the French, and lies in 40 deg. 34 min. north latitude, about four leagues ſouth of Tranquebar, and 25 ſouth of Pondicherry. The town contains five ſpacious pagodas, nine leſſer ones, four moſques, between ſix and ſeven hundred houſes, and about five or ſix thouſand people.

Tiroumale Rayan Patuam, which is under the juriſdiction of Karical, and lies to the ſouth of it, is a large town, containing four large pagodas, near 30 leſſer ones, four moſques, and about 500 brick houſes, excluſive of 24 public inns for the accommodation of travellers.

Chandernagore, belonging to the French, is ſurrounded by a wall, and well fortified; it was, however, reduced by Meſſrs. Watſon and Pocock, in conjunction with Colonel Clive. Chandernagore has rather the diſadvantage of being rather expoſed on the weſtern ſide; but its harbour is excellent, and the air is as pure as it can be on the banks of the Ganges. Here is a very conſiderable manufacture of handkerchiefs and ſtriped muſlins: this, however, has not made Chandernagore the rival of Calcutta, whoſe immenſe opulence enables it to engage in the moſt extenſive commercial undertakings.

SECTION XI.

Portugueſe, Dutch, and Daniſh Poſſeſſions in India.

THE principal place belonging to the Portugueſe in India is Goa, ſituated upon an iſland about 12 miles in length and 6 in breadth, ſurrounded by a river of ſalt water falling into the ocean a few leagues below the town, and forming a moſt excellent harbour. It lies in 15 deg. 20 min. north lat. and 74 deg. 20 min. eaſt long. from London. The houſes, which are of ſtone, are ſpacious and handſome; and there are 27 churches and convents, beſides a cathedral, a noble hoſpital, a houſe of inquiſition, and other public buildings.

Two veſſels ſail annually from Macao to Goa, laden with china and other articles, that are rejected at Canton, the owners of which are generally Chineſe merchants.

The iſland produces a great variety of excellent fruits, though but little corn; and here is a plenty of hogs and fowls.

Great homage is paid by the ſlaves of Goa to their ſuperiors, who attend them with umbrellas to ſhelter them from the ſun. The ladies wear roſaries of gold and ſilver, golden bracelets, diamond pendants, and pearl necklaces. They wear no ſtockings, but have very elegant ſlippers.

The chief food here is roots and fruits, with rice and bread. The poorer ſort of people ſubſiſt upon boiled rice, with a little ſalt fiſh, or fruit pickled. Very little butcher's meat is eaten; for the fleſh in general is lean and unwholeſome.

The religion of the people here is that of the Romiſh church; and the Court of Inquiſition (that infamous tribunal) proceeds with a moſt cruel rigour againſt ſuch as are ſtiled heretics.

Diu, or Dio, is a city ſituated on an iſland that bears the ſame name in the Gulph of Cambaya; the iſland is three miles long, and two broad, and is divided from the continent by a narrow channel. The city is large, and ſurrounded with a ſtone wall well fortified: it has a very ſafe harbour, and was formerly a place of good trade: the harbour is defended by two ſtrong caſtles on the land, and every approach on the ſea ſide is prevented by prodigious rocks and clifts.

The buildings in this city are ſuperior in grandeur to thoſe of moſt other cities in India, being principally built with free-ſtone and marble. The city ſtands on an eaſy aſcent from the great caſtle, and has five or

ſix fine churches, beſides convents, elegantly adorned with paintings, &c. The churches form a moſt pleaſing proſpect from the ſea, having their beautiful fronts towards it.

In 1670 Diu was attacked and plundered by the Muſcat Arabs, who did it ſo much damage that it hath not to this day recovered its former ſplendor.

Meliapour, about three miles ſouth of Fort St. George, was once the moſt conſiderable place on the Coromandel coaſt. The Portugueſe raiſed it from the verge of ruin to a ſtate of opulence and magnificence, but were driven from thence by the Moors, when it became ſubject to the king of Golconda, but was reduced by the French in 1666; the Dutch, however, in conjunction with the king of Golconda, about four years after, took it from the French; upon which the fortifications were entirely deſtroyed, and never repaired afterwards. The inhabitants are Gentoos, Portugueſe, and Moors, and others of different nations.

Balicut, the capital of the kingdom of that name, is ſituated to the ſouth of Tellicherry. It is ſurrounded by a brick wall: there are about 6000 brick houſes, moſt of which have gardens.

Here all nations are admitted, though none have any ſway. The ſovereign is a Bramin; and this is almoſt the only throne in India that is filled by a perſon of the firſt claſs. He is ſtiled Samorin, or Emperor and is the moſt potent of the Malabar princes.

No police is eſtabliſhed here, and the trade, which is loaded with impoſts, is almoſt entirely in the hands of a few of the vileſt Moors in India. This was the firſt place at which the Portugueſe landed in 1498, after their diſcovery of India.

Contiguous to the Prince's dominions is the country of the Raja of Sarimpatan; the natives of which are a civilized, juſt, and humane people; and it is ſaid their country was never yet conquered.

Cochin, a city ſituated in a kingdom of the ſame name, lies in ten degrees north latitude. There are two towns of the name of Cochin, the Old and the New; the latter was built by the Portugueſe, and had ſeveral very handſome houſes, as well as churches and monaſteries; many of which were deſtroyed by the Dutch, who took this place in the year 1662, aſſiſted by the king of Cochin, who had been extremely ill uſed by the Portugueſe.

The above monarch, at the time Cochin was taken from him by the Portugueſe, had preſerved his dominions, which have been repeatedly invaded by the natives of Travancor, a country extending from Cape Cormoran to the frontiers of Cochin; and it is from neceſſity he dwells in the Old Town. His revenue is 144,000 livres, ſtipulated to be paid him by ancient capitulations, out of the produce of his cuſtoms.

The king of Cochin lives in the Old Town, which is ſituated on a river half a league from the ſea, and has ſeveral pagodas.

In this place is a colony of induſtrious Jews, who are white men, and abſurdly boaſt that their anceſtors were ſettled here at the æra of the Babyloniſh captivity, they have, however, been certainly here a very conſiderable time. They have a ſynagogue, in which their records are preſerved with great care.

Cananor is a conſiderable town in the kingdom of the ſame name, with a moſt commodious harbour, and is ſituated in 12 degrees north latitude. The Dutch have a fort here of great extent. This place was originally poſſeſſed by the Portugueſe, from whom the Dutch took it in the year 1660. It is a very populous town, and inhabited principally by Mahometan merchants. The chief articles in trade here are pepper, ginger, caſſia, ambergris, mirobolans, tamarinds, and precious ſtones.

At the bottom of the bay there is a large town, independent of the Dutch, under the juriſdiction of a prince who can bring 20,000 men into the field.

Near Chandernagore is Chinſura, more generally known by the name of Dougli, where the Dutch have a fort, but no other poſſeſſion whatever, the territory round it depending on the government of the country.

To the north of Calcutta is Hugley. The Dutch have a factory here, erected in an open place, at a ſmall diſtance from the river. It is defended by a ſtrong fortreſs, and ſurrounded by a very deep ditch.

Saumelpour is a ſmall place, but celebrated for its precious ſtones, which are not, as in other places, dug from mines, but found in the ſands of the river. Great numbers of people are employed in ſearching for theſe valuable articles.

Bandel is a factory for the ſale of women to the Moors and Dutch. It was formerly the chief ſeat of the Portugueſe commerce; and there are ſome miſerable wretches remaining, who employ themſelves principally in the above ſhocking traffic, and are at the diſtance of about 80 leagues from the mouth of the Ganges.

Chaligan is a place where the Portugueſe once eſtabliſhed a ſort of abſolute or ſovereign power, and formed an alliance with the robbers of different nations who took refuge here, and acknowledged no ſubordination to any prince whatever, not even to their own. The Mogul, however, finding them too troubleſome to be borne with, ſent a force againſt them, and totally extirpated them. The town has no conſiderable manufacture. It lies in 23 deg. N. lat. near the mouth of the moſt eaſterly branch of the Ganges.

Tanquebar, a ſettlement on the coaſt of Coromandel, is claimed by the Danes. It is ſituated in 11 deg. 16 min. north lat. ſurrounded by a wall, and is about two miles in circumference. It was purchaſed of the king of Tanjore by the Danes in the year 1631. The ſtreets are wide, and have a brick pavement on the ſides. The habitations of the Danes, and other Europeans, are of brick and ſtone, but with only the ground floor. Thoſe of the Indians are very mean.

The Daniſh miſſionaries here have a congregation which thrives, though vigorouſly oppoſed by the Popiſh miſſionaries. They have a ſchool here for youth, who are inſtructed in the Proteſtant faith. They have alſo a printing-office and a paper-mill. The town is ſuppoſed to contain about 5000 inhabitants, and has a moſt agreeable proſpect from the ſea. It ſtood a ſix months ſiege in 1699, againſt the king of Tanjore's forces, aſſiſted by the Dutch, and would, in all human probability, have been taken, had not Governor Pitt ſent a reinforcement of Engliſh from Fort St. George to its relief.

The fondneſs for the manufactures of Coromandel, when it firſt began to prevail here, inſpired the Europeans trading to the Indian Seas with a reſolution of forming ſettlements there. The firſt colonies were eſtabliſhed near the ſhore. Some of them obtained a ſettlement by dint of force. Moſt of them were formed with the conſent of the ſovereigns, and all were confined to a very narrow track of land. The boundaries of each were marked out by an hedge of thorny plants, which was their only defence. In proceſs of time, however, fortifications were raiſed, the coloniſts increaſed, and each colony flouriſhed in proportion to the prudence and opulence of the nation which founded it.

The greateſt part of the trade of the coaſt of Coromandel is now in the hands of the Europeans: though for ſome time it was no object of their attention, being ſeparated by inacceſſible mountains from Malabar, where theſe bold navigators endeavoured to ſettle. Spices and aromatics, which principally engaged their views, were not to be found there. In ſhort, civil diſſentions had baniſhed from it tranquillity, ſecurity, and induſtry. At this period the empire of Biſnagar, to which this extenſive country was ſubject, was verging to ruin. The monarchs of that illuſtrious ſtate falling gradually into an habit of withdrawing themſelves from the ſight of their people, and of leaving the care of government to their miniſters and generals, the governors of dependent provinces threw off the ſubordination, and had aſſumed the prerogative of kings, juſt when the Europeans made their appearance upon the coaſt.

SECTION

SECTION XII.

The Kingdom of GOLCONDA.

THIS kingdom extends 260 miles along the bay of Bengal, in the form of a crescent, and is about 200 miles in the broadest part from east to west. It has Bisnager on the south, the mountains of Gata on the west, and those of Orixa and Baligate on the north. It is famous for its diamond mines; in some of which the diamonds lie scattered within a few fathoms of the earth's surface; and others are discovered in a mineral in the rocks, more than forty fathoms deep. The workmen dig into the rock, and then by means of fire soften the stone, and so proceed till they find the vein, which often runs two or three furlongs under the rock. All the earth is brought out, and, after great care bestowed on it, produces stones of a considerable size, but of different shapes.

In order to discover the situation of these stones, the workmen build a cistern of clay: on one side, towards the bottom, is a small aperture, which, when closed up, the earth containing the diamonds is thrown into the cistern; water is then poured in to soften the earth, and afterwards drawn off by means of the small drain. When the cistern is clear from mud, the gravelly sand is critically searched, during sun-shine, for the diamonds, the lustre of the stones themselves assisting the searchers in their endeavours to find them.

The superintendants are obliged to look after the workmen with the utmost vigilance, lest they should be tempted to embezzle any of the precious articles which they are employed to discover. One of them was once detected in putting a small stone into the corner of his eye; and there have been many instances of their swallowing the diamonds.

All diamonds that exceed the weight of a pagoda are the king's property: but all of an inferior weight appertain to the merchants.

The largest diamond ever found was presented to the Mogul: it weighed 279 carats, each carat being four grains.

There have been attempts to make artificial diamonds, but with no degree of success, the best of them falling very short of the genuine ones.

The real diamond is the hardest substance that hath hitherto been discovered: when polished it is perfectly clear, admirably pellucid, and exceeds all other precious stones in the splendor of its rays, and the lustre reflected from its surfaces: but in the dark it does not shine, as it hath no light of itself.

The chief harbour of this kingdom is Masulipatan; and the country extends from the gulf of Visapour. It once formed part of a very extensive empire, subject to the emperor of Bisnager, and comprehended nearly the whole of the peninsula, from the northern extremity of Orixa to Cape Comorin.

The chief city is Golconda, situated about 238 miles west of Masulipatan, and about 200 north-west of Madras, in a good soil, and salubrious air. It is surrounded with stone walls and deep ditches, divided into tanks or ponds of clear water. It has many grand mosques, in which are the tombs of the kings of Golconda. It suffered greatly by an inundation in the year 1614, when about 5000 houses were washed away, and some thousands of people and cattle perished.

Masulipatan is situated on the north side of the river Nagundi, which separates Golconda and Bisnagar, in 81 deg. 40 min. east longitude from London, and 16 deg. 30 min. north latitude. It was, towards the close of the last century, one of the most thriving towns in India, and the most advantageous of the English factories. The Danes, Portuguese, and Dutch, had also factories here, and the customs amounted to 14,000 pagodas per annum, it being the most celebrated mart for calicos, indigos, diamonds, and other precious stones. The number of inhabitants were computed to be at that time about 200,000. It is now, however, only a Dutch factory for chints. It is surrounded by a wall and ditch, and towards the land side is a deep morass, over which is a bridge of wood.

The French were in possession of this city in the year 1759, under the Marquis de Conflans; but it was taken from them by the English forces under the command of Colonel Forde. Near the bar the waves of the sea are so rapid as to make a noise like the cataracts of the Nile, and sometimes have almost as great a fall. The heat here, especially in May, is so intense, that people dare not stir out of their houses in some parts of the day.

The English have a factory at Pettipoly, or Pentapooli, between 20 and 30 miles to the south-west of the city of Masulipatan. The printed and dyed stuffs of this place are highly esteemed: and in an island opposite to it grows a root which makes so deep a colour, that it is obliged to be mixed with other colours to make it lively.

The English have also a small factory about 100 miles farther south, called Coletore: and still a little farther south is a factory belonging to the Dutch, called Palicate.

SECTION XIII.

CONCISE HISTORY OF HINDOSTAN.

THE opulence of this country attracted the notice of the first conqueror of the world, and furnished an ample field for the ancient Grecian mythology. The first authentic account of the invasion of this country is that of Alexander the Great, the celebrated Macedonian hero, who passed the river Indus without the least opposition, received the submission of one of the princes, vanquished Porus, whose dominions lay beyond the river Hydaspes, which he bravely defended, but afterwards restored him to them, for the courage he had shewn in defence of himself and people.

The Arabs, at the beginning of the eighth century, over-ran India, and subjected some few islands to their dominion; but they did not think proper to make any settlements.

Some barbarians from Choraſſan, about three centuries afterwards, invaded India on the north side, and extended their ravages to Guzurat, carrying off immense spoils.

These were succeeded by Zingis Khan, who, at the head of his Tartars, invaded the western parts of India, about the year 1200, and made the emperor forsake his capital. Afterwards the Patans reigned over the fine country of Hindostan.

Towards the close of the 13th century, Tamerlane, from Tartary, made his appearance before the north side of Hindostan, and securing the northern provinces to himself, gave up the plunder of the southern to his officers. He appeared resolved to conquer all India, when, at the solicitation of the Christians, suddenly attacking Bajazet, emperor of the Turks, he subdued and deposed him, and found himself master, on uniting his conquests, of the vast track of territory from the coast of Smyrna to the borders of the Ganges.

The history of the successors of the mighty Tamerlane, who reigned over this vast track, with little interruption, more than 350 years, has been variously represented; but writers in general agree that they were powerful and despotic princes, and that they committed their provinces to rapacious governors, by which means their empire was frequently brought to a distracted state.

In the year 1667 the famous Aurengzebe ascended the throne of Hindostan, after staining his hands with the blood of his father, his brother, and nephews. Aurengzebe may be considered as the real founder and legislator of the empire. He was a great and politic prince, and the first who extended his dominion over the peninsula within the Ganges, and lived so late as the year 1707.

After him the empire was disputed by several of his descendants, most of whom being slaves to their passions, duped by their governors of provinces, or taken off by the stratagems of their rivals, held the imperial sway but a short time of strife and confusion, till Shah Jehan was put in tranquil possession of the empire, but died in the year 1719.

He was succeeded by a prince of the Mogul race, who took the name of Mahommed Shah, and maintained the empire a considerable time against powerful opponents, till, abandoning himself to the same courses that had been so fatal to his predecessors, Nizam, his principal general, and considered as the first subject in the empire, invited Nadir Shah, otherwise Kouli Khan, the usurper of Persia, to invade Hindostan. The successes of Nadir Shah are well known, as well as the immense treasures he carried from Hindostan in 1739.

The invasion of Nadir Shah may be considered, indeed, as putting a period to the greatness of the Mogul empire in the house of Tamerlane. However, when Nadir had sufficiently enriched himself, he reinstated the Mogul, Mahommed Shah, in the sovereignty, and returned to his own country.

A general defection of the provinces soon after ensued, none being willing to yield obedience to a prince deprived of the power to enforce it.

This circumstance brought on another invasion from Achmet Abdallah, treasurer to Nadir Shah, who being assassinated in 1747, Achmet put himself at the head of a powerful army, marched against Delhi, and being opposed by the Mogul's eldest son, Prince Ahmed Shah, a war was carried on with various success, and Mahommed Shah died before its termination.

His son, Ahmed Shah, then ascended the imperial throne at Delhi, but the empire fell daily more into decay. Achmet Abdallah erected an independent kingdom, of which the river Indus is the general boundary.

Ahmed Shah reigned only seven years, after which much disorder and confusion prevailed in Hindostan, and the people suffered great calamities.

The power of the Great Mogul (so called from being descended from Tamerlane, the Mongul, or Mogul, Tartar) is little more than ideal. This very Mogul, who is stiled emperor of Hindostan, Conqueror of the World, The Ornament of the Throne, &c. &c. &c. from having been compelled, more than once, to make the most humiliating solicitations of assistance from the English, against the independent nabobs that surround him, is now little better than in a state of subordination to them, and is proportionally as poor as his predecessors have been wealthy.

*** *We hope our readers will not think us remiss in concluding our account of Hindostan without entering into the conduct of our late eastern governors, &c. which we consider as deviating from the plan of our work. Besides, it is a subject of so copious a nature, that a large volume would not contain it; therefore it is of course too prolix to be here admitted. We beg leave, however, to observe, that whatever transactions may take place, from the foregoing history to the conclusion of our work, shall be inserted by way of supplement in one of our latter numbers, tracing the history down to the latest period, (together with the rise and progress of the East India Company,) as well as every other interesting circumstance that can possibly contribute to information and entertainment.*

CHAP. XX.

ASIATIC ISLANDS.

SECTION I.

THE ISLANDS OF FORMOSA, HAINAN, &c.

WITH respect to government, some parts of these islands are subject to the emperor of China, while others are under their own laws.

The word Formosa, which signifies beautiful, is peculiarly applicable to this island, it being remarkably fertile and fine. It is situated nearly opposite to the province of Fo-kien, in China, and is computed to be 216 miles in length, from north to south, and about 70 miles in the broadest part. Its longitude from Peking is from 3 deg. 20 min. to 5 deg. 40 min. east; so that when the sun is almost vertical over it, the climate is rather hot; but this is far from being disagreeable, as the violence of the heat is greatly mitigated by the situation of the island, which is so elevated as to receive the most agreeable advantages from the cooling breezes of the sea.

Thus while the sun with rays intense assail,
The zephyrs hasten with a friendly gale,
Glide through the fainting Formosan's retreat,
And quench the rage of equinoctial heat.

That part of the Island of Formosa possessed by the Chinese produces great quantities of different kinds of grain, especially rice; and its fertility is accelerated by the numerous rivers, whose streams glide conveniently through it. As great a variety of fruits are to be found upon it as in any other part of the Indies, particularly oranges, cocoas, bananas, ananas, guavas, papayas, &c. Also several kinds of those produced in Europe, as peaches, apricots, figs, grapes, and chesnuts. They have likewise a sort of melon, which is of an oblong form, and much larger than those in Europe: they contain a white or red pulp, and are full of a fine juice, very grateful to the taste. Sugar and tobacco also grow here to the greatest perfection; and the trees that produce these are so agreeably arranged, that they appear as if calculated to embellish the most beautiful garden.

There are but few wild beasts on this island, and those seldom seen, as they chiefly inhabit the inland parts of it, which are very mountainous, and seldom resorted to by the inhabitants. They have some horses, oxen, sheep, goats, and hogs. They have but few birds, the principal of which is the pheasant; but the rivers produce great plenty of various kinds of fish.

As the coasts about this island are very high and rocky, and have neither havens or sea-ports, it is almost impossible to effect an invasion. Teovang, or Tyowang, is the only bay in the whole island where ships of any bulk can approach, and this is situated at the mouth of a river so narrow, and defended by such high rocks and forts on each side, that no enemy could possibly enter it without being repulsed.

Those who inhabit such parts of the island as belong to the Chinese have the same manners and customs, and are under the same government, as those of China; so that a repetition of them would be here unnecessary: we shall, therefore, only describe the persons, manners, and customs of the natives.

The natives of this island, who are subject to the Chinese, are divided into 45 boroughs or towns, 36 of which are in the northern part, and 9 in the southern. They are in general of a low stature, have large mouths, and are very swarthy in complexion. They have a very high forehead, and are altogether greatly disproportioned; for the body is very short, the neck small, and the arms and legs remarkably long.

Their

Their dreſs conſiſts only of a rough piece of cloth tied round the waiſt, and reaching to the knees: but they adorn their bodies with the figures of trees, flowers, animals, &c. in doing which they undergo ſuch violent pain, that only a ſmall part of the operation muſt be performed at one time; ſo that it will take ſome months before the whole is completed. Theſe embelliſhments, however, are only permitted to ſuch as have diſtinguiſhed themſelves either by feats of activity or courage. The better ſort avoid the puniſhment of obtaining theſe ornaments, by uſing the hair of animals intermixed with ſilk, and embroidered with gold and ſilver. They have all, however, liberty to ornament their arms and ears, which they do with the greateſt profuſion. On their heads they wear a kind of coronet, the top of which is terminated by a plume made of the feathers of cocks or pheaſants. In ſhort, the whole of their ornaments, with the aukwardneſs of their ſhape, form together a very whimſical appearance.

As the climate of the northern part is leſs temperate than the ſouthern, the inhabitants are better cloathed, their dreſs conſiſting of the ſkins of beaſts, particularly ſtags, which they kill in hunting. This garment, however, is very uncouth in its form, being ſhaped like a veſtment worn by prieſts, and without ſleeves. They wear a kind of bonnet on their heads, made of the leaves of bananas, and adorned with coronets placed one above another, in the form of a pyramid: the whole is faſtened with locks of hair of different colours, and the top of it, like thoſe in the ſouth, is terminated by a plume of feathers.

In the northern part the houſes are built after the manner of the Chineſe; but thoſe of the ſouth are mean cottages, made of earth and bamboo, covered with ſtraw, and ſo cloſe together, that they are only ſeparated by a very ſlight partition. Their cuſtoms, however, in both parts are the ſame. They have neither chairs, tables, benches, or beds. Inſtead of the latter they uſe the leaves of trees, which they ſpread on the floor, and lay themſelves down without any ſort of covering. They dreſs their victuals in a kind of chimney, or ſtove, placed in the center of the room, and are exceeding filthy in their manner of eating it. They have neither diſhes, ſpoons, or knives; ſo that when the proviſion is dreſſed, it is laid on a piece of wood, or mat, and they pull it to pieces with their fingers. They do not take much pains in dreſſing their meat, for the leſs it is done the better they like it; and ſome of them admire it moſt when it is ſo raw as barely to have felt the effects of the fire.

Their food chiefly conſiſts of boiled rice, which they eat inſtead of bread; the fleſh of ſheep and goats, and game, which they ſometimes catch in the woods, by ſhooting them, or running them down: the latter is the moſt common method: for their agility is ſo great, that they will even out-run the ſwifteſt horſe.

Their weapons are bows and arrows, which they uſe with ſuch dexterity, that they will kill a pheaſant flying at an amazing diſtance.

Little ceremony is obſerved in their marriages. When a man fixes on any object that he wiſhes to be his wife, he goes ſeveral days together with muſic, which he plays for ſome time before the door; but he is not permitted to enter the houſe. If the object of his affections approves of him, ſhe comes out, and they agree upon terms, which being made known to their parents, the marriage feaſt is prepared, and the friends of each party are invited. The feaſt conſummates the marriage; after which, inſtead of the wife going home with her huſband, he continues in his father-in-law's houſe, and provides as well for him as for himſelf during the remainder of his life.

As to religion, they worſhip idols as in China, to whom they offer ſacrifices, which conſiſt of hogs, rice, &c.

Their manner of treating the dead before interment is very ſingular. When a perſon dies, they lay him on a kind of ſcaffold made of bamboo, which they place over a ſlow fire for nine days, after which they wrap the corpſe in a mat, and lay it on a higher ſcaffold, covered with a pavilion made of ſhreds of ſilk, cloth, &c. Here it remains for two years, at the expiration of which they dig a large hole in the ground, and bury it. Each of theſe ceremonies are accompanied with feaſting, muſic, dancing, &c.

Such is the notion of humanity with which theſe people are poſſeſſed, that if a perſon is exceeding ill, or afflicted with any painful diſorder, which is not likely to be removed, they think it a kindneſs to diſpatch him.

The government of each town or borough is confined to itſelf. Three or four of the moſt ancient, who are known to be men of integrity, are appointed as judges over the reſt, who determine all differences; and he who refuſes to ſubmit to the deciſion is baniſhed the town; nor can he either return, or be admitted into any of the others; ſo that he is obliged to finiſh his days without ever again participating of the natural enjoyments of ſociety.

The inhabitants of this iſland pay an annual tribute to the Chineſe, which conſiſts of certain quantities of grain, the tails and ſkins of ſtags, and other productions of the country.

The capital city, which is in the poſſeſſion of the Chineſe, is called Tai-ouan-fou. It is large and populous, and carries on ſo extenſive a trade, that it is little inferior to ſome of the moſt opulent in China. It is plentifully ſupplied with all kinds of proviſions, either of its own product, or commodities brought from other countries, as rice, cotton, ſugar, wine, tobacco, and dried veniſon; the latter of which is greatly admired by the Chineſe, and conſidered as the moſt delicious food. They have likewiſe all kinds of fruits, medicinal herbs, roots, gums, &c. with plenty of linen, ſilk, and cotton, of various ſorts.

The houſes are in general very ſmall, and are built of clay, covered with thatch. The ſtreets are long and ſpacious, and the buildings on each ſide have awnings, that join in ſuch a manner as to cover the ſtreet; but theſe are only uſed during the hot months, to keep off the exceſſive heat of the ſun. Some of the ſtreets are near three miles in length, and between thirty and forty feet broad. Theſe ſtreets are chiefly occupied by dealers, whoſe ſhops are furniſhed with all kinds of goods, ranged and diſplayed to the greateſt advantage. Theſe ſhops appear very brilliant; and many people walk in the ſtreets merely to gratify themſelves with the ſight of ſo great a variety of the richeſt commodities.

The city is not defended either by walls or fortifications; but it has a good garriſon of horſe and foot, conſiſting of 10,000 men, who are principally Tartars. Theſe are commanded by a lieutenant-general, two major-generals, and a number of inferior officers, who are at liberty to relinquiſh their ſituation after having ſerved three years, or ſooner, if occaſion ſhould require.

The harbour is tolerably good, and ſheltered from the winds; but the entrance to it is dangerous for ſhips of burthen, the bottom of it being rocky, and the water not above ten feet deep at the higheſt tides.

The Iſland of Formoſa was firſt inhabited by the Japaneſe, about the beginning of the laſt century. Theſe people were ſo pleaſed with the appearance of the country, that they built ſeveral ſmall towns, and ſoon ſettled a colony. They were but a ſhort time on the iſland, however, before they were interrupted by the Dutch, a ſhip belonging to whom being accidentally forced into the harbour, the people landed on the iſland, in order to obtain refreſhments, and repair the damage the veſſel had ſuſtained by the ſtorm. Pleaſed with the apparent fertility of the country, and the wholeſomeneſs of the climate, they formed a plan of circumventing the Japaneſe, and getting the iſland into their own poſſeſſion. This they would have done by force, as their power was ſuperior to that of the Japaneſe, but were fearful of offending them, leſt it ſhould be injurious to their trade.

However,

However, after ſeveral ſolicitations for a ſmall ſpot of ground on the iſland to build a ſingle habitation, which proved ineffectual, they accompliſhed their purpoſe by ſtratagem, out-witting their rivals by policy, and thereby gained a ſufficiency on which to erect a little town, conſiſting of ſeveral ſtrong buildings, and a good caſtle, which they called Zealand, ſituated on ſo advantageous a ſpot, that it was impoſſible for any ſhip to enter it, of whatever force, without being repulſed. The Japaneſe either offended at the great progreſs the Dutch had made, or not finding the advantages they expected, ſoon quitted the iſland, and left the Dutch in ſole poſſeſſion of it, after which the latter erected other fortifications oppoſite to their new fort, and raiſed ſuch other defences, as made them complete maſters of the iſland.

The Dutch, however, with all their policy, continued on the iſland but a few years; for one of the Chineſe generals (a man of an enterprizing genius) being defeated by the Tartars, who were then at war with the Chineſe, fixed his views on Formoſa, formed a reſolution of ouſting the Dutch, and eſtabliſhing a new kingdom on the iſland. Accordingly he ſailed from China with a very conſiderable fleet, and arriving near the mouth of the harbour he landed ſome of his men, and began to attack the fort of Zealand. The Dutch, not being apprehenſive of any danger, were ill provided for the attack of ſo powerful an enemy. However, they held out a three months ſiege; at the end of which time they agreed to abandon the iſland, on condition they were permitted to take all their valuables with them, which was agreed to by the Chineſe general, who was now left ſole poſſeſſor. He, however, immediately acknowledged ſubmiſſion to the emperor, and ſeveral other towns were ſoon built on different parts of the iſland, the inhabitants of which have ever ſince been ſubject to the government of China.

The iſland of HAINAN (great part of which alſo belongs to the Chineſe) is of conſiderable extent, and ſome of their towns are very populous. It is ſituated between 107 and 110 degrees eaſt longitude, and between 18 and 20 degrees north latitude. It is bounded on the eaſt by the Chineſe Sea; on the weſt by the coaſt of Cochin-China; on the north part by the province of Quang-tong, to which it belongs; and on the ſouth by the channel of Paracel, which joins the eaſtern coaſt of Cochin-China. It is about 200 miles in length from eaſt to weſt, near 150 in breadth, and about 400 in circumference.

Kiun-tcheou, the chief city, is ſo ſituated, that ſhips lie at anchor cloſe to its walls with the greateſt ſecurity. The ſtreets are very uniform, and ſome of them at leaſt a mile in length, but the houſes in general are low mean buildings.

There are ſeveral other conſiderable cities on the iſland, all of which are ſituated near the ſea-ſide, and ſubject to the juriſdiction of Kiun-tcheou, which is governed by mandarins of two orders, thoſe of learning, and thoſe of arms.

On the ſouthern part of the iſland is a fine port, the bay of which is near twenty feet deep. There is alſo another very convenient port on the northern part, the entrance to which is defended by two ſmall forts, though the depth of water does not exceed twelve feet. Here the barks frequently come from Canton with various commodities, in exchange for which they take ſeveral kinds of minerals, the natural produce of the country: for in ſome parts of the iſland there are gold and ſilver mines, as alſo mines that produce the lapis lazuli, which the natives of Canton uſe in painting the blue porcelain. Between the two forts that defend the entrance of the northern fort is a large plain, on which are ſeveral handſome Chineſe ſepulchres.

Though the ſoil is tolerably fertile, the climate of this iſland is in general very unhealthy, particularly the northern part. The ſouthern and eaſtern parts are exceeding mountainous; but the vallies beneath are rich, and produce great plenty of rice. Here are likewiſe ſeveral ſorts of very valuable trees, particularly the roſe or violet-tree, which is ſo fragrant in its ſcent, that it is purchaſed at a very high price for the ſole uſe of the emperor. There is alſo another tree little inferior to this: it produces a kind of liquid, which is called dragon's blood by the natives, and, if thrown into the fire, diffuſes a ſcent of the moſt agreeable nature.

Sugar, tobacco, cotton, and indigo, grow very plentifully on this iſland; and they have a great variety of the moſt delicious fruits.

Horſes, ſheep, cows, and hogs, are the chief animals on this iſland. On the mountains, and in the woods, are prodigious numbers of apes. It alſo abounds with various kinds of game, particularly deer and hares; alſo of different kinds of birds, as partridges, woodcocks, ſnipes, turtle-doves, and moſt ſorts of water-fowl, all of which are little inferior to thoſe of Europe. They have likewiſe moſt ſorts of fiſh in great abundance. Among theſe is a little blue fiſh found on the rocks, which is ſo beautiful as to be eſteemed of greater value than the gold coloured fiſh; but they will live only a few days out of their natural element.

The natives are ſhort in ſtature, of a reddiſh complexion, and ſome of them greatly deformed. Their chief weapons are bows and arrows, in the uſe of which they are not ſo expert as the inhabitants of Formoſa. They have alſo a kind of hanger faſtened with a girdle to their waiſt, which they generally uſe to clear the way in foreſts, or other woody places.

Thoſe natives who occupy the center part of the iſland, which is very mountainous, live independent, being ſubject only to their own laws and modes of government. They are ſeldom ſeen by the Chineſe, except when they make an attempt to ſurprize any of the neighbouring villages. This, however, ſeldom happens; and when it does, they are naturally ſuch cowards, that half a dozen Chineſe will defeat at leaſt an hundred of them.

Near Formoſa and Hainan are a number of ſmall iſlands, called the Piſcatores, or Fiſher Iſlands, which are ſituated in 23 deg. north latitude. On the weſt ſide of one of theſe iſlands is a large town, with a fort, defended by a garriſon conſiſting of 300 Tartars.

Between Formoſa and Luconia are a ſet of iſlands called the Five Iſles, the northermoſt of which lies in 20 deg. 20 min. north latitude. The largeſt of theſe is uninhabited, on account of its being a barren country; but the others have ſeveral good towns in them, and are very populous.

The hills of theſe iſlands are rocky, but the vallies are very fertile, being well watered with running ſtreams. They produce plenty of pine-apples, plantains, bananas, ſugar-canes, cotton, pompions, and potatoes; and there are alſo great numbers of goats, oxen, and hogs.

The inhabitants of theſe iſlands are of an olive complexion, are ſhort in ſtature, with round faces, low foreheads, and thick eye-brows. They have black hair, which they cut ſo ſhort that it barely touches their ears. The men wear only a cloth about their middle, and have no covering on their heads. The women wear a ſhort petticoat made of coarſe callico, which reaches from the waiſt to the calves of their legs. Both ſexes wear rings in their ears, made of a metal reſembling gold, which they dig out of the mountains.

Their houſes are ſmall, and conſiſt only of a few poſts bound together, and covered with boughs of trees. The fire-place is at one end, and here they lay boards, on which they ſleep. The houſes are built in rows one above another, on the ſides of the rocks, and they aſcend to them by the help of ladders. There is a kind of ſtreet to each row of houſes, which runs parallel with the tops of the buildings in the row beneath.

Theſe iſlanders are naturally ingenious: they underſtand the uſe of iron, which they work into various forms, and build very neat boats, that reſemble thoſe with us called yawls. They have likewiſe ſome large veſſels, which they row with twelve or fourteen oars.

Their

Their language is peculiar to themſelves. The only weapons they uſe are lances headed with iron. When they go on the mountains in purſuit of beaſts, they wear a kind of armour made of a buffalo's ſkin, which has ſleeves, and reaches down to the calves of the legs. It is wide at the bottom, but cloſe about the ſhoulders, and is of ſuch ſolid ſubſtance as hardly to be penetrated.

In general they are a very civil people, and will neither engage in quarrels among themſelves, or with ſtrangers. The men are chiefly employed in fiſhing, and the women in huſbandry. Each man is prohibited from having more than one wife, who treats him with the greateſt reſpect. The boys are brought up by their fathers to fiſhing, and the girls work with their mothers in the plantations, which are in vallies, where every perſon plants as much ground as is ſufficient to ſupply the neceſſities of the family. They have no ſtated laws, neither have they occaſion for any: every family has one ſuperior, to whom the reſt are ſubſervient; and children behave with the greateſt reſpect to their parents. In ſhort, theſe people appear to enjoy real felicity, by ſeeking that happineſs in their own minds, which is not to be found independent of ourſelves. They have no ambition, and therefore are not deſirous of leaving their own home to look after imaginary baubles. They content themſelves with the ſituation in which Providence has placed them, and each ſucceeding day contributes to increaſe their happineſs.

If ſolid happineſs we prize,
Within our breaſt this jewel lies;
And they are fools who roam:
The world has nothing to beſtow;
From our own ſelves our joys muſt flow,
And that dear hut our home.

SECTION II.

The MARIAN, or LADRONE ISLANDS.

THESE iſlands derived the appellation of Ladrones, or Iſlands of Thieves, (from Magellan, who diſcovered them in 1521,) on account of the thieviſh diſpoſition of the natives. They obtained the name of Marian Iſlands from Mary, queen of Spain, who reigned at the time of their being firſt inhabited by her ſubjects.

The Ladrone Iſlands lie about 600 leagues to the eaſt of Canton, in China, 700 leagues eaſt from the Philippines, and 7300 weſt from Cape Corientes in America. The principal part of them have been for many years uninhabited, notwithſtanding they are all pleaſantly ſituated, and the ſoil in general is very fertile. The only one that can properly be ſaid to be now inhabited by the Spaniards is Guam, where a governor reſides, and where there is a very ſtrong garriſon kept. It is at this iſland that the Manilla regiſter-ſhip generally takes in freſh proviſions and water in her paſſage from Acapulco to the Philippines.

Tinian and Rota were once very populous places; but the former is now quite uninhabited; and the latter contains only a few Indians, who are employed in cultivating rice for the inhabitants of Guam.

Guam is about 40 miles in length, and 90 miles in circumference, and the number of inhabitants are eſtimated at 4000; out of which, it is ſuppoſed, 1000 live in the city of San Ignatio de Agona, where the governor uſually reſides. It is pleaſantly ſituated, and affords a fine landſcape when viewed from the ſea. The ſoil being rather dry, it produces little rice; but they have ſeveral kinds of excellent fruit, particularly pine-apples, melons, and oranges. They have likewiſe plenty of cocoas, yams, and a fruit about the ſize of an apple, which, when baked, is exceeding good, and is uſed inſtead of bread.

The natives of this iſland are ſtrong and well ſhaped, but of an olive complexion. They have thick lips, a long viſage, and a ſtern countenance. They wear long black hair, anoint themſelves with the oil of the cocoa-nut, and paint their teeth with red and black colours. Their houſes are chiefly built of ſtone and timber, and the tops of them are covered with tiles. Their food chiefly conſiſts of cocoa-nuts, bananas, fowls, fiſh, and pork; the latter of which is peculiarly ſweet in its taſte, the hogs being principally fed with cocoa-nuts, which grow here in great abundance.

In many parts of theſe iſlands the indigo plant grows wild, as do ſeveral other articles, which would be very valuable if properly cultivated: but as the other iſlands are uninhabited, and too remote, ſo the Spaniards indulge their natural indolence, by not taking any notice of them.

The natives formerly uſed ſlings and lances, as weapons of defence; but they have for ſome years been reſtrained from exerciſing the latter; inſtead of which, they now uſe pieces of clay, made of an oval form, and baked ſo hard as to be little inferior in ſubſtance to ſtone. They throw theſe with great dexterity, and ſeldom miſs the object. Some of theſe pieces or balls are ſo large, and thrown with ſuch force, that they will kill a man at a conſiderable diſtance.

As the natives of Guam are not always upon terms of friendſhip with the Spaniards, the latter always keep here three companies of foot ſoldiers. They have likewiſe two ſmall caſtles, each mounting only five guns; and on an eminence near the ſea is a ſmall battery, conſiſting of five pieces of cannon.

The other iſlands here, though uninhabited, afford a great plenty of proviſions; but neither of them have any commodious harbour.

Though the iſland of Tinian is uninhabited, yet it is one of the moſt delightful ſpots in the univerſe. It is divided into hills and dales, both of which are beautifully diverſified with woods and lawns. The woods conſiſt of tall trees, whoſe ſpreading branches yield the moſt delicious fruits; and the lawns, which are in general very broad, are covered with fine trefoil, intermixed with a variety of the moſt flagrant flowers. Among the fruits is one of a peculiar nature, called rhyma; and, when roaſted, is uſed by the natives of Guam inſtead of bread. Here are alſo many other vegetables of a very uſeful nature, as ſcurvy-graſs, ſorrel, mint, dandelion, creeping purſlane, and water melons, all of which are efficacious for many diſorders, particularly thoſe of a ſcorbutic nature.

This iſland likewiſe abounds with cattle; and in the woods are great plenty of different ſorts of poultry. The cattle are ſo numerous, that it is no uncommon thing to ſee ſome hundreds of them grazing together, which, when the iſland is viewed from the ſea, greatly enhances the beauty of the proſpect. The fleſh of theſe animals is well taſted, and very eaſy of digeſtion. The poultry is alſo exceedingly good, and very readily obtained. They are in general large, and can hardly fly an hundred yards at a time, ſo that they are frequently caught by being run down, which is the better effected from the openings of the woods, that in ſome parts are very conſiderable.

There are two large pieces of water near the center of the iſland, which are well ſtocked with plenty of wild fowl, as ducks, teal, curlieus, and a bird called the whiſtling plover. The natives of Guam catch theſe with ſnares, which are ingeniouſly projected; and this is the only method whereby they can obtain them, as they are reſtrained from the uſe of fire-arms.

Upon this iſland are great numbers of muſketos, and other ſpecies of inſects, which, if they happen to fix on the ſkin, will produce an immediate inflammation, and, if proper remedies are not ſoon applied, will be productive of the moſt fatal conſequences. There are likewiſe ſome ſcorpions and centipedes, but theſe are ſo few that they are ſeldom ſeen.

This iſland was once exceeding populous, and is ſaid to have contained at leaſt 30,000 inhabitants. It was in this ſituation about the beginning of the preſent century, when a dreadful mortality raging among the

inhabitants, prodigious numbers of them died: and the mortality raging with equal violence in the Iſlands of Rota and Guam, the Spaniards obliged thoſe that remained at Tinian to remove to Guam, in order to make good the deficiency by the number of ſouls that had periſhed in that iſland; ſince which time Tinian has been totally uninhabited.

The Iſland of Rota has not any thing in it that demands particular attention. Its chief produce is rice, which is cultivated by a few Indians, who live there undiſturbed, but are ſubject to the Spaniſh governor that reſides at Guam.

The other iſlands, though uninhabited, are in general exceeding fertile, the air good, and the climate temperate. They alſo produce plenty of proviſions; but they are ſeldom viſited, on account of the great inconvenience ariſing from the want of water for anchorage. That which has the greateſt convenience in this particular is Tinian; but even there it is very unſafe, particularly from June to October, which is the ſeaſon of the weſtern monſoons.

SECTION III.

THE PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.

THESE iſlands, which are numerous, were diſcovered by Magellan in 1519. They lie from 5 to 19 degrees north latitude, and from the 114th to the 130th degree of eaſt longitude, being ſituated in the Pacific Ocean, 300 miles to the ſouth-eaſt of China. In general they abound with every delicacy, and the ſoil is inconceivably fertile; but the exceſſive heat, from their vicinity to the line; the innumerable noxious inſects, and venomous reptiles; the dreadful earthquakes, and the frequent eruptions from many of their mountains, which are volcanos; the great number of poiſonous herbs and flowers, from which the moſt pernicious vapours exhale; and the terrible ſtorms of thunder, lightning, and rain, which ſpread ſhocking devaſtations around, combine to render them neither ſafe or deſirable. In fine, this cluſter of iſlands reſembles a fair perſon with a foul temper.

Beauties can thus enchanting ſmiles impart,
While ſecret malice lurks within the heart,
'Till loſt in tears the hapleſs lover drowns,
Martyr'd by falſehoods, ſacrific'd by frowns.

The principal of theſe iſlands are the following:

1. Luconia, or Manila. This iſland is the largeſt of the Philippines, being near 400 miles in length, and above 180 in breadth, is ſituated in 15 deg. north lat. and deemed more healthy than either of the others. It has many mountains which contain gold, fertile plains, fine paſtures, and ſprings of the moſt excellent water in the univerſe. It produces buffalos, ſheep, hogs, goats, horſes, fruit, &c.

The city of Manila lies upon an excellent bay, which is circular, and near 90 miles in circumference: the port is of courſe remarkably good, and well ſituated for the Chineſe and Eaſt India trade. It contains about 3000 inhabitants; and, during the war of 1762, was taken by Admiral Corniſh and Sir William Draper. It was, however, ſtipulated to be ranſomed: but the ranſom money has never yet been entirely diſcharged. It is a handſome city, containing ſeveral ſpacious ſtreets, good houſes, elegant churches, decent convents, and tolerable colleges. The ſeat or the Spaniſh government is here. The Indians pay a poll-tax; and a conſiderable ſum of money is annually allowed for the ſupport of female orphans, born of Spaniſh and Indian parents. To this iſland the Spaniards bring divers commodities; ſuch as ſilver from New Spain, Mexico, and Peru; diamonds from Golconda; ſilks, teas, Japan and China ware, and gold duſt, from China and Japan. The Spaniards ſend two large ſhips every year from hence to Acapulco in Mexico, with merchandize, and return back with ſilver.

2. St. John lies between 7 and 8 deg. north lat. is above 110 miles in length, and about 70 miles over in the broadeſt part. The ſoil is fertile; but, with the other iſlands, it partakes of the general inconveniencies before recited. The inhabitants are good-natured and humane, but exceedingly ignorant. Their marriage ceremony is nothing more than putting earth upon the head of the woman, in token of her ſubordinate ſtate, and the neceſſity of implicit obedience to her huſband. They call themſelves Chriſtians. They wear only a looſe robe of cotton or callico, which hangs to their feet: the men throw it over their ſhoulders, and wrap it round their waiſts; the women cover their heads with it like a hood, and cloſe it at their breaſts; but the men go bare-headed, and the children naked. In this iſland there is only one town, which is erected upon poſts, but it is both inconſiderable and mean, and the furniture of the houſes deſpicable.

3. Mindanao is 180 miles in length, and about 130 in breadth: the hills are ſtony, but produce many trees; the vallies are fertile, and well watered; and the inhabitants are plentifully ſupplied with all the neceſſaries, and many of the luxuries of life.

This iſland is governed by a ſultan, ſubordinate to whom are ſeveral petty ſovereigns, who rule over various diſtricts. The monarch, when he goes abroad, is carried in a palanquin, and has a ſtrong guard to attend him, who are armed with lances, ſwords, and bayonets.

The chief trade of this iſland is to Manila and Borneo; and the Dutch come from the Moluccas to purchaſe of them rice, tobacco, bees-wax, &c. The common people are always boaſting of their honeſty, but practiſe roguery: they ſteal whatever they can lay their hands on; and the magiſtrates, inſtead of puniſhing the delinquents, will protect them, in order to partake of the booty.

The inhabitants of the various diſtricts, or ſubjects of the ſeveral petty kings, ſpeak different languages, but have a general reſemblance in perſons and features. They are ſhort of ſtature, have tawny complexions, ſmall eyes, little noſes, wide mouths, thin lips, black teeth, and lank hair. They are ingenious, yet indolent; active, yet lazy; and good humoured, though revengeful. They live on the fleſh of buffalos, moſt kinds of fowls, all ſorts of fiſh that their ſeas and rivers afford, with rice and ſago. They are, however, but ſlovenly in their cookery, and eat without either knives, forks, or ſpoons.

Some ſettlements in this iſland formerly belonged to the Spaniards, but they were driven from hence by the natives, who have been ever ſince extremely jealous of any foreigners making ſettlements among them.

The inhabitants in general are Mahometans. Thoſe who reſide in the interior parts of the country are called Hilanoons, and poſſeſs ſeveral gold mines. The people of the north-weſt part of the iſland are the moſt ſavage, and, in making war, neither give or take quarter. They allow of polygamy. The diſeaſes they are ſubject to are fluxes, agues, cholics, and the ſcurvy.

Mindanao, the capital, is ſituated on the ſouth ſide of the iſland, in 6 deg. 20 min. north lat. and 123 deg. 15 min. eaſt long. It is watered by a ſmall river, that will not admit of ſhips of any conſiderable burthen; and thoſe that do come up to the city, are greatly in danger of having their bottoms deſtroyed by worms, which abound in that river, unleſs they are well ſheathed. The city is ſquare, being about a mile each way; the houſes are built upon poſts near twenty feet high, with ladders to aſcend them, according to the uſual faſhion of building in the Philippine Iſlands: they conſiſt but of one floor, but are divided by partitions into many apartments. The ſultan's palace is ſupported by 150 wooden pillars, or rather poſts, and is much higher than any other houſe in the city, having iron cannon in the hall, and a broad fixed ſtair-caſe to aſcend it. The Malayan, as well as the language proper to the iſland, is ſpoken in this city. All the floors of the houſes

houſes are matted, upon which the people ſit croſs-legged. The principal trades are ſhip-builders, gold-ſmiths, and blackſmiths.

4. Bohol is ſituated to the north of Mindanao, being about 120 miles in circumference: it produces cattle, fiſh, roots, rice, and gold.

5. Layta is about 270 miles in circumference, and is ſituated about 20 leagues north of Mindanao: a chain of mountains runs through the middle, and occaſions ſuch a ſingular variety in the climate, that while the northern ſide is benumbed with the chilling blaſts of winter, the ſouthern parts are cheared with the genial warmth of ſummer. The ſoil is in general fertile, and the people tolerably civilized.

6. Paragon, by ſome called Little Borneo, lies between 9 and 11 deg. north lat. and 114 and 118 deg. eaſt long. and is the remoteſt of the Philippine Iſlands to the ſouth-weſt: it is 240 miles in length, and 60 in breadth. Different parts of it have different maſters: the interior diſtricts belong to the native Indians, the north-eaſt parts to the Spaniards, and the ſouth-weſt to the ſovereign of Borneo. The Indian inhabitants are Mahometans, and poſſeſs the greateſt military ſpirit of any people who are natives of the Philippines. It produces prodigious large figs, a ſmaller ſort, which is ſuperior in quality, and plenty of rice.

Three inconſiderable iſlands, called Calamines, lie to the north and north-eaſt of Paragon, which are not remarkable for any thing but plenty of wild birds.

7. Mindora is about 60 miles long, and 36 broad, and extends from 12 to 13 deg. north lat. and from 119 to 120 eaſt long. It produces gold and pepper, and is divided from Luconia by the Straits of Mindora.

8. Tandaya is one of the moſt eaſterly of the Philippines: it is ſeparated from Manila by a narrow ſtrait, and is 125 miles in length, and 100 in breadth. On the northern coaſt there is a volcano, which throws out fire and flames.

9. Philippina was the firſt that was diſcovered of this cluſter of iſlands, and conſequently gave name to the reſt. It lies between 12 and 14 deg. 30 min. north lat. and is the moſt fertile and pleaſant of all the Philippines, exhibiting a ſcene of perpetual verdure; for here the ſun is powerful without being diſagreeable.

10. Sebu, ſouth-weſt of Layta, is 60 miles long, and 38 broad. On the eaſt ſide of it is the town of Nombre de Dios. The Spaniſh ſtandard was firſt ſet up here by Magellan, the primitive circumnavigator of the world, who was afterwards murdered in this iſland by the natives. The town of Nombre de Dios is guarded by a conſiderable garriſon, defended by a ſtrong fort, and has a good haven. The iſland produces cotton, bees-wax, garlick, onions, and the abaca plant, of which cordage and packthread are made.

11. Panay lies between 10 and 11 deg. north lat. and 120 and 121 deg. eaſt long. and is about 300 miles in circumference, and has the name of being the moſt populous of all the Philippines. It is watered by many rivers, and is exceeding fruitful, particularly in rice, of which it produces about 100,000 buſhels annually above what the natives conſume. Almoſt adjoining to this is the little Iſland of Imavas, which is not remarkable for any thing but producing a conſiderable quantity of ſarſaparilla.

12. Negroes Iſland lies between 9 and 11 deg. north latitude, and is about 300 miles in circumference. The natives are the moſt black of any of the inhabitants of the Philippines, from which circumſtance the iſland is called Negroes Iſland. Bees-wax and cocoa nuts are the only produce of the place. The bees are remarkably fine and large, and the people uncommonly ſkilful in managing them; but, in other reſpects, the natives are rude, brutiſh, and ignorant, which has given riſe to this proverbial expreſſion: *Negroes Iſland is inhabited by blacks and bees; but the winged natives are wiſer and better governed than the walking natives.* Indeed, the prudence, decorum, and various regulations of theſe ſagacious little inſects are truly aſtoniſhing.

Of all the race of animals alone,
The bees have common cities of their own,
And common ſons; beneath one law they live,
And with one common ſtock their traffic drive.
Each has a certain home, a ſev'ral ſtall:
All is the ſtate's, the ſtate provides for all.
Mindful of coming cold, they ſhare the pain,
And hoard, for winter's uſe, the ſummer's gain.
Some o'er the public magazines preſide,
And ſome are ſent new forage to provide.
All with united force combine to drive
The lazy drones from the laborious hive.
Their toil is common, common is their ſleep:
They ſhake their wings when morn begins to peep,
Ruſh through the city gates without delay,
Nor ends their work but with declining day.

13. Xolo is the moſt ſouth-weſterly of all the Philippines, and is governed by a ſovereign prince of its own. It produces great quantities of rice and elephants teeth, and, indeed, is the only iſland among the Philippines in which elephants are bred. The air in this iſland is tolerable, being refreſhed by frequent rains. The ſea yields pearls; and great quantities of ambergris are found upon the ſhores. The ſoil is fertile in fruits, rice, and pepper; and numerous herds of cattle graze in the paſtures.

14. Maſbate, which lies almoſt in the center of the Philippines, is 93 miles in circumference, and abounds in gold, civit, bees-wax, and ſalt.

Theſe iſlands produce great quantities of gold and other metals, pearls, ambergris, loadſtones, ivory, pepper, bees-wax, and an excellent fruit called tanter, of which a moſt delicious pickle is made; mangos, durians, oranges, which are both larger and better than thoſe of Europe; lemons, both ſour and ſweet; palm-trees, of which there are forty ſpecies, the principal being the ſago; tamarinds, plantains, bananas, the caſſia-tree, and ebony; moſt of the common timber trees, ſugar-canes, tobacco, indigo; odoriferous and medicinal herbs, admirable flowers, and culinary vegetables, particularly potatoes, &c.

There is a ſingular ſpecies of cane-trees about the mountains of theſe iſlands, which being cut, yield water in great plenty. Theſe canes afford great relief and refreſhment to the natives, who would otherwiſe be parched with thirſt, as no running ſtreams or ſprings are found in any of the mountains where they grow.

They have one plant that has all the properties of, and is uſed as a ſubſtitute for, opium; of this the natives are very fond, and frequently intoxicate themſelves with it.

The camondog-tree is of ſuch a poiſonous nature, that death inſtantly ſeizes any living creature who taſtes either its fruit or leaves. It ſuffers no verdure to grow beneath its ſhade, and, if tranſplanted, poiſons all vegetables that are near it, except a ſhrub, which is an antidote to it. The natives make an inciſion in this tree, from whence a liquor flows, into which they dip the points of their arrows and darts, in order to poiſon them; after which, a wound received from any of thoſe weapons proves mortal. Beſides this tree, there are many poiſonous herbs and flowers.

The Philippines likewiſe abound in cattle of all kinds; wild beaſts, whoſe fleſh and ſkins are valuable articles; horſes, ſheep, civit-cats, game-fowls, fiſh, &c.

Aligators here are very dangerous; and the ignana, a kind of land aligator, does a great deal of miſchief. Here are abundance of ſnakes, ſcorpions, centipedes, &c. The peacocks, parrots, cocatoos, and turtle-doves, are very beautiful: the Xolo bird eats like a turkey; the camboxa is a well taſted fowl, peculiar to theſe iſlands; and they have another kind of fowl, whoſe fleſh and bones are quite black, but are, nevertheleſs, delicious food. The herrero, or carpenter, is a fine large green bird. It is called carpenter becauſe its beak is ſo hard, that it digs a hole in the trunk, or ſome large branch of a tree, in order to build its neſt. The tavan, a ſea-

a ſea-fowl, lays its eggs in the ſand, to be hatched by the heat of the ſun.

Monkies and baboons here are very ſagacious. During the ſeaſon, when there is no fruit to be got, they go down to the ſea-ſide to catch oyſters. That the fiſh may not pinch their paws, they put a ſtone between the ſhells to prevent their ſhutting cloſe.

In general the natives of theſe iſlands are compoſed of native blacks and tawnies; Chineſe, or the poſterity of Chineſe, who have long ſettled among them; Malayans, Portugueſe, Spaniards, other Europeans, and a mongrel breed from the whole: the make, features, complexions, and manners of the people, conſequently vary from each other.

Rice, fiſh, and fruit, are the common food of the natives, who eat very little fleſh. They drink water, palm wine, and ſpirits diſtilled from cocoa and palm-trees. The Spaniards, however, live luxurioufly, eating fleſh at noon, and fiſh at night, and indulging themſelves with all manner of Aſiatic delicacies. Spaniards, as well as natives, ſmoak tobacco; but the latter chew betel and areka.

Swimming, bathing, dancing, muſic, and dramatic performances, are their amuſements. Their weapons are bows, arrows, lances, daggers, and darts; and they defend themſelves with helmets, ſhields, and breaſt-plates.

Polygamy is permitted among ſome of the Indian nations, but in others it is not allowed, except in caſes of barrenneſs. They admit of divorces, which frequently happen. The huſband buys the wife from her father, or neareſt relation; a beaſt is ſacrificed, an entertainment made of the fleſh, and the bride and bridegroom having eat together out of the ſame trencher, are deemed lawfully married.

Children are either named after herbs or flowers, or from ſome accidental circumſtance that occurs at the time of their birth: but as ſoon as they marry they chuſe new names, and their parents are obliged to make uſe of their old ones.

The bodies of the dead are waſhed and perfumed, wrapped in ſilk, and put in a cloſe coffin, near which a cheſt is placed, that contains the arms of a man, or domeſtic utenſils of a woman. Mourners are hired to aſſiſt in making a diſmal noiſe: but as ſoon as the body is buried, an entertainment is made, and all is converted to mirth and feſtivity. In general they mourn in black garments, and ſhave their heads and eye-brows. The real natives are exceedingly ſuperſtitious, profeſs the moſt groſs idolatry, and their religious tenets are a jumble of ideas ridiculous and abſurd.

The only accounts we have of the Caroline or New Philippine Iſlands, are thoſe written by two prieſts, Father Clan and Father Gobien, which were compoſed at Manila, and founded on a deſcription of them given by ſome of the natives, who were driven by ſtreſs of weather upon the Iſland of Tandaya.

Theſe accounts place thoſe iſlands between 6 and 12 deg. north lat. and 127 and 138 deg. eaſt long. Thoſe gentlemen inform us, that they are exceeding populous, and governed by a king, who reſides in one of them, named Lamaree; that the natives reſemble the Malayans, go almoſt naked, paint their bodies, ſpeak a language ſomewhat like the Arabic, are without any form of worſhip, make no ſet meals, live temperately, &c. They have a few fowls, plenty of fiſh, and fertile lands; but they are without quadrupeds of any kind. The women adorn themſelves with necklaces, bracelets, and rings, all made of tortoiſe-ſhell. They are of ſo placid a diſpoſition, that no quarrel ever happens among them, and war is totally unknown.

We may conclude, from this brief account, that theſe are the moſt happy people that have ever yet fallen under our obſervation. They have no foes to fight, quarrels to decide, beaſts to hunt, or game to kill; but each ſucceeding day enjoy the bounties of Providence without bodily labour, and inſenſible of any anxiety of mind.

SECTION IV.

THE CELEBES, or ISLAND OF MACASSAR.

THIS iſland, which lies under the equator, is divided from Borneo by the ſtreights of Macaſſar, as it is by the ocean from the Molucca Iſlands on the eaſt, and the Philippines on the north. Its extent from north to ſouth is upwards of 300 miles, and in the broadeſt part it is near 240. It is divided into ſix petty kingdoms or provinces, the principal of which are, the Celebes on the north-weſt, and Macaſſar, the latter of which takes in all the ſouthern part of the iſland. But as all the other provinces are ſubject to theſe two, the iſland is ſometimes called by the name of one, and ſometimes by the other.

As the climate is both hot and moiſt, it is therefore unhealthy, except at the times of the northern monſoons. The weſtern part lies low and flat, but the ſouthern part is very high. In the rivers here is found gold duſt, which is waſhed down in the ſands from the neighbouring hills by the great torrents of water that ſometimes fall after exceſſive rains.

Here is great plenty of various kinds of vegetables, all excellent in their qualities: the rice in particular is ſaid to be much ſuperior to that cultivated in any other part of the Indies. The fruits and flowers are much the ſame as thoſe in the Philippines. They have pepper, ſugar, betel and areka, with the beſt cotton and opium; and their cattle are much larger and finer than any to be met with in other eaſtern countries. Their oxen and buffalos are uſed only for draught, and they have very ſmall horſes for riding; but the natives uſe no other ſaddle than a painted cloth, without ſtirrups or bridle, having only a cord faſtened to a bit made of wood. Theſe horſes have very hard hoofs, and are never ſhod.

There are prodigious numbers of monkies and baboons in the woods and foreſts, which are ſo large, and go together in ſuch conſiderable bodies, that they are very dangerous to travellers; but they have one enemy by whom they are ſometimes conquered, namely, ſerpents, which are here of a moſt extraordinary ſize, and have ſuch agility and ſtrength, that they will purſue them to the very tops of trees, and frequently deſtroy them.

There is but one large river in the iſland, and that is dangerous, by reaſon of its being greatly infeſted with crocodiles. It runs from north to ſouth into the bay of Macaſſar, where it is about half a league broad, and waſhes the walls of the city of that name: its channel is deep enough in ſome places to admit the largeſt veſſels, but in others it is very ſhallow.

The natives are rather ſhort in ſtature, and of a light olive complexion: they are particularly fond of having flat noſes, inſomuch that they practiſe methods in their infancy to obtain that diſtinguiſhed form, with as much labour and attention as the Chineſe women do to acquire ſmall feet. Neither men or women wear any covering on thair heads; but their hair, which is of a fine ſhining black, is ingeniouſly tied up, and from it hang curls that lay gracefully on the neck and ſhoulders. The men ornament their hair with jewels, but the women do not: the latter only wear a gold chain round their necks. Both ſexes, however, dye their nails red, and their teeth either black or red, both of which they conſider as very material ornaments.

The lower ſort of people wear a looſe garment made of cotton, which reaches below the knees; but none uſe either ſhoes or ſtockings. The women have a garment made of muſlin, with ſtrait ſleeves that button at the wriſts; beſides which they wear a kind of drawers made of cotton, that are faſtened round the waiſt, and reach to the ancles. The garments of the better ſort are made of ſcarlet cloth, or brocaded ſilk, with large buttons of ſolid gold. They have likewiſe a very hand-

ſome

ſome ſaſh made of ſilk, and embroidered, which contains their dagger and purſe.

The diet of the common people conſiſts principally of rice, herbs, roots and fiſh; and their uſual drink is water or tea: the better ſort eat fleſh and poultry, the former being generally beef or kid, which are both exceeding fine; and they drink tea, coffee, and chocolate, the latter of which they get from the Spaniards in the Philippine Iſlands: they alſo uſe palm wine, arrack, and other ſpirituous liquors. They have but two meals a day, one in the morning, and the other about ſunſet, the latter of which is the principal: in the intermediate ſpace they refreſh themſelves by chewing betel and areka, or ſmoaking tobacco intermixed with opium. They ſit croſs-legged on the floor at their meals, and have very low tables for their proviſions, which are ſet on them in plates or diſhes made of wood; but they uſe neither knives or ſpoons.

Their houſes, which are ſmall, but very neat, are chiefly built of ebony, and other wood of variegated colours. They have but little furniture, except the neceſſary utenſils for dreſſing their proviſions; but what they have is always kept exceeding clean; and to prevent the houſe being made filthy, they have veſſels to ſpit in when they chew betel or ſmoak tobacco.

In general the men are very robuſt, and naturally ſo courageous, that they are eſteemed the beſt ſoldiers in India; for which reaſon they are frequently hired into the ſervices of other princes. Their arms are ſabres and daggers, the latter of which they often infect with poiſon; and they have trunks from which they blow poiſoned darts: theſe darts are pointed with the tooth of a fiſh dipped in the venomous juice of certain drugs that grow in the country, and it is ſaid they will ſtrike a mark with them at near 100 yards diſtance.

Theſe courageous iſlanders were the laſt enſlaved by the Dutch, who, however, could not effect a conqueſt till after a very long and expenſive war, in which were employed almoſt all the forces they had at that time in India. The Dutch firſt joined the natives to oppoſe the Portugueſe, who made an attempt to ſubdue this iſland; but the latter being ſoon conquered, the Dutch immediately took ſole poſſeſſion of it, and have preſerved an abſolute dominion over it ever ſince.

The Portugueſe, and after them the Dutch, endeavoured to ſubdue this iſland, becauſe it is ſituated near the Molucca and Banda Iſlands, which produce ſuch great plenty of cloves and nutmegs, the poſſeſſion of which they could not have ſecured without being maſters of this iſland.

The natives, if well uſed, are loving and faithful in their diſpoſition; but, if ill treated, will not be ſatisfied till they have had revenge on the party by whom they were injured. They are haſty and paſſionate, but have ſuch juſt notions of honour, that when they diſcover themſelves to be wrong, they will condem their own conduct, and be glad to comply with any ſubmiſſion that may be thought neceſſary, as a recompence for the offence committed.

The women of this iſland are obliged to be very circumſpect in their carriage, and very careful not to be ſeen in company with any other man than their huſband. When this happens to be the caſe, the huſband is indemnified if he kills the man he finds with his wife. On the contrary, the huſband is permitted to have as many wives and concubines as he thinks proper; and the more children he has, the greater he is conſidered as being uſeful to ſociety.

Both ſexes are rendered active by a cuſtom practiſed during their infancy. Every day their nurſes rub them with oil, or water juſt warm; and theſe unctions encourage nature to exert herſelf with the moſt extenſive freedom. Male infants are taken from the breaſt when a year old, their parents having an opinion, that if they ſucked longer, it would greatly prejudice their underſtandings. When they are five or ſix years old, children of any diſtinction are entruſted to the care of ſome relation or friend, that their courage may not be weakened by the careſſes of their mothers, and a habit of reciprocal tenderneſs. They do not return to their parents till they arrive at the age of fifteen or ſixteen, when the law allows them to marry: but this is a liberty they ſeldom uſe, till they are thoroughly verſed in the exerciſe of arms. The boys are ſent to ſchool to the prieſts, who teach them reading, writing, arithmetic, and the precepts of the Koran; for though they retain many Chineſe ceremonies, they are profeſſed Mahometans. The girls are taught to read and write, to ſpin, cook, and make cloaths; for as there are not any taylors here, the women not only make their own cloaths, but alſo thoſe worn by the men; and ſome of them are ſo induſtrious and expert, that they will obtain very handſome fortunes by that profeſſion.

Theſe people are ſo little addicted to infamous practices, or litigious diſputes, that they have neither lawyers, attornies, or bailiffs. If any differences ariſe, the parties apply perſonally to the judge, who determines the matter with expedition and equity. In ſome matters of a criminal nature they are permitted to do juſtice to themſelves. If a man detects another in the commiſſion of adultery, murder, or robbery, he has a right to execute juſtice himſelf, by deſtroying the culprit.

The huſband, on marriage, receives no other portion with his wife than the preſents ſhe received before the ceremony, which, as ſoon as the prieſt has performed, the new married couple are confined in an apartment by themſelves for three ſucceſſive days, having only a ſervant to bring them ſuch neceſſaries as they may have occaſion for; during which time their friends and acquaintances are entertained, and great rejoicings made at the houſe of the bride's father. At the expiration of the three days the parties are ſet at liberty, and receive the congratulations of their friends; after which the bridegroom conducts his wife home, and each apply themſelves to buſineſs; he to his accuſtomed profeſſion, and ſhe to the duties of houſewifery.

Theſe iſlanders are all of the Mahometan religion. Many of them are great pretenders to magic, and carry charms about them, on a ſuppoſition of their ſecuring them from every danger.

Funeral ceremonies are performed here with great decency; to ſecure which, the meaneſt perſon makes proviſion while in health, by aſſigning a certain ſum to defray the incidental expences. As ſoon as a perſon is dead, the body is waſhed, and being cloathed in a white robe, is placed in a room hung with white, which is ſcented with the ſtrongeſt perfumes. Here it continues for three days, and on the fourth it is carried on a palanquin to the grave, preceded by the friends and relations, and followed by the prieſts, who have attendants that carry incenſe and perfumes, which are burnt all the way from the houſe to the grave. The body is interred without a coffin, there being only a plank at the bottom of the grave for it to lie on, and another to cover it; and when this laſt is placed, the earth is thrown in, and the grave filled up. If the perſon is of diſtinguiſhed quality, a handſome tomb is immediately placed over the grave, adorned with flowers; and the relations burn incenſe and other perfumes for forty ſucceſſive days.

This iſland was formerly under monarchial government; and in order to prevent the crown falling on an infant, the eldeſt brother ſucceeded after the death of the king. All places of truſt in the civil government were diſpoſed of by the prime miniſters; but the officers of the revenue, and of the houſehold, were appointed by the ſovereign. The king's forces, when out of actual ſervice, were not allowed any pay, but only their cloaths, arms, and ammunition. It is ſaid, that in ſome former wars he has brought into the field 12,000 horſe, and 80,000 foot.

Aſſemblies are held at particular times on affairs that concern the general intereſt, and the reſult of their determinations becomes a law to each ſtate. When any conteſt ariſes, it is decided by the governor of the

Dutch colony, who preſides at this diet. He holds a watchful eye over theſe different ſovereigns, and keeps them in perfect equality with each other, to prevent any one from aggrandizing himſelf to the prejudice of the company. The Dutch have diſarmed them all, under pretence of hindering them from injuring each other; but, in reality, with a view only to keep them in a ſtate of ſubjection.

The only foreigners permitted to come to this iſland are the Chineſe, who bring hither tobacco, gold-wire, china, and unwrought ſilks; in return for which they take opium, ſpirituous liquors, gum, and linens. They get but little gold from hence, but great quantities of rice, wax, ſlaves, and tripam, a ſpecies of muſhroom, which the rounder and blacker, the more excellent it is eſteemed. The cuſtoms bring in upwards of 80,000 livres to the company: but they obtain a much larger profit from their trade, and the tenth part of the territory, which they hold in full right of ſovereignty.

The chief city, Macaſſar, is ſituated on the banks of a river of the ſame name, near the ſouth-weſt corner of the iſland. Here the Dutch have a very ſtrong fort, mounted with a great number of cannon, and the garriſon conſiſts of 800 men.

In general, the ſtreets of the city are very long and ſpacious, and are planted on each ſide with trees; but there are not any of them paved. The moſques and houſes of the quality are built with ſtone; but thoſe of the common people are of wood, and elevated from the ground with pillars. They are made of wood of various colours, and the tops of them are covered with palm or cocoa leaves. Here are large markets for the ſale of proviſions and other commodities. The markets are opened twice a day, viz. in the morning and evening, before the riſing and ſetting of the ſun. The proviſions are brought to market and ſold by women only; for if a man was to be ſeen in that character, he would be treated with the moſt diſtinguiſhed contempt. The number of inhabitants in this city were formerly eſtimated at 160,000 men able to bear arms; but ſince the Dutch deprived them of their trade, great numbers have forſaken it: and the other towns and villages, which were proportionably populous, have been greatly deſerted for the ſame reaſon.

Jampandam, the only principal place on this iſland, excluſive of the city of Macaſſar, is ſituated about 15 miles to the ſouth of Macaſſar river. This was the firſt place of any importance taken by the Dutch, who have a good fort here; and there is as commodious an harbour as any to be met with in the Indian Seas.

Of the ſeveral iſlands about the Celebes, that go by the ſame name, the principal is ſituated about five leagues from the ſouth-eaſt corner. This iſland is about 80 miles long, and 30 broad. On the eaſt ſide of it is a large town and harbour called Callacaſſong, the ſtreets of which are ſpacious, and encloſed on each ſide with cocoa-trees. The inhabitants are Mahometans, ſpeak the Malayan tongue, and are governed by an abſolute prince.

To the north-eaſt of this iſland are the Straits of Patience, ſo called from the great difficulty in paſſing them, which ariſes from the violence of the currents, and the contrariety of winds.

SECTION V.

THE SUNDA ISLANDS.

ISLAND OF BORNEO.

BORNEO, the largeſt of the Sunda Iſlands, was diſcovered by the Portugueſe in 1521. It is of great extent, being ſituated between 7 deg. 30 min. north lat. and 4 deg. 10 min. ſouth, under the equinoctial line, which divides it into two unequal parts, 7 deg. 30 min. lying northward of it, and 4 deg, 10 min. ſouthward; ſo that it is 700 miles in length, and 480 in breadth. It is bounded on the eaſt by the Celebes, on the weſt by Sumatra, on the north by the Philippines, and on the ſouth by the Iſland of Java.

Conſidering the ſituation of the country, the air is tolerable, particularly in thoſe parts next the coaſt, which are refreſhed every morning by cooling breezes from the ſea, otherwiſe the heat would be inſupportable. Theſe parts, however, are very unwholeſome, as they lay on a flat for many hundred miles, and are annually overflowed. When the waters retire, a muddy ſlime is left on the ſurface of the earth, which the ſun ſhining upon with perpendicular rays, occaſions thick fogs, that afterwards turn to rain, with cold chilling winds; ſo that the air at this time is very unwholeſome. Another circumſtance that contributes to this, is the great number of frogs and other vermin left on the mud, which being deſtroyed by the heat of the ſun, produce an intolerable ſtench.

In April the dry ſeaſon begins, and continues till September, during which time the wind is eaſterly between the ſouth coaſts of Borneo and the Iſland of Java; but from September to April the winds are weſterly, attended by violent ſtorms of rain, thunder, and lightning. Theſe ſtorms are ſo continual, eſpecially on the ſouth coaſt, that it is thought very extraordinary to have two hours fair weather in the courſe of 24.

Excluſive of rice, which is very plentiful, the produce of this country conſiſts of frankincenſe, muſk, aloes, pepper, cinnamon, and other ſpices; alſo various kinds of fruits, with excellent maſtic, and other gums, wax, caſſia, honey, cotton, and the beſt camphire.

Borneo produces great quantities of excellent timber, with the cotton ſhrub, canes, and rattans. In the rivers, particularly that of Succadanea, are found excellent diamonds, and great quantities of gold duſt are gathered from the ſands. The loadſtone is alſo found here; and the wild ape produces the richeſt bezoar ſtones that are any where to be met with. Here are alſo mines of iron and tin, which are ſaid to be excellent in their qualities.

The animals of this country are oxen, buffalos, horſes, deer, and goats; beſides which there are ſeveral ſorts of wild beaſts, as elephants, bears, tygers, monkies, and baboons.

There are various kinds of parrots and paroquets, one of which is called, by the Banjareens, *lurge*, and is admired for its beauty. They have alſo ſeveral other kinds of birds, but not any like thoſe in Europe, except the ſparrow. During the time of the weſtern monſoons, the ſky is frequently darkened with bats, which fly in prodigious numbers. They are called by ſome *flying cats*, and, in colour, ſhape, and ſmell, much reſemble a fox, though not ſo large; but their wings, when extended, are not leſs than ſix feet from the tip of the one to that of the other.

The natives of this iſland may be conſidered as of two claſſes, differing as well in their perſons and dreſs, as in their cuſtoms and religion. Thoſe who inhabit the ſea-coaſt are Mahometans, and called Banjareens, from the town of Banjar, to which moſt nations reſort to purchaſe the various commodities of the country. The Banjareens are rather low in ſtature, and of a ſwarthy complexion, but, on the whole, very proportionably made. The common people have no other covering than a ſmall piece of linen faſtened round the waiſt; but the better ſort wear a kind of waiſtcoat made of ſilk, or European cloth, over which they throw a looſe garment of ſilk or betella, that reaches to the knees. They alſo wear a pair of drawers, but have neither ſhirt, ſhoes, or ſtockings. Their hair is tied up in a roll, and covered with a piece of muſlin or callico; and when they go abroad they always carry a dagger with them.

The women are ſmaller than the men, and their features much more delicate: they are alſo much fairer in complexion; and, contrary to the mode of moſt Indian women, walk very upright, and ſtep with a graceful air. They are very conſtant after marriage, but are apt to beſtow favours with great freedom when ſingle: but however

however indiſcreet they may have been in this point, they are not conſidered the worſe for it by their huſbands; nor dare any one reproach them for the faults they have committed previous to their marriage.

The chief part of their food is rice, but with it they eat veniſon, fiſh and fowl. The better ſort are ſerved in veſſels made of gold or ſilver, but the poorer ſort uſes diſhes made of earth or braſs. They all ſit croſs-legged at their meals upon mats or carpets. Both ſexes chew betel and areka, and are very fond of ſmoaking tobacco, with which they often mix opium made into pills, after being boiled in water till it comes to a conſiſtency. The whole company uſually ſmoke out of the ſame pipe: the maſter begins, and after having ſmoked two or three whiffs, he gives it to the perſon neareſt him, from whom it paſſes round till it comes to the maſter again.

Their principal diverſions are dancing and comedies, which are performed after the manner of the eaſt. Their rural ſports are ſhooting at a mark and hunting. They travel chiefly in the night, on account of the coolneſs of the air at that time: the common people uſually go in covered boats, but the better ſort travel by land on elephants and horſes.

The ſalaam, or lifting the hands to the head, and bending the body, is their mode of ſalutation. When they appear before their ſuperiors, they raiſe their hands above the forehead; and if before a prince they proſtrate themſelves on the ground, and retire backwards on their knees.

Thoſe who inhabit the inland parts of this iſland are taller, and much more robuſt, than the Banjareens. They are called Byajos, and are pagans in their religion. Their complexion is more ſwarthy than the inhabitants of the coaſt; and their time is chiefly employed in hunting and attending their cattle. They go almoſt naked, having only a ſmall piece of linen faſtened round the waiſt: they paint their bodies of a bluiſh colour, and beſmear them with ſtinking oil. Some of them are very fond of having large ears, to obtain which they make holes in the ſoft parts of them when young; to theſe holes are faſtened weights about the breadth of a crown piece, which continually preſſing on the ears expand them to an immoderate length. The better ſort pull out their fore teeth, and place artificial ones in their ſtead, made of gold; but their greateſt ornament conſiſts of a number of tygers teeth, which are ſtrung together, and worn about the neck.

The Banjareens, in burying their dead, always place the head to the north, and throw into the grave ſeveral kinds of proviſions, from a ſuperſtitious notion that they may be uſeful to them in the other world. They fix the place of interment out of the reach of the floods; and the mourners, as in Japan and China, are dreſſed in white, and carry lighted torches in their hands.

Pagans as well as Mahometans allow a plurality of wives and concubines. They in general live to an advanced age, which is attributed to their frequent uſe of the water, for both men and women bathe in the rivers once in the day; from which practice they are very expert in ſwimming. The Malayan is the language of thoſe on the coaſt.

They are ſtrangers to the uſe of phyſic; and the letting of blood, however deſperate the caſe of the patient, is to them a circumſtance of the moſt alarming nature. An inſtance of their great timidity on this occaſion is thus given by Capt. Beckman, who was under the neceſſity of ſubmitting to that operation. "One day (ſays he) being indiſpoſed, I ordered the ſurgeon to bleed me. Cay Deponattee, and ſeveral others of the natives, being in the room, and ſtrangers to the operation, were in great amazement to know what we were about, till at length the vein being opened, they ſaw the blood guſh out: at this they were ſo frightened that they immediately ran out of the room, crying out, in their language, "the man's heart or mind is fooliſh;" after which they told us, we let out our very ſouls and lives willingly, which they ſaid was very ill done. To this I anſwered, that their diet being mean, and their drink only water, they had no occaſion for bleeding; but that we, who drank ſo much wine and punch, and fed upon ſo much fleſh, which rendered the blood hot and rich, had an abſolute neceſſity of doing it, otherwiſe we ſhould be ſick. "Aye (ſays Cay Deponatte) I think that ſhews you to be ſtill greater fools, in putting yourſelves to ſuch expenſive charges, on purpoſe to receive pain for it." This was certainly a very trite obſervation, and fully evinced, that if they wanted faith in the utility of this expedient, they were not defective in natural underſtanding.

As they ſuppoſe moſt of their diſtempers to ariſe from the malice of ſome evil demon, when a perſon is ſick, inſtead of applying to medicine, they make an entertainment of various kinds of proviſions, which they hold under ſome conſpicuous tree in a field: theſe proviſions, which conſiſt of rice, fowls, fiſh, &c. they offer for the relief of the perſons afflicted: and if he recovers, they repeat the offering, by way of returning thanks for the bleſſing received; but if the patient dies, they expreſs their reſentment againſt the ſpirit by whom he is ſuppoſed to have been affected.

They know nothing of aſtronomy; and when an eclipſe happens, they think the world is going to be deſtroyed. They likewiſe know little of arithmetic, and their only method of calculating is by parallel lines and moveable buttons on a board.

Their current money is dollars and half and quarter dollars; and for ſmall change they have a ſort of money made of lead in the form of rings, which are ſtrung on a kind of dry leaf.

The towns and factories to which the Europeans trade are built on floats of timber on the river: each town conſiſts of one long ſtreet; and, to ſecure them from being carried away by the ſtream, poſts are driven into the ground near the ſhore, to which they are faſtened with cables made of rattans. Each houſe conſiſts only of one floor divided into different apartments, according to the number in family: the ſides of the building are made with ſplit bamboo, and the roof is covered with leaves of trees: the walls are made high for the benefit of the air, and from their tops hang coverings that reach within five feet of the logs, and are made in a ſloping form, to keep off the ſcorching heat of the ſun. The floats are made of large logs of wood; and the houſes are ſo light in their conſtruction, that a great part of the float is ſeen above the ſurface of the water.

The houſes of the poorer ſort are built on piles of bamboo, in the mud on each ſide, and are ranged in an uniform manner behind thoſe on the floats. At high water they get to their houſes with boats; and when the water is low, they go from one to the other on logs of timber. It ſometimes happens, at ebb tides, when the current is exceſſive ſtrong, that theſe houſes will be removed a conſiderable diſtance, and with great difficulty brought back to their original ſtations. Inſtances have been known of their being driven to ſea, and totally loſt.

The city of Borneo on the north, Paſſeer on the eaſt, Succadanea on the weſt, and Banjar Maſſeen on the ſouth, are the principal places for trade on this iſland. The laſt of theſe is the moſt conſiderable on account of the river Banjar, which is ſo commodious as to admit ſhips of the greateſt burden. This river runs from north to ſouth above half through the iſland, and towards its mouth is near two miles broad. Its banks are planted with thick groves of evergreens; and one branch of it is called the China River, from the Chineſe junks conſtantly paſſing it.

The inland part of this country is divided into ſeveral petty kingdoms, each of which is governed by a rajah, or king. Formerly all the rajahs were ſubject to the rajah of Borneo, who was eſteemed the ſupreme king over the whole iſland; but his authority has been of late years greatly diminiſhed; and there are other kings equal, if not more powerful, than himſelf, particularly the king of Caytonge. The town where this prince

prince reſides is ſituated about 80 miles up the Banjar river. His palace is a very elegant building, erected on pillars, and is open on all ſides. Before the palace is a large building, conſiſting only of one room, which is ſet apart for holding councils, and entertaining foreigners. In the center of the room is the throne, covered with a rich canopy of gold and ſilver brocade. About the palace are planted ſeveral cannon, which are ſo old, and mounted on ſuch wretched carriages, that they are neither ornamental or uſeful.

The ſuperiority of this prince is derived from the cuſtoms he receives at the port of Banjar Maſſeen, which are eſtimated at 8000 pieces of eight per annum.

Next in rank to the above, is the king or ſultan of Negaree, whoſe palace is ſituated at a place called Metapoora, about ten miles from Caytonge. Before the gates of his palace is an handſome armoury, which contains a great number of fire-arms, and ſeveral cannon. He is always on good terms with his neighbour the prince of Caytonge, and to theſe two princes the reſt are ſubordinate.

The natives pay great homage to theſe princes, and it is difficult for a ſtranger to get acceſs to them. The only means to effect this is by complimenting them with ſome valuable preſent; for avarice is their darling paſſion; and the ſtranger will be treated with reſpect in proportion to the preſent he makes.

The mountaineers live independent of any of theſe kings: they are divided into different clans under their reſpective chiefs, and are ſubject to a government peculiar to themſelves. They are ſeldom ſeen, as they live in the woods and foreſts, where they are ſo ſecure, that it would be difficult to attack them; and they are ſo ſavage, that an attempt would, in all probability, be attended with the moſt fatal conſequences. Their arms are a dagger, and a trunk about ſeven feet long, thro' which they ſhoot poiſoned darts made of braſs, and barbed on each ſide. Their dreſs conſiſts only of a piece of cloth wrapped round the waiſt, and a rag about their heads. They often come down to Tatas to get commodities from the Banjareens, in exchange for which they give gold, bezoar, rice, wax, &c.

The Dutch poſſeſs the principal parts on the coaſt of this iſland, and are maſters of the beſt ports, and moſt valuable articles in traffic; but there are many creeks about the iſland, where others have free commerce without moleſtation. As this country produces a great variety of articles, whoſe value are moſt eſtimable to other nations than to the Dutch, numbers of foreigners reſort here for thoſe commodities that are beſt adapted to the trade of their own nation. The Chineſe and Japaneſe come here for ſpices; the Malayans for gold; and thoſe from the Mogul country in ſearch of diamonds. As the Dutch reckon the pepper, cloves, and cinnamon, as inferior to thoſe of the other ſpice iſlands, ſo they ſuffer them to be ſold without interruption. The natives are ſupplied by the Dutch with the manufactures of India; in exchange for which they receive gold, diamonds, and other valuable commodities.

Pepper, gold, precious ſtones, and a gum called dragon's blood, which is ſaid to be finer here than in any other part of the world, are the principal articles purchaſed by the Engliſh merchants.

The European commodities taken here conſiſt of guns, piſtols, gunpowder, ſheet-lead, iron and ſteel bars, nails of different ſizes, hangers, knives, and other cutlery wares, boots made of red leather, ſpectacles, looking-glaſſes, clock-work, callimancos, and various ſorts of linens.

The capital city, Borneo, is ſituated on the north-weſt corner of the iſland, and lies in 112 deg. 2 min. eaſt long. and in 4 deg. 55 min. north lat. On the eaſt ſide of it is an excellent harbour, adjoining to which is a large river, capable of accommodating ſhips of the greateſt burthen. The town is very large, the ſtreets ſpacious, and the houſes well built: they are, in general, three ſtories high, covered with flat roofs. The ſultan's palace is an elegant and extenſive building.

This place is the chief ſeat of commerce in the iſland, and the port belonging to it is continually crowded with ſhips from various nations, particularly from China, Cambodia, Siam, and Malacca: and there are prodigious numbers of boats that come from the Philippine and other iſlands. The Dutch import here glaſs, cinnabar, cloths, woollens, and iron, in exchange for which they take camphire, gold and precious ſtones. The Portugueſe and Engliſh have ſome trade here, though no ſettled factory: but there are merchants of both nations who correſpond with the company's factors on the coaſt of Coromandel.

Here it may not be improper to obſerve, that thoſe who barter with the natives of Borneo muſt carefully examine the goods they purchaſe, and ſee that the weight or meaſure is juſt; for they are arrant cheats; and ſuch ſtrangers are they to any remorſe of conſcience, that he thinks himſelf the moſt ingenious who commits the moſt diſtinguiſhed fraud. They make compoſitions to imitate ſome of the moſt valuable articles, particularly bezoar and bars of gold; the latter of which is ſo artfully executed, that, unleſs a penetration is made entirely through them, the deception cannot be diſcovered.

SECTION VI.

ISLAND OF JAVA,

As deſcribed by our Countryman CAPTAIN COOK.

THIS iſland is ſituated between 102 and 113 deg. eaſt long. and between 5 and 8 deg. of ſouth lat. being about 700 miles in length, and 200 in breadth. It is bounded on the eaſt by the Iſland and Straits of Bally, on the weſt by the Straits of Sunda, (from whence it is called one of the Sunda Iſlands,) on the north by the Iſland of Borneo, and on the ſouth by the Indian Ocean.

The Iſland of Java produces goats, ſheep, hogs, buffalos, and horſes. The horſe, which is ſaid to have been met with here when the country was firſt diſcovered, is a ſmall, but nimble animal, being ſeldom above thirteen hands high. The horned cattle of this country are different from thoſe of Europe; the fleſh is extremely lean, but of a very fine grain. Both the Chineſe, and the natives of the iſland, feed on the buffalo; but the Dutch will neither taſte the fleſh or the milk, from a ridiculous idea that they are productive of fevers. The ſheep are tough and ill-taſted, and they have long hanging ears. A few ſheep from the Cape of Good Hope being at Batavia, Captain Cook bought ſome of them at the rate of 1s. per pound.

Formerly this iſland produced no kind of ſpices but pepper, and the quantity which the Dutch bring annually from thence is very conſiderable; but the quantity uſed in the country is very ſmall, as the people there give the preference to Cayan pepper. The inhabitants are very fond of nutmegs and cloves, but they bear too high a price to be much in uſe, as the trees which produce them are all become Dutch property.

The natives of Java profeſs the religion of Mahomet, and of courſe do not indulge in wine, at leaſt publicly; but, not to be exceeded in the vice of drunkenneſs by their Chriſtian neighbours, they are almoſt conſtantly chewing opium, which is well known to intoxicate in a high degree.

The moſt diſtinguiſhed city in this iſland is Batavia, ſituated in 6 deg. 10 min. ſouth lat. and 106 deg. 50 min. eaſt long. from the meridian of Greenwich. It is built on the bank of a large bay, ſomething more than twenty miles from the Streight of Sunda, on the north ſide of the iſland of Java, in low boggy ground. Several ſmall rivers, which riſe forty miles up the country in the mountains of Blaeuwen Berg, diſcharge themſelves into the ſea at this place, having firſt interſected the town in different directions. There are wide canals of nearly ſtagnated water in almoſt every ſtreet, and

and as the banks of these canals are planted with rows of trees, the effect is very agreeable; but these trees and canals combine to render the air pestilential. Some of the rivers are navigable more than thirty miles up the country; and, indeed, the Dutch appear to have chosen this spot to build the town on, for the sake of water-carriage, in which convenience Batavia exceeds every place in the world, except the towns of Holland.

The streets being wide, and the houses large, it stands on more ground than any other place that has only an equal number of houses.

In dry weather a most horrid stench arises from the canals, and taints the air to a great degree; and when the rains have so swelled the canals that they overflow their banks, the ground-floors of the houses, in the lower parts of the town are filled with stinking water, that leaves behind it dirt and slime in amazing quantities. The running streams are sometimes as offensive as the stagnant canals; for the bodies of dead animals are frequently lodged on the shallow parts, where they are left to putrify and corrupt the air, except a flood happens to carry them away. This was the case with a dead buffalo, while the crew of the Endeavour were there, which lay stinking on the shoal of a river in one of the chief streets for several days: indeed, the air of this place is so very unwholesome that it is represented by *Captain Cook* as the grave of European navigators.

Any number of ships may anchor in the harbour of Batavia, the ground of which is so excellent, that the anchor will never quit its hold. This harbour is sometimes dangerous for boats, when the sea breeze blows fresh; but, upon the whole, it is deemed the best and most commodious in all India.

The environs of Batavia have a very pleasing appearance, and would, in almost any other country, be an enviable situation. Gardens and houses occupy the country for several miles; but the gardens are so covered with trees, that the advantage of the land having been cleared of the wood with which it was originally covered, is almost wholly lost; while these gardens, and the fields adjacent to them, are surrounded by ditches which yield not the most fragrant scent, and the bogs and morasses in the adjacent fields are still more offensive.

At near forty miles from the town the land rises into hills, and the air is purified in a great degree; to this distance the invalids are sent by the physicians, when every other prospect of their recovery has failed, and the experiment succeeds in almost every instance, for the sick are soon restored to health; but they no sooner return to the town than their former disorders visit them.

Pine apples grow here in such abundance, that they may be purchased, at first hand, for the value of an English farthing. Our people bought some very large ones for a halfpenny a piece at the fruit shops.

There are plenty of mangos, but their taste is far inferior to that of the melting-peach of England, to which they have been compared.

The tamarinds are equally cheap and plentiful; but as the method of preserving them, which is in salt, renders them a mere black lump, they are equally nauseating to the sight and palate.

The Batavians, as well as the natives of other parts of the island of Java, strew an immense number of flowers about their houses, and are almost always burning aromatic woods and gums, which is done by way of purifying the air; the stench that arises from the canals and ditches being exceeding nauseous and disagreeable.

The hogs here, especially those of the Chinese breed, are exquisitely fine food, but so very fat, that the lean is always sold separate.

The Portuguese make a practice of shooting the wild hog, and deer of two kinds, with which the neighbourhood of Batavia abounds. These are all good eating, and are purchased at very moderate prices. The goats of this country are as bad food as the sheep. Dogs and cats abound on the islands, and wild horses and other cattle are found on the mountains at a considerable distance from Batavia.

Few monkies are seen near the towns, but there are many on the mountains and desert places, where are also a few rhinoceroses, and great numbers of tygers.

The quantity of fish taken here is astonishingly great, and all the kinds of them are fine food, except a few which are very scarce; yet such is the false pride of the inhabitants, that these few sorts are sold at very high rates, while those that are good are sold for a mere trifle, nor are they eaten but by the slaves. A gentleman with whom Captain Cook dined told him, he could have bought a finer dish of fish for a shilling than what he had given ten for; but that he should have been the ridicule of all the politer people, if he had gone to so good a market.

Mr. Banks, while here, shot a lizard five feet long, which was exceeding well tasted; and our adventurers were informed, that some of these animals had been seen, which were full as thick as the thigh of a man.

Captain Cook was informed that, at the time he was there, the whole place could not furnish fifty women who were natives of Europe, yet the town abounded with white women who were descended from Europeans, who had settled there at different times, all the men having paid the debt of nature; for so it is, that the climate of Batavia destroys the men much faster than the women.

Mercantile business is conducted at Batavia with the slightest trouble imaginable. When a merchant receives an order for goods of any kind, he communicates the contents of it to the Chinese, who are the universal manufacturers. The Chinese agent delivers the effects on board the ship for which they are bespoke, and taking a receipt for them from the master of the vessel, he delivers it to the merchant, who pays the Chinese for the goods, and reserves a considerable profit, without the least trouble, risk or anxiety.

The Indian inhabitants of Batavia, and the country in its neighbourhood, are not native Javanese, but are either born on the several islands from whence the Dutch brings their slaves, or the offspring of such as have been born on those islands: and these having been made free, either in their own persons, or in the persons of their ancestors, enjoys all the privileges of free men. They receive the general appellation of Dranslam, which implies, "Believers of the true faith."

The hair of the people, which is black, without a single exception, grows in great abundance; yet the women make use of oils and other ingredients, to increase the quantity of it: they fasten it to the crown of the head with a bodkin, having first twisted it into a circle, round which circle they place an elegant wreath of flowers, so that the whole head-dress has a most beautiful appearance.

It is a universal custom, both with the men and women, to bathe in a river once a day, and sometimes oftener, which not only promotes health, but prevents that contraction of filth, which would be otherwise unavoidable in so hot a climate.

Almost every person has heard or read of the Mohawks; and these are the people who are so denominated, from a corruption of the word Amock, which will be fully explained by the following story and observations. To run a muck is to get drunk with opium, and then seizing some offensive weapon, to sally forth from the house, kill the person or persons supposed to have injured the Amock, and any other person who attempts to impede his passage, till himself is taken prisoner, or killed on the spot.

While Captain Cook was at Batavia, a person whose circumstances in life were independent, becoming jealous of his brother, intoxicated himself with opium, and then murdered his brother, and two other men, who endeavoured to seize him. This man, contrary to the usual custom, did not leave his own house, but made his resistance from within it; yet he had taken such a quantity of the opium, that he was totally deli-

rious, which appeared from his attempting to fire three muſquets, neither of which had been loaded, or even primed.

During Capt. Cook's ſtay, ſeveral inſtances of the like kind occurred; and he was informed by an officer, whoſe duty it was to take ſuch offenders into cuſtody, that hardly a week paſſed in the year in which he was not obliged to exerciſe his authority: the Captain was alſo told, that jealouſy of the women is the uſual reaſon of theſe poor creatures running a muck, and that the firſt object of their vengeance is always the perſon whom they ſuppoſe to have injured them. The officer, whoſe buſineſs it is to apprehend theſe unhappy wretches, is furniſhed with a long pair of tongs, in order to take hold of them at ſuch a diſtance from the point of their weapons, as to enſure his perſonal ſafety. When he takes one of them alive he is amply rewarded; but this is not often the caſe, as they are ſo deſperate as not to be eaſily apprehended: when they are killed in the attempt to take them, the officer has only the cuſtomary gratification. Thoſe who are taken alive are broken on the wheel, as near as poſſible to the place where the firſt murder was perpetrated; and as they are ſeldom apprehended without being previouſly wounded, the time of their execution is ſooner or later, according to the opinion of the phyſicians, whether the wounds are, or are not mortal.

There are many inſtances of the ſuperſtition of theſe people that might be thought very extraordinary; but the following will appear much more ſo. They are poſſeſſed with an idea, that when one of their wives is brought to bed, a crocodile is born, as a brother to the infant; and they imagine that the midwife conveys the young crocodile to an adjacent river, into which ſhe puts it with the utmoſt care and tenderneſs. Thoſe who ſuppoſe themſelves honoured by the birth of this new relation, fail not to put food in the river for his ſubſiſtence; but this is the peculiar duty of the twin-brother, who performs this ſervice regularly, at fixed periods, during the whole courſe of his life; firmly believing at the ſame time, that ſickneſs or death would be the conſequence of an omiſſion on his part.

In the iſlands of Boutou and Celebes the natives keep crocodiles in their families; and it is conjectured, that the ſtrange idea of the twin crocodile was firſt conceived in one of thoſe iſlands: it extends, however, to Java and Sumatra weſtward, and among the iſlands to the eaſtward as far as Ceram and Timor. It is a matter of perfect aſtoniſhment, how even the moſt ignorant and credulous of the human race ſhould firmly believe an utter impoſſibility to occur daily; yet it is certain, that not one of the Indians whom Capt. Cook queſtioned on the ſubject, entertained the leaſt doubt about the matter. The crocodiles ſuppoſed to be thus born are diſtinguiſhed by the name of Sudaras; and our readers cannot fail of being entertained with the following ſtory reſpecting them, which Mr. Banks heard from a young woman who was born at Bencoolen, and having lived among the Engliſh at that place, had learnt to ſpeak as much of our language as was ſufficient to make her ſtory intelligible.

She ſaid that, when her father was on his death-bed, he laid the ſtrongeſt injunctions on her to feed a crocodile that was his Sudara; that he told her the name by which he might be called up, and the particular part of the river where ſhe would find him. Soon after the death of her father ſhe haſtened to the river, and calling Radja Pouti, (which ſignifies white king) the Sudara crocodile made his appearance, and ſhe fed him with her own hands. She deſcribed him as being more beautiful than crocodiles are in general, for he had a red noſe, and ſpots on his body; his ears were adorned with rings, and his feet with ornaments of gold. This ſtory will appear the more extravagantly ridiculous when it is recollected that crocodiles have not any ears.

A man whoſe mother was a native of the iſland of Java, and whoſe father was a Dutchman, was engaged in the ſervice of Mr. Banks during his reſidence at Batavia. This man told his maſter, that ſeveral Dutchmen, and many Javaneſe, as well as himſelf, had ſeen ſuch a crocodile as was deſcribed by the girl who told the preceding ſtory, and that, like her's, its feet were adorned with gold. On Mr. Banks's remarking the abſurdity of theſe tales, and ſaying that crocodiles had not ears, he replied, that the Sudaras differed conſiderably from other crocodiles; that they had ears, though he acknowledged they were ſmall, that their tongues filled their mouths, and that on each foot they had five toes.

While Captain Cook was at Batavia, Spaniſh dollars ſold at five ſhillings and five pence each, and the price is ſeldom much lower. The Chineſe would give only the value of twenty ſhillings for an Engliſh guinea that was almoſt new, and for thoſe that were old, and much worn, only ſeventeen ſhillings.

Capt. Cook obſerves that a remarkable ſubordination prevails among the people in Batavia. Every houſekeeper has a certain ſpecific rank, according to the length of time he has ſerved the company. The different ranks thus acquired are diſtinguiſhed by the ornaments of the coaches and the dreſſes of the coachmen: ſome ride in plain coaches, ſome are allowed to paint them with different devices, and ſome to gild them. The coachmen alſo are obliged to appear in clothes quite plain, or ornamented in various manners and degrees.

The chief officer in this place has the title of governor-general of the Indies, to whom the Dutch governors of all other ſettlements are ſubordinate; and they are obliged to repair to Batavia in order to have their accounts paſſed by him. Should they appear to have been criminal, or even negligent, he detains them during pleaſure; ſometimes three years; for they cannot without his permiſſion, quit the place. The members of the council, called by the natives Edele Heeren, and by the Engliſh, Idollers, are next in rank to the governor-general. Theſe aſſume ſo much ſtate, that whoever meets them in a carriage are expected to riſe up and bow, and after this compliment they drive to one ſide of the road and ſtop, till the members of the council have paſſed: their wives and children expect alſo the ſame homage, and it is commonly paid them by the inhabitants. Some Engliſh captains have conſidered this as a ſlaviſh mark of reſpect, derogatory to their dignity as ſervants of his Britannic majeſty, and for this reaſon have refuſed to pay it: nevertheleſs, when in an hired coach nothing but a menace of immediate death could prevent the coachman from honouring the Dutch grandee, at the expence of their mortification.

With reſpect to the diſtribution of juſtice, it is adminiſtered in Batavia by the lawyers, who have peculiar ranks of diſtinction among themſelves. Their deciſions in criminal caſes ſeem to be ſevere with reſpect to the natives, but lenient in a partial degree to their own people. A chriſtian is always indulged with an opportunity of eſcaping before he is brought to trial, whatever may be his offence, and when convicted, he is ſeldom puniſhed with death. On the contrary, the poor Indians are hanged, broken upon the wheel, and even impaled alive. As to the Malays and Chineſe they have judicial officers of their own, named captains and lieutenants, who determine in civil caſes ſubject to an appeal to the Dutch tribunal. The taxes laid upon theſe people by the company are very conſiderable, among which, that exacted for liberty to wear their hair is not the leaſt. The time of payment is monthly, and to ſave the charge and trouble of collecting them, notice is given of this by hoiſting a flag upon the top of a houſe in the middle of the town, and the Chineſe find it their intereſt to repair thither when a payment is due without delay.

About 80 miles eaſt of Batavia is Cherebon, a place of conſiderable extent, and where the Dutch have a factory. The country is very fertile and produces moſt kinds of proviſions, particularly rice. The inhabitants

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are under the dominion of four great lords, called ſultans, one of whom is particularly attached to the Dutch, and for that reaſon is diſtinguiſhed from the reſt by the name of the company's ſultan.

Bantam, which was once the metropolis of a great kingdom, is the principal place of commerce at the weſtern part of this iſland. It ſtands in a plain at the foot of a mountain, from whence iſſues a river that divides itſelf into three ſtreams, one of which runs thro' the town, and the others ſurround it. It is 12 miles in circumference, and, before it was reduced by the treachery of the Dutch, (who firſt joined the natives againſt their king, and then ſtripped the latter of all legal power,) was very populous, well fortified, and adorned with ſeveral elegant buildings and palaces. At this time, however, it is a very ruinous place, inhabited only by the pooreſt people.

Palamboan, the capital of a kingdom or principality of the ſame name, is ſituated in 114 deg. eaſt longitude, and in 7 deg. 30 min. ſouth latitude, on the Straits of Bally, through which the Eaſt India ſhips ſometimes paſs when they are homeward bound from Borneo.

Mataram, an empire that once extended over the whole iſland, and even now takes up a conſiderable part of it, is under the government of the Dutch, and was the laſt reduced to ſubjection by them on this iſland. The country of Mataram is in general very fertile, and produces great quantities of rice, as alſo plenty of fruit. There are likewiſe various ſorts of animals, particularly horſes, ſheep, goats, and remarkable large oxen. The rivers abound with fiſh, and the woods produce great plenty of game. But the moſt valuable articles of this country are rice, pepper, cadjang, cotton, yarn, cardamom, and indigo; the latter of which is eſteemed to be as good in quality as any found in the Indies.

Mataram, the capital of the kingdom, is the uſual reſidence of the king. His palace is a very handſome ſpacious building, adjoining to which are many good houſes belonging to his nobles, who every day wait on him; and his ſubjects in general pay him the greateſt homage.

Though theſe princes are vaſſals, yet they are permitted to live in as great ſtate as if they were really monarchs; and the orders of the Dutch are always executed in their names. They, therefore, aſſume a dignity not inferior to the moſt deſpotic prince; and when they go abroad are attended with every diſtinguiſhed mark of royalty.

Japara is ſituated at the bottom of an eminence called the Invincible Mountain, on the top of which is a fort built of wood. It is a very conſiderable place, and has a good road, ſecured by two ſmall iſlands. The Engliſh had once a factory here, but they were driven from it by the Portugueſe.

The natives of this country are very fond of diverſions, particularly the repreſentation of comedies; and they are ſuch ſlaves to cock-fighting, that, by the large ſums they bet, they are often reduced to the moſt abject diſtreſs.

The inhabitants of Japara are chiefly Mahometans, as is alſo the chief, who generally reſides at a place called Kattaſura, where the Dutch have a fort and garriſon. This prince reigns abſolute among his ſubjects, who are very faithful, and pay him the greateſt homage. Like moſt eaſtern monarchs, he is conſtantly attended by women, and takes as many wives and concubines as he thinks proper. When his courtiers obtain an audience, they approach him with the greateſt humility.

SECTION VII.

ISLAND OF SUMATRA.

THIS moſt conſiderable of the Sunda Iſlands is ſituated in the Indian Ocean, between 93 and 104 deg. eaſt long. and 5 deg. 30 min. north lat. It is bounded on the eaſt by Borneo, on the north by Malacca, on the ſouth-eaſt by Java, and on the weſt by the Indian Ocean. It is long and narrow, reaching in a direct line from the north-weſt to the ſouth-eaſt, and is about 750 miles in length, and 175 in breadth. It is the firſt of the remarkable iſlands that form the Great Archipelago of the eaſt, the entrance of which is, as it were, blocked up by this iſland and Java, which form a barrier, ſeparating the Indian from the Chineſe Ocean; with this exception, that in the center, between the two iſlands, there is an opening, which appears as if purpoſely deſigned to admit a free paſſage for the advantage of commerce. This opening is called the Straits of Sunda, the ſouth part of which is the north of Java, and called Java Head; and the north point is the ſouth of Sumatra, called Flat Point. Theſe two are about ſix leagues aſunder, between which ſhips paſs from Europe directly to Batavia or China, without touching in the Indies. They ſtretch away eaſt from the Cape of Good Hope, and make no land till, having traverſed the whole Indian Sea, they arrive at Java Head.

The air of this iſland is in general very unwholeſome, ariſing chiefly from the two extremes of heat and cold, and the intermixture of wet from very heavy rains. The day and night are equal; and the inconveniencies that occur from the exceſſive heat of the former are greatly increaſed by the cold chilling winds of the latter.

A chain of mountains run through the whole iſland from the ſouth-eaſt to the north-weſt, and here the air is more wholeſome than on the coaſt. There are alſo conſiderable mountains on the weſt coaſt, in one of which is a volcano, that frequently throws out flames of fire.

The monſoons, or periodical winds, ſhift here at the equinoxes, as they do in other parts of the Indian Seas, blowing ſix months in one direction, and ſix months in the oppoſite direction. Near the coaſt there are other periodical winds, which blow the greateſt part of the day from the ſea, and in the night, and part of the morning, from the land; but theſe ſcarce extend ſeven miles from the coaſt.

Of the many ſmall rivers on this iſland, none are navigable; and their waters are very unwholeſome. The river Indapura, which falls into the ſea on the weſt coaſt, has a water tinged with red, occaſioned, as it is ſaid, by the great quantity of ochre that grows on its banks, which are always covered at the time of the floods. The waters of all the rivers that overflow the low countries are very foul, and not fit for uſe till they have been boiled, and infuſed with tea, or ſome other wholeſome herbs.

Pepper, rice, ſugar, camphire, gold duſt, bezoar, canes, and cotton, are the moſt valuable produce of this iſland. The ſoil is in ſome parts very fertile, and well watered with rivulets; but in the low lands, next the ſea, are abundance of bogs and marſhes, which produce only reeds and canes of bamboo.

Moſt kinds of fruits abound here, arrive to the greateſt perfection, and are equal to any found in the Indies; as cocoa-nuts, limes, oranges, mangos, plantains, guavas, jakas, durians, pine-apples, mangoſtans, and other tropical fruits. They have alſo melons, peas, beans, potatoes, yams, radiſhes, pot-herbs, ſallads, and plenty of all kinds of garden ſtuff. There is likewiſe a plant grows here called bang, which is ſomewhat like hemp, and, when infuſed in liquor, operates much like opium. This is ſometimes uſed by the natives, particularly when they are engaged in war, as it animates them to perſevere in the moſt dangerous undertakings.

The animals here are horſes, buffalos, deer, goats, hogs, oxen, and hog-deer, from the latter of which is obtained a ſpecies or kind of the bezoar ſtone. This ſtone is of a dark brown colour, and has two ſmall coats, the innermoſt of which is covered with ſmall ſtrings, but the outer coat is quite ſmooth. When the ſtone is diſſolved in any liquor, its taſte is exceeding bitter; but if a ſmall quantity of it is taken by thoſe who have an oppreſſion of the ſtomach, a foul blood, or a want of appetite, it will remove the complaints; and is alſo very

very efficacious in other diſorders incident to human nature.

There are ſeveral ſorts of wild animals in the woods and mountains, as tygers, elephants, rhinoceroſes, monkies, and wild boars. There are alſo ſquirrels, guanoes, porcupines, alligators, ſerpents, ſcorpions, muſketos, and other venomous inſects: and this is ſaid to be the only iſland in the Eaſt Indies where there are bears.

Here are ſeveral ſorts of poultry, particularly fowls and ducks; alſo pigeons, doves, parrots, parroquets, mackaws, and a great variety of ſmall birds.

The rivers abound with fiſh, amongſt which are mullets, craw-fiſh, ſhrimps, eels, oyſters, &c. and they have plenty of turtles. But ſome of the rivers are greatly peſtered with crocodiles.

Great quantities of gold are got out of the rivers and mountains on the north part of the iſland; and the trade of Achen principally depends on this valuable commodity. There are alſo mines of tin, iron, braſs, copper, &c. It has not any wheat or rye, but great quantities of barley, honey, wax, ſugar, ginger, and pepper, with which they load their veſſels every year; and they ſend their pepper and gold in exchange for rice and opium, which our merchants ſend them from Bengal and other parts.

The inhabitants on the coaſt are Mahometans; the mountaineers, or natives, are Pagans. They are in general of a moderate ſtature and very ſwarthy complexion. They have black eyes, flat faces, and high cheek bones. Their hair is long and black, and they take great pains to dye their teeth of the ſame colour. They likewiſe beſmear themſelves with oil, as in other hot countries, to prevent being ſtung by the inſects; and let their nails grow exceeding long, ſcraping them till they are tranſparent, and dying them with vermillion.

The poorer ſort have a ſmall piece of cloth faſtened round the waiſt; and about their heads they wear a piece of linen, or a cap made of leaves, reſembling the crown of a hat; but they have neither ſhoes nor ſtockings. The better ſort wear drawers or breeches, and a piece of callico or ſilk wrapped about their loins, and thrown over the left ſhoulder; and when in towns they wear ſandals on their feet.

They are very proud and revengeful: and ſo indolent, that they will neither endeavour to improve themſelves in arts, ſciences, or huſbandry; but ſuffer their manufactures to be neglected, and their lands to lie without cultivation.

Their flying proas, or ſailing veſſels are greatly admired for the neat and convenient manner in which they are conſtructed. They are very expert in building their houſes, but in all other mechanical arts they are very deficient.

Sumatra is divided into ſeveral kingdoms and principalities; but the moſt conſiderable is Achen, which comprehends the whole northern part of the iſland.

Beſides the king of Achen, who is the greateſt monarch in the iſland, there are ſeveral orancayas, or great lords, in this kingdom, who exerciſe ſovereign authority in their reſpective territories: but they all acknowledge the king of Achen their ſuperior, and accept the great offices in his court. In former times the kings have exerciſed ſuch deſpotic power as to diſplace ſome of theſe, and depoſe others; and, on the contrary, inſtances have been known where theſe princes have depoſed the king, and placed another on the throne.

The king of Achen and theſe princes have often ſtruggled for ſovereign power; and if the former has been abſolute in ſome reigns, he has had a very limited authority in others. The king has the power of diſpoſing of the crown during his life, to ſuch of his children as he thinks proper, whether born of a wife or a concubine: but if the king does not diſpoſe of it in his lifetime, there are ſometimes ſeveral competitors for it; and he who is moſt favoured by the orancayas, or vaſſal princes, uſually carries his point; and in theſe caſes the crown is elective.

The capital city of this kingdom is Achen, ſituated in 93 deg. 30 min. eaſt long. and 5 deg. 30 min. north latitude. It ſtands on a plain about five miles from the ſea, 1000 miles ſouth-eaſt of Fort St. George, in India, and about 450 miles north-weſt of the city of Malacca. The harbour, which is capable of containing any number of the largeſt ſhips, is commanded by a ſpacious fortreſs, encompaſſed with a ditch, well fortified according to the Indian manner, and mounted with cannon. There are ſeven gates belonging to the city, beſides which there are other redoubts and fortifications in the adjacent marſhes.

In Achen are about 8000 houſes, which are built on poſts two feet above the ground, on account of the great rains that ſometimes ſo overflow the city, that the inhabitants go from one houſe to another in boats. The floors and ſides are made of ſplit bamboos, and they are covered with reeds, cocoa, or palmetto leaves. They are chiefly divided by palliſadoes, except in two or three particular ſtreets ſet apart for trade, and one that is particularly inhabited by the Chineſe. The Europeans live as near each other as they can, in a long ſtreet near the river. They conſiſt of Engliſh, Dutch, Danes, and Portugueſe, who, with the Guzurats and Chineſe, are the chief traders in the city.

The king's elephants and magazines are kept in the outer courts of the palace; and at proper diſtances are ſeveral ſmall forts, well guarded and ſtored with artillery and fire-arms. But the king's greateſt ſtrength conſiſts in his elephants, which are very numerous, and ſo trained that they will ſtand unmoved at the firing of artillery. It is ſaid, that when they paſs the king's apartments they will ſalute him by bending their necks, and raiſing their trunks.

The king has alſo a great number horſes, all of which, as well as the elephants, have rich and magnificent trappings.

He is not at any expence in time of war; for, at his command, all his ſubjects are obliged to march at their own expence, and carry with them proviſions for three months. If they are in the field longer than that time, he ſupplies them with rice for their ſupport. On their going out he furniſhes them with arms, a regiſter of which is kept, and they are obliged to reſtore them at their return.

This monarch muſt be very rich, for he is at much leſs expence than any other prince in the Indies. In war he is only at the expence of arms, powder, lead, and rice, which is very trifling; and in peace it does not coſt him any thing, even for the maintenance of his family. He has more fleſh, fowl, and all kinds of proviſions, paid him by his ſubjects, than are conſumed in his palace; and the ſurplus is ſold at the market for his benefit. He divides hereditary eſtates among his ſubjects, whom he obliges to furniſh him with a certain quantity of rice every year. This he puts into his magazines, and exports to places where there is a ſcarcity of that article.

He is not at any expence either for his own cloaths, or thoſe of his concubines; for, on a certain day in the year, all who have any office or place in the city, are obliged to make him a preſent of one or more garments, according to the income of their places. If the king diſapproves of what is preſented, he returns it back; and the officer that gave it is ſure to be turned out of his place, unleſs he adjuſts the matter by complimenting him with a ſum of money.

He is heir to all his ſubjects who die without male iſſue. If they have any daughters unmarried he ſends them to the palace. He is alſo heir to all foreigners that die within his territories; for when ſuch a perſon is known to be ill, the king's officers take poſſeſſion of his houſe, and, on his death remove his effects to the caſtle. He has the eſtates of all thoſe put to death; and almoſt every day produces an inſtance of ſome innocent man's ſuffering purely to gratify his unbounded avarice. If it is a wealthy perſon in office that is pitched on, he is accuſed of mal-adminiſtration; and, to prevent

prevent their alienating their eſtates or goods, he takes them by ſurprize, and has their wives, children, ſlaves, cattle, and all their moveables lodged in the caſtle, before they know their ſentence. Such is the tyranny of this deſpotic prince!

The natives of Achen are proud, envious, and treacherous; deſpiſe their neighbours, and yet pretend to have more humanity than the inhabitants of any other nation. Some of them are good mechanics, eſpecially in building gallies; and they are very dextrous in doing all kinds of ſmith's work. They alſo work well in wood and copper; and ſome of them are ſkilled in making artillery. They live very abſtemiouſly, their chief food being rice, to which ſome of the better ſort add a ſmall quantity of fiſh, and their uſual drink is water. They are very fond of tobacco, though they have but little of their own raiſing, and, for want of pipes, they ſmoke in a bueno, which is the leaf of a tree rolled up with a little tobacco in it; this they light at one end, and draw the ſmoke through the other, till it is nearly burnt to the lips. Theſe rolls are very curiouſly formed, and great quantities of them are ſold in the public markets.

As Mahometans, agreeable to the laws of the Koran, they are permitted to marry as many women as they pleaſe; but the firſt is entitled to the preference, and the children by her are eſteemed the lawful heirs. If any diſpute ariſe between the huſband and his wives, they may ſeparate, provided they mutually requeſt it; but the ſolicitation of one only will not be ſufficient.

The rites of marriage among the Sumatrans conſiſt ſimply in joining the hands of the parties, and pronouncing them man and wife, without much ceremony, except the entertainment given upon the occaſion. But little apparent courtſhip precedes the marriages; their manners do not admit of it, the young people of each ſex being carefully kept aſunder, and the girls being ſeldom truſted from under the wings of their mothers. The opportunities which the young people have of ſeeing each other, are at the public feſtivals. On theſe occaſions the perſons who are unmarried meet together, and dance and ſing in company. The men, when determined in their choice, generally employ an old woman as their agent, by whom they make known their ſentiments, and ſend preſents to the female of their choice. The parents then interfere, and the preliminaries being ſettled, a feaſt takes place. The greater the concourſe at theſe feſtivals, the more is the credit of the hoſt, who is generally the father of the girl.

Mothers do not carry their children on the arms as our nurſes do, but ſtraddling on the hip, and uſually ſupported by a cloth, which ties in a knot on the oppoſite ſhoulder. The children are nurſed but little, not confined by any ſwathing or bandages, and being ſuffered to roll about the floor, ſoon learn to walk and ſhift for themſelves. When cradles are uſed, they ſwing ſuſpended from the ceilings of the room.

At their funerals the corpſe is carried to the place of interment on a broad plank, which is kept for the public ſervice, and laſts many generations. It is conſtantly rubbed with lime, either to prevent its decay, or keep it pure. No coffin is uſed, the body being ſimply wrapped in white cloth. In forming the grave, after digging to a convenient depth, they make a cavity in the ſide at bottom, of ſufficient dimenſions to contain the body, by which means the earth lies light upon it; and this cavity, after ſtrewing flowers in it, they ſtop up by two boards, faſtened angularly to each other; ſo that the one is on the top of the corpſe, while the other defends it on the open ſide, the edge reſting on the bottom of the grave. The outer hole is then filled up with earth, and little white flags, or ſtreamers, are ſtuck in order around. They likewiſe plant a ſhrub bearing a white flower, and in ſome places marjorum. The women, who attend the funeral, make a hideous noiſe, not unlike the Iriſh howl.

It appears from the accounts of W. Marſden, Eſq. ſecretary to the preſident and council of fort Marlbro', that the people of Batta, in the Iſland of Sumatra, eat human fleſh; not as a gluttonous delicacy, like the New Zealanders, but as a mode of ſhewing their deteſtation of crimes, and an horrid indication of revenge and inſult to their unfortunate enemies. The objects of this barbarous repaſt are priſoners taken in war, and offenders convicted and condemned for capital crimes. The unhappy object, whether priſoner of war or malefactor, is tied to a ſtake: the people aſſembled throw their lances at him from a certain diſtance, and when mortally wounded, they run up to him as if in a tranſport of paſſion, cut pieces from the body with their knives, dip them in a diſh of ſalt and lemon juice, ſlightly broil them over a fire prepared for the purpoſe, and ſwallow the morſels with a degree of ſavage enthuſiaſm. Inſtances have been known where, with barbarity ſtill aggravated, they have torn the fleſh from the carcaſe with their mouths. It is, however, but juſtice to obſerve, that though there have been inſtances of their eating the bodies of their enemies ſlain in battle, that horrid practice but rarely takes place.

Their method of deſtroying tygers is extraordinary, and worthy of notice. Torches, made of dried bamboos, are carried with a view to frighten away the tygers, which are alarmed at the appearance of fire; and for the ſame reaſon it is common to make a blaze with wood, in different parts round their villages. Theſe animals prove to the inhabitants, both in their journies, and even their domeſtic occupation, moſt fatal enemies. The number of people annually ſlain by theſe rapacious tyrants of the woods is almoſt incredible. Inſtances have been known of whole villages being depopulated by them; yet, from a ſuperſtitious prejudice, it is with difficulty the natives are prevailed on by a large reward, which the India Company offers, to uſe methods of deſtroying them, till they have ſuſtained ſome particular injury in their own family or kindred. Their traps, of which they can make variety, are very ingeniouſly contrived. Sometimes they are in the nature of ſtring cages, with falling doors, into which the beaſt is enticed by a goat or dog incloſed as a bait. Sometimes they manage that a large timber ſhall fall in a groove acroſs his back. Sometimes he is nooſed about the loins with ſtrong rattans. Sometimes he is led to aſcend a plank nearly balanced, which, turning when he is paſt the center, lets him fall upon ſharp ſtakes prepared below.

The ſize and ſtrength of the ſpecies which infeſt this iſland are prodigious. They are ſaid to break with a ſtroke of their fore paw the leg of a horſe or a buffalo; and the largeſt prey they kill is, without difficulty, dragged by them into the woods. This they uſually perform the ſecond night, being ſuppoſed on the firſt to gratify themſelves with ſucking the blood only. Time is, by this delay, afforded to prepare for their deſtruction; and to the methods already enumerated, may be added that of placing a veſſel of water, ſtrongly impregnated with arſenic, near the carcaſe, which is faſtened to a tree, to prevent its being carried off. The tyger having ſatiated himſelf with the fleſh, is prompted to aſſuage his thirſt with the tempting liquor at hand, and periſhes in the indulgence. Their chief ſubſiſtence is, moſt probably, the unfortunate monkies, with which the woods abound. They are deſcribed as alluring them to their fate by a faſcinating power ſimilar to what has been ſuppoſed of the ſnake, the alligator, and the crocodile.

In this iſland every old man and woman is a phyſician, their rewards depending on their ſucceſs. The mode of practice is either by adminiſtering the juices of certain trees and herbs inwardly, or by applying outwardly a poultice of leaves, chopped ſmall, upon the breaſt, or part affected, renewing it as ſoon as it becomes dry. For internal pains they rub oil on a large leaf, of a ſtimulant quality, and heating it before the fire, clap it on the body of the patient as a bliſter, which produces very powerful effects. They never uſe bleeding. The ſmall-pox ſometimes viſits the iſland, and makes terrible ravages. It is looked upon as a plague, and

drives from the country thouſands, whom the infection ſpares. Their method of ſtopping its progreſs (for they do not attempt a cure) is by converting into an hoſpital, or receptacle for the reſt, that village where lie the greateſt number of ſick, whither they ſend all who are attacked by the diſorder from the country round. The moſt effectual methods are purſued to prevent any perſon eſcaping from the village, which is burnt to the ground, as ſoon as the infection has ſpent itſelf, or devoured all the victims thus offered to it. Inoculation ſeems to be an idea not thought of. The venereal diſeaſe, though common in the Malay country, is, in this iſland, almoſt unknown. A man returning to his village with the infection is ſhunned by the inhabitants as an unclean and interdicted perſon. The Malayans cure it with a decoction of a China root, called by them gadoong, which cauſes a ſalivation.

Robberies and murders are more frequent here than in any other part of the Indies, notwithſtanding the laws are of the moſt ſevere nature. All offenders are brought to a ſpeedy trial, and the puniſhment is inflicted immediately after their conviction. If the offence be of a trifling nature, the puniſhment, for the firſt time, is the loſs only of a hand or foot, and the ſame for the ſecond; but for the third, or if they rob to a conſiderable amount, they are impaled alive. When the hand or foot is to be cut off, the limb is laid on the edge of a broad hatchet, and the executioner ſtrikes it with a large mallet till the amputation is perfected; and then they put the ſtump into a hollow bamboo ſtuffed with rags or moſs, to prevent the criminal from dying by the loſs of blood. After he has thus ſuffered, whether by the king's command, or the ſentence of the judge, all the ignominy of his crime is wiped off; and if any one upbraids him with it, he may kill him with impunity. Murder and adultery are puniſhed with death; and, in this caſe, the criminal has many executioners, he being placed amidſt a number of people, who ſtab him with their daggers: but female offenders are put to death by ſtrangling. The king is frequently a ſpectator of theſe puniſhments, and ſometimes acts himſelf as executioner: and though ſuch a ſpectacle muſt, to a feeling mind, appear of the moſt horrid nature, yet ſo little does he ſeem to be affected by it, that inſtances have been known of his executing a criminal, and immediately going to entertain himſelf with cock-fighting, a diverſion more univerſally eſteemed than any other in the country. A gentleman, lately arrived from this part of the world, has favoured us with the following particulars relative to that amuſement. The cock-pit (if the expreſſion may be uſed) is a ſpot on the level ground, on a ſtage erected and covered in. It is encloſed with a railing, which keeps off the ſpectators, none but the handlers and heelers being admitted within ſide. A man who has a high opinion of, and regard for his cock will not fight him under a certain number of dollars, which he places in order on the floor. His poorer adverſary is perhaps unable to depoſit one half: the ſtanders by make up the ſum, and receive their dividends in proportion, if ſucceſsful. A father on his death-bed has been known to deſire his ſon to take the firſt opportunity of matching a cock for a ſum equal to his whole property, upon a blind conviction of its being invulnerable. Cocks of the ſame colour are never matched, but a grey againſt a pile, a yellow againſt a red, and the like. Great pains are taken in rearing and feeding. Contrary to our laws, the owner is allowed to take up and handle his cock during the battle, to clear his eye of a feather, or his mouth of blood. The cocks are never trimmed, but matched in full feather. The artificial ſpur uſed in Sumatra reſembles the blade of a ſcymetar in ſhape, and proves a more deſtructive weapon than the European ſpur. It has no ſocket, but is tied to the leg, and in the poſition of it, the nicety of the match is regulated. As in horſe-racing weight is proportioned to inches, ſo in cocking a bird of ſuperior weight and ſize is brought to an equality with his adverſary, by fixing the ſteel ſpur ſo many ſcales of the leg above the natural ſpur, and thus obliging him to fight with a degree of diſadvantage. It rarely happens that both cocks ſurvive the combat.

Having thus noticed the particulars relative to the kingdom and city of Achen, we ſhall now point out the other places that are diſtinguiſhed in this iſland, beginning with thoſe on the weſtern coaſt. The firſt of theſe is Bencoolen, a ſettlement belonging to the Engliſh, but chiefly inhabited by people of other nations. This town is ſituated in 103 deg. eaſt longitude, and 3 deg. 10 min. ſouth latitude. The adjacent country is mountainous and woody; and in ſome parts are volcanos that frequently iſſue out fire. The air is very unwholeſome, and the mountains are generally covered with thick clouds, that burſt in ſtorms of thunder, rain, &c. The ſoil is a fertile clay, and the chief produce is graſs; but near the ſea it is all a moraſs. The natives build their houſes on bamboo pillars as at Achen, but the Engliſh build theirs with timber, not only from their being in want of ſtone, but on account of earthquakes, which very frequently happen in this part of the iſland.

There is a ſmall river on the north-weſt ſide of the town, by which the pepper is brought here from the inland part of the country; but there is a great inconvenience in ſhipping it, on account of a dangerous bar at the mouth of the river. The road is alſo dangerous for ſhips, as it has no other defence from the violence of the ſea during the ſouth-weſt monſoons, than a ſmall place named Rat Iſland, which, with the land of Point Sillabar, makes the haven. The town is about two miles in circumference, and is known at ſea by a very high ſlender mountain, called the Sugar Loaf, which riſes in the country twenty nine miles beyond the town.

A few years after the Engliſh firſt ſettled on this iſland, which was about the year 1685, the Eaſt India Company built a fort, and called it Fort York. In 1690 a contagious diſtemper raged with ſuch violence that the governor and council all died in a very ſhort ſpace of time, which was attributed to the town being ſituated on ſo unwholeſome a ſpot as not to be borne by an European conſtitution. In conſequence of this calamity, the Engliſh, in 1719, began to build a new fort in a more healthy part, and better adapted for regular fortifications; but they had no ſooner raiſed the walls of it, than the natives, who had a long time been at enmity with them, attacked the place, and ſet fire to the principal part of their buildings; on which the governor, with his ſmall garriſon, precipitately embarked for Batavia, leaving behind them ſeveral cheſts of money, and all the artillery, arms, ammunition, &c. The natives, however, finding themſelves greatly injured by the abſence of the Engliſh, and not having any method of diſpoſing of their pepper, in a ſhort time after invited them to return, and again take poſſeſſion of their new ſettlement. This invitation being accepted, the fort they had begun was ſoon completed, under the name of Marlborough Fort; and they have been in quiet poſſeſſion of the place from that time to the preſent.

Sillebar is an Engliſh ſettlement, ſituated about 15 miles from Bencoolen, where they conſtantly keep a detachment from Marlborough Fort. The town is tolerably large, and before it is a covenient harbour; but it has not any building, or other matter, that demands particular attention.

They have alſo other ſettlements to the north-weſt of the above, particularly at Cattoun, ſituated about 40 miles from Bencoolen; Ippo, about 30 miles farther to the north; Bantall, which is upwards of 100 miles north of Bencoolen; and Mocha, ſituated a little to the ſouth of Indrapour.

The Dutch have likewiſe ſeveral good ſettlements on this iſland, the moſt conſiderable of which is Palimvang, or Pullambam, ſituated about 120 miles north-eaſt of Bencoolen. The chief article of trade here is pepper, of which the Dutch have prodigious quantities.

The Dutch factories here are,

Bancalis,

Bancalis, ſituated nearly oppoſite to Malacca, on the banks of a ſpacious river of its own name. The chief articles ſold by the company here are cloth and opium, in return for which they receive gold duſt.

Siack is ſituated on the river Andraghina, but is an inconſiderable place, on account of the unwholeſomeneſs of the air.

Padang is ſituated about 60 miles ſouth of the equator, and has a fine river, where large ſhips may come up, and ride in ſafety; but it is the moſt inſignificant ſettlement the Dutch have on this iſland.

Priaman, ſituated nearly oppoſite to Padang, about 100 miles north-weſt of Indrapour. It is very populous, and plentifully ſupplied with moſt kinds of proviſions. The natives carry on a conſiderable trade in gold with the inhabitants of Manimcabo. The Dutch had a factory here for ſome years, but were at length driven from it by the king of Achen.

Ticow is ſituated about ſeven leagues from Daſſaman, in 20 deg. ſouth lat. The inland part of the country is very high, but that next the ſea is low, covered with woods, and watered with ſeveral ſmall rivers, which render it marſhy. There are, however, many pleaſant meadows well ſtocked with buffalos and oxen, which are purchaſed at a very eaſy price. It likewiſe affords plenty of rice, poultry, and ſeveral ſorts of fruits, as durians, ananas, oranges, citrons, pomegranates, melons, mangos, cucumbers, and potatoes. But its moſt valuable produce is pepper, with which it abounds, and is in quality eſteemed ſuperior to that of any other place on the iſland; for which reaſon thoſe parts are exceeding populous. The city is ſituated about two miles from the ſea, oppoſite to a ſmall iſland. It is but a mean place, for the city and ſuburbs do not contain 800 houſes, which are chiefly built with reeds, and are neither ſtrong or convenient.

Barros, one of the moſt conſiderable places on the weſt coaſt belonging to the king of Achen, is ſituated on a fine river near about the center between Ticow and Achen. The Dutch and Engliſh, as alſo the inhabitants of the coaſt, buy up the camphire here, in order to carry it to Surat, and the Streights of Sunda.

Andrigi is a ſmall province, but is remarkable for producing great quantities of pepper; and gold is cheaper here than in any other part of the iſland.

Jambay alſo produces great quantities of pepper, which is ſaid to be much ſuperior in quality to that of Andigri.

Pedir is a large territory ſituated about 30 miles from Achen, and has the advantage of an excellent river. The ſoil is very fertile, and the country produces ſuch quantities of rice, that it is called the granary of Achen.

Paſſaman is a large place ſituated at the foot of a very high mountain, but is remarkable only for producing pepper.

There are ſeveral iſlands belonging to that of Sumatra, among which is one called by the inhabitants Pulo Lanchakay, and by the natives of Achen, Pulo Lada, or Iſland of Pepper, from its producing ſuch a prodigious abundance of that article.

Lingen iſland is ſituated about 60 miles north-eaſt of Jamby, and about the ſame diſtance to the ſouth-eaſt of Johore. It is 50 miles in length and 10 in breadth: the interior part of it is very mountainous, but that next the ſea lies low, and is very fertile. It produces pepper and canes, and in ſome parts of it are great numbers of porcupines.

Banca Iſland is large, being at leaſt 150 miles in length, and about 20 in breadth. The natives, like moſt of the Malayans, are treacherous, and very inhoſpitable to ſuch ſtrangers as unfortunately happen to be ſhipwrecked on the coaſt. At the mouth of the Streights of Banca is Lucipara, a ſmall iſland, but ſo barren that it has but few inhabitants, and only produces a ſmall quantity of pepper.

There are ſeveral other ſmall iſlands belonging to Sumatra, ſome of which are uninhabited, and the reſt ſo trifling as not to admit of deſcription.

SECTION VIII.

THE MOLUCCAS, or SPICE ISLANDS.

THESE iſlands are called Moluccas from the word Moloc, ſignifying *head*, and referring to their ſituation at the head or entrance of the Archipelago of St. Lazarus. They are denominated Spice Iſlands, from their abounding in ſpices, particularly nutmegs and cloves, which grow in no other countries in the known world. They lie between 5 deg. north, and 7 deg. ſouth lat. and from 121 to 130 deg. eaſt long.

The principal of theſe iſlands are the following, viz. Banda, Pulloway, Pulorin, Nera, Gumanpi, and Guliaien, all of which produce nutmegs, and are diſtinguiſhed under the name of the Banda Iſlands. Ternate, Tidore or Tidor, Motir, Machian, Bachian, Amboyna, Buoro, Ceram, Gilolo and Bouton, moſtly produce cloves, &c.

Theſe ſpices of theſe iſlands were known to the Europeans long before the paſſage to the Eaſt Indies by the way of the Cape of Good Hope had been found out, being brought to the Mediterranean by the way of the Red Sea, or ſometimes through Perſia and Turkey. But the Portugueſe diſcovering the before-mentioned paſſage, and penetrating to theſe iſlands in 1511, the emperor Charles V. claimed them as his own; but the Portugueſe would not give them up: they were, however, driven out by the Dutch, who are at preſent in poſſeſſion of them, and deſtroy great quantities of the ſpices annually, in order to keep up the price, and not glut the markets.

The nutmeg reſembles a peach, and the clove a laurel-tree, only the leaves are ſmaller than either: the fruit of the former is both nutmeg and mace, the nutmeg being the kernel, and the mace a kind of leaf that incloſes the nutmeg-ſhell, and the whole is contained in a large coat like that of a walnut: but the cloves appear in cluſters; the bloſſom changes gradually from white to green, red and brown, which latter is the characteriſtic of its ripeneſs; but when it is dried in the ſun it receives a blackiſh hue. The clove is gathered from September to February, and the nutmeg in April, Auguſt and December. The April crop is, however, deemed the beſt; and the nutmegs, when gathered, are boiled in lime to prevent their being worm-eaten.

The Banda Iſlands, or thoſe which produce the nutmegs, lie near each other. Banda, the principal of them, is about 20 miles long and 10 broad. Beſides the large foreſts of nutmeg and clove trees, which grow ſpontaneouſly, and require not the leaſt trouble, the ſoil is fertile in a variety of delicious fruits. The iſland is in the ſhape of a creſcent, and the concavity of it forms an excellant bay, near which ſtands the principal town. Several brooks which flow from a ſmall mountain water the whole country, and render it exceeding pleaſant.

The natives are ſtrong in their perſons, diſagreeable in their features, malicious in their tempers, and melancholy in their diſpoſitions. The Dutch ſay,

> They are ugly and ſtrong,
> And bear malice long.

The Iſland of Banda is divided into three diſtricts: the religions are Mahometaniſm and Paganiſm. The natives have ſhips of ſome force, containing a few cannon in each, and uſe bucklers, back and breaſt-plates as defenſive, and carbines, darts, lances, ſcymeters, &c. as offenſive weapons. The men are very idle, and oblige the women not only to do all the domeſtic drudgery, but to cultivate the land. They have three harveſts in the year, but make fruit a principal part of their diet.

The Dutch have a fort at the weſtern part of the iſland, erected upon the top of a mountain, and aſcended to by 324 ſtone ſteps. At the foot of the mountain

mountain ſtands a negro town, the principal factory of the Dutch being at Nera, which is well fortified, as are all the landing places in the iſland; and the whole are under the direction and ſuperintendance of a governor and council.

The imports into this and the other Banda iſlands are gold chains, gold coins, enamelled and damaſked ſword blades, ſilver cups gilt, guns, China ware; broad cloth, velvets, damaſks, flannels, rice, &c. The exports are ſpices and fruits.

Nothing can be ſaid of the other Little Banda iſlands, but what is included in the above general deſcription of Banda.

Ternate is not above 24 miles in circumference; but though inferior in ſize to ſome of the other Moluccas, it is deemed the principal both by the Dutch and natives, as the Dutch make it the head ſeat of their government, and the chief prince of theſe iſlands the place of his reſidence.

This iſland produces cloves in great abundance, admirable almonds, delicious fruits, a few goats, and ſome poultry, but not rice or any other grain; for the exceſſive heat which is requiſite to ripen ſpices, and meliorate fruit, parches the earth ſo as to render it incapable of bearing wheat, barley, or rice: for here the ſun is ſeen in all his ſplendor and power, and his influence is ſo greatly felt, that his rays penetrate thro' the pores of the earth, and warm the ſoil to a conſiderable depth beneath the ſurface:

For like a giant ſtrong, or bridegroom gay,
The ſun ſprings dancing thro' the gates of day;
He ſhakes his dewy locks, and hurls his beams
O'er the proud hills, and warms the eaſtern ſtreams:
His fiery courſers bound above the main,
And whirl the car along the ethereal plain;
The fiery courſers and the car diſplay
A ſtream of glory, and a flood of day.

The natives have a ſubſtitute for bread, which makes the moſt wholeſome and exquiſite cakes in the univerſe, that is, the pith of a tree called Sago, whoſe ſalubrious qualities are well known in Europe. This excellent tree is not only of utility with reſpect to its medicinal virtues, and for yielding them bread, but it affords them likewiſe drink, cloathing and ſhelter; for by inciſion, a liquor is drawn from it that exceeds moſt wines; the leaves being a kind of cotton, the ſmaller are converted into garments, and the larger uſed to thatch their houſes. This bread contributes to the longevity of the natives, moſt of whom live to an hundred years of age.

All the Moluccas are ſubject to a king, who receives tribute from every one of the iſlands. The natives ſtruggled againſt the encroachments of foreigners many years, but were totally ſubdued by the Dutch in 1680; and the latter have at preſent ſo many forts, and ſuch ſtrong garriſons, that the former do not entertain the leaſt idea of driving them from their country.

The houſes in general are built of cane; ſome few of the better ſort, indeed, have wooden houſes. With reſpect to their furniture, a mat ſerves them inſtead of a bed, chair and table; for they lie on it, eat and drink on it, and ſit on it. This, and a pot to dreſs their victuals, a hatchet to cut their wood, and a calibaſh to hold their water, make the whole catalogue of their houſhold utenſils: their windows are not glazed, nor are their doors ſecured by locks. They wear ſilk or callico, and all perſons make their own garments, the king and grandees excepted. Their fuel is odoriferous woods, and even their ſmiths uſe nothing in their forges but almond ſhells. The king reſides at Malaya, a little town fortified with a mud wall; but the ſuburbs, in which the Dutch factory have a fine garden, is pretty large and well inhabited by blacks. The palace is but a trivial building, but the gardens belonging to it are very pleaſant, and contain an aviary filled with a great variety of beautiful birds, whoſe harmonious notes are delightful to the ear.

The waters in this iſland are remarkably clear, and the fiſh very delicious.

Ternate produces parrots, which are handſomer and ſpeak more diſtinctly than thoſe of the Weſt Indies, but the moſt remarkable of the feathered race in this iſland is the bird of paradiſe, which is juſtly deemed the moſt beautiful bird in the univerſe. The head is like that of a ſwallow, but the bill conſiderably longer; the body is ſmall, but the plumage diſplays ſuch admirable colours, as are inconceivably pleaſing to behold.

There is a volcano in this iſland, which caſts out a ſulphurous fire three months in the year, and ſometimes does great miſchief. We have the following recent account of its dreadful devaſtations, in a letter from a merchant at Batavia, dated Oct. 18, 1776.

"On the 4th of June 1775, there were more than 100 ſhocks of earthquakes felt here, ſome of which were ſo violent that they ſeemed to threaten the deſtruction of the whole iſland. About the 20th of Auguſt they were felt again, and the burning mountain, after a dreadful exploſion, threw out hot ſtones, cinders, and lava in abundance; and on the 5th of November the earth was never ſtill for three hours; the mountain ſeemed all on fire, and the moſt dreadful ſtorm of thunder and lightning fell in every part of the iſland, which threw the inhabitants into ſuch a conſternation, that they ran from one part to another for ſhelter, but none was to be found: the ſea was ſo dreadfully boiſterous, that deſtruction was there inevitable; and on the land the earth opened and trembled under them, as if the whole iſland was going to be annihilated; but by the providence of the Almighty a calm was reſtored, and the inhabitants had time to ſee what damage had been done, when it appeared that the Dutch ſettlement had ſuffered but little; but it will be ſome years before the iſlanders recover their loſs. The king has made a report, that a large track of land on the north ſide of the iſland, in the diſtrict of Xulla Tacory, has been ſwallowed up, by which 16 plantations have been totally deſtroyed, and 141 perſons either burnt, or drowned in the ſea, where many of them took refuge in their boats. This report has been confirmed by about 30 of the unfortunate inhabitants, who are rendered dreadful objects by wounds and burns in this ſhocking event. On the 5th and 6th of November the earthquakes, and effuſions of fire, ſtone and ſulphurous ſmoak from the mountains began as bad as ever, but no lives were loſt. The horrors of this night are not to be deſcribed, for the thunder, lightning, and moſt ſhocking earthquakes continued without interruption for 12 hours, with the moſt terrible violence: from this dreadful night there were no more earthquakes till July 1, 1776, when they were again felt for two hours, but not violent."

The iſlands of Tidor, Motir, Machian and Bachian are remarkable only for producing nutmegs and cloves.

Amboyna, which is better than 70 miles to the northward of Banda, is about 72 miles in circumference, and lies in 3 deg. 8 min. ſouth lat. and 127 deg. 10 min. eaſt long. It contains at preſent above 50 proteſtant churches, and many of the natives, who have been ſent over to Holland for education, officiate as clergymen and miſſionaries, by which means proſelytes are exceeding numerous. The ſoil is very fertile, producing in abundance nutmegs, cloves, oranges, lemons, citrons, potatoes, millet, tobacco, ſugar, bamboos, &c. but the air is unwholeſome: there is a good bay, which penetrates very far into the land, and by that means forms a commodious harbour. The people extract a ſpirituous liquor, and a kind of oil from green cloves, which are both good in paralytic caſes. The men wear only a piece of cloth about their waiſts, and are mighty proud of having large whiſkers. They purchaſe their wives, but, in caſe of barrenneſs, divorce them. The women are both of a looſe and of a malicious diſpoſition. On account of the earthquakes the houſes are all built very low. The ſtrong and important fortreſs called Fort Victory, is the ſtaple of the Dutch Eaſt India Company in thoſe parts. It is defended

fended by four bulwarks, a broad ditch, and a garriſon of 800 men. The Engliſh had formerly factories here as well as the Dutch; but, in 1623, the latter maſſacred the former, and uſurped the dominion of the Spice Iſlands, which had been ceded to the Engliſh by the natives themſelves. In putting the Engliſh and ſome Japaneſe to death, they uſed the moſt horrid cruelties, in order to extort confeſſions concerning a pretended plot, which they accuſed them of having formed: and, to the ſhame of King James I. and King Charles I. no ſatisfaction was obtained for the villainous barbarity. Oliver Cromwell was not, however, ſo eaſy about the matter; for he frightened the Dutch into the payment of 300,000l. as ſome kind of retribution. There are ſeveral populous villages in the iſland, in the churches and chapels of which religious ſervice is performed both in the Dutch and Malayan tongues. It contains likewiſe many mountains, with ſprings of excellent water.

Bouro, in 2 deg. 30 min. ſouth lat. and 125 deg. 30 min. eaſt long. is about 75 miles in length, and 30 in breadth. The Dutch have a ſtrong fort here; though the iſland is perfectly ſecure, from the ſingularity of its coaſt, which riſes in a high ridge, and encompaſſes the whole as with a wall. It contains ſome prodigious high mountains, but is, nevertheleſs, very fertile, producing cloves, nutmegs, cocoa-trees, bananas, piany, green ebony, beans, peas, potatoes, tobacco, Indian wheat, lime-trees, herbs, flowers, &c. Among the beaſts are the civet-cat, and a ſingular kind of roe-buck, whoſe fleſh is very delicate. The natives are black, and go entirely naked till they are twelve years of age, at which period they tie a piece of cloth round their waiſts, and never wear any other garment. They are Mahometans and Pagans, but, upon the whole, have very little ſenſe of religion. When a relation dies, they appear very ſad till the corpſe is in the ground, and then they ſeem merry to an exceſs; but do not forget to make a kind of ſepulchre of ſtone and clay, to cover the grave of the defunct. The next day after the women are delivered of children in this iſland, they go about their ordinary work, while the men indulge themſelves in bed, and pretend to be vaſtly ill. Inſtead of a cradle, they put their infants in a kind of net-work hammock, which they hang upon a peg whenever they are too buſy to dandle it in their arms.

Ceram is in 2 deg. 30 min. ſouth lat. and in 127 deg. eaſt long. and produces cloves and nutmegs, but is woody and mountainous. The Dutch factory, called Ambay, is defended by a ſtrong fort and good garriſon. The inhabitants, who are Pagans and Mahometans, own the king of Ternate as their ſovereign, though they have a prince of their own who dwells at Cambello.

Gilolo extends from 1 deg. ſouth, to 2 deg. north latitude; and from 125 to 128 deg. eaſt longitude; and is 190 miles long, and 110 broad. The air is unhealthy, and the ſoil produces rice and ſago, but no ſpices. The inhabitants are ſtrong and tall, but barbarous and cruel, and have an independent ſovereign of their own.

Bouton lies between 4 and 5 deg. ſouth lat. and in 121 deg. 30 min. eaſt longitude. It is 75 miles in length, and 30 in breadth. It has a good harbour, and contains a large town with tolerable houſes, built in the manner of thoſe of Mindano. This town is encloſed by a ſtone wall, and ſurrounded by groves of cocoa-trees. The natives are governed by a prince of their own, ſpeak the Maylayan language, and profeſs the Mahometan religion.

SECTION IX.

Islands adjoining to Java, with the Island of TIMOR.

SEVERAL iſlands border on the coaſt of Java, where the European veſſels, in their voyages to Borneo, meet with refreſhments at a much eaſier rate than at Batavia. The Dutch have forts in moſt of theſe iſlands, and the inhabitants are ſubject to their government.

Oppoſite the eaſtermoſt point of Java is the Iſland of Mandura, the moſt valuable produce of which, for foreign markets, are deer ſkins. Its principal town is Araba, ſituated near a deep bay, about eight leagues from the weſtermoſt land of Java. The ſoil of this iſland is very fertile, and produces ſeveral ſorts of grain, particularly rice; alſo various kinds of the moſt delicious fruits. The chief animals are buffalos, horſes, ſheep, and oxen, the latter of which are remarkably large, and the fleſh little inferior to thoſe of Europe. The buildings of the inhabitants, and their maxims and cuſtoms, are much the ſame as in other Indian nations; but they are divided in their religion, ſome of them being Mahometans, and others Pagans. The men are in general very robuſt and couragious, for which reaſon they are called upon by the Dutch, when occaſion requires, to recruit their forces at Batavia, or ſuch other of their ſettlements, where there is any deficiency in the fixed number of their troops.

Bally, an iſland, by ſome called Leſſer Java, is ſituated to the eaſt of Java, from which it is divided on the weſt by the Straits of Bally. It is ſmall, but produces a great plenty of all kinds of proviſions; and the natives are very ſtrong and bold. The ſtraits are narrow and dangerous; and it is with great difficulty that a paſſage can be made from Mandura to this iſland, owing to the violence of the winds, that blow from the ſouth once in 24 hours.

To the eaſt of Bally is the Iſland of Lambock, which is alſo very ſmall, but produces every neceſſary article for the enjoyment of the inhabitants, though not any particular one for foreign markets.

Near Lambock are the Straits of Allaſs, ſo called from a town of that name on the ſhore, oppoſite to which lies the Iſland of Combava. This is a much larger iſland than either of the former two, notwithſtanding which it does not produce any particular article for exportation.

There are two ſmall iſlands to the eaſt of Combava called Sappi, but they are not of any account in commerce. Adjoining to theſe is the Iſland of Flores, which is tolerably large, being 150 miles in length, and upwards of 50 in breadth. At the weſt end of this iſland is a town called Larrentoucka, the inhabitants of which are diſtinguiſhed for the infamous practice of poiſoning ſtrangers.

At a ſmall diſtance from Flores is the Iſland of Solor, where the Dutch have a factory; and to the eaſt of this lie the Iſlands of Leolano, Panterra, and Miſomby, all of which are only remarkable for producing a ſmall quantity of ſandal wood, and ſome caſſia-lignea.

Timor lies about 50 miles from the three laſt mentioned. It extends almoſt north-eaſt and ſouth-weſt, and is ſituated betwixt 124 and 128 deg. of eaſt long. and the middle of it is in 9 deg. of ſouth latitude. It is upwards of 200 miles in length, and more than 50 in breadth, and is divided into ſeveral principalities or kingdoms. It has not any navigable rivers or harbours, but there are ſeveral bays, where ſhips may ride, at ſome ſeaſons of the year, with the greateſt ſafety, as the ſhore is good, and free either from rocks or ſhoals. The Dutch and Portugueſe have both factories on this iſland, but the latter is the moſt conſiderable.

This iſland is very fertile, and produces a variety of valuable articles, particularly cocoa-nuts, which grow here in great abundance. There are alſo ſeveral ſorts of trees that make excellent timber for ſhip building; and in ſome parts of the iſland are ſandal wood and cotton-trees. They have likewiſe many kinds of fruit, as pine-apples, mangos, jakas, plaintains, pomegranates, oranges, lemons, limes, and wild tamarinds.

The animals here are oxen, horſes, goats, ſheep, buffalos, wild boars, and different kinds of monkies. There are alſo great number of lizards, ſcorpions, and ſerpents of various ſorts, ſome of which are exceeding large, and much dreaded by the natives.

They have alſo different ſorts of poultry, among which are ducks and geeſe; and the ſeas and rivers produce great plenty of fiſh.

The natives are of a low ſtature, and very ſwarthy in complexion; but they are ſtrait, and their limbs rather delicately conſtructed. Their dreſs conſiſts only of a ſmall piece of cloth tied round the waiſt, and on their heads they wear a cap or bonnet made of palmetto leaves. The better ſort decorate their heads with a kind of coronet made of thin plates of ſilver or gold, ſcolloped or indented on the edges, and the inſide of it is curiouſly ornamented with feathers of various colours.

Hunting and fiſhing are their uſual employments, in the former of which they are very expert. Their weapons are ſwords, darts, and lances, and with theſe they go into the woods in purſuit of buffalos, which they run down, and then kill them with their darts.

Land is of little value here; for the natives in general, are too indolent to be at the trouble of cultivating it; but thoſe who do are rewarded by the land becoming their own property.

They know little of arts or ſciences, and are very poor mechanics, their principal ingenuity conſiſting only in building, the implements and materials for which they receive from the Chineſe, who alſo bring them rice, tea, iron, porcelain, and raw and wrought ſilk; in exchange for which they take bees-wax and ſandal-wood.

The Malayan, and a corruption of the Portugueſe, are the moſt general languages uſed by the inhabitants of this iſland; but the natives have a language of their own. It is ſaid, thoſe who are independent of the Dutch and Portugueſe, have a peculiar enmity to European ſtrangers, and that when any land on the coaſt, if they have an opportunity, they will not heſitate to murder them.

The fort belonging to the Dutch here is called Concordia, ſituated on a rock near the ſea, between two and three miles from the ſouth-eaſt point of the iſland. It is a plain building, and poorly fortified; but the natives are ſo well affected to them, that they are not under any apprehenſion of danger.

The Portugueſe have a ſettlement on this iſland which is called Laphao, and ſituated by the ſea ſide, about three leagues to the eaſt of the Dutch fort. It is a very ſmall place, containing only a few mean houſes, and a church made of boards, covered with palmetto leaves. There is, indeed, a kind of platform here, on which are ſix iron guns; but the whole are ſo much decayed, as to be rendered almoſt uſeleſs. The people in general, ſpeak the Portugueſe language; and the natives have been ſo intermixed with the Portugueſe by marriages, that it is difficult to know one from the other. They are very fond of being called Portugueſe, and moſt of them profeſs the Roman Catholic religion: but in other parts of the iſland they are either Mahometans or Pagans. Some trade is carried on at this place by the Chineſe, who come here annually with their junks, and take the commodities of this country in exchange for thoſe of their own. But the place where the greateſt trade is carried on is Porta Nova, ſituated at the eaſt end of the iſland, and where the Portugueſe governor uſually reſides. This town, with that of Concordia, belonging to the Dutch, were ſome years ago attacked by a pyrate, who plundered, and then deſtroyed ſeveral of the buildings.

Among theſe iſlands is an important one called Savu, ſituated in 10 deg. 35 min. ſouth lat. and 237 deg. 30 min. weſt long. *Captain Cook*, who touched at it in his voyage in the Endeavour, in 1770, obſerves, that it had before been very little known, or very imperfectly deſcribed. The following account, therefore, as taken from the journal of that celebrated navigator, to which we are happy in referring on every poſſible occaſion, we preſume will be acceptable to our readers. At the time the Endeavour lay there it was near the end of the dry ſeaſon, when it had not rained for almoſt ſeven months, nor was there a running ſtream of freſh water to be ſeen, and the natives were ſupplied only by ſmall ſprings, ſituated at a diſtance up the country. The rains in this country ceaſe in March or April, and fall again in November; and theſe rains produce abundance of indigo, millet, and maize, which grow beneath the nobleſt trees in the univerſe.

Beſides theſe articles, the iſland produces tobacco, cotton, betel, tamarinds, limes, oranges, mangos, Guinea corn, rice, callevances, and water melons. A trifling quantity of cinnamon was ſeen, and ſome European herbs, ſuch as garlic, fennel, celery, and marjoram. Beſides which, there are fruits of various kinds, and particulaaly the blimbi, which has a ſharp taſte, and is ſaid to be a fine pickle, but it is not eaten raw.

Several buffalos were ſeen on this iſland, which were almoſt as large as an ox; and from a pair of enormous horns of this animal which Mr. Banks ſaw, it was conjectured that ſome of them were much larger; yet they did not weigh more than half as much as an ox of the ſame apparent ſize, having loſt the greater part of their fleſh through the late dry weather: the meat, however, was juicy, and of a delicate flavour. The horns of theſe animals bend backwards: they have no dewlaps, nor ſcarce any hair on their ſkins, and their ears are remarkably large. The other tame animals on the iſland are dogs, cats, pigeons, fowls, hogs, goats, ſheep, aſſes, and horſes.

Few of the horſes are above twelve hands high, yet they are full of mettle, and pace naturally in an expeditious manner; the natives ride them with a halter only. The ſheep are not unlike a goat, and are therefore called cabritos. The ſea-coaſt furniſhes the inhabitants with turtle, but not in any great abundance.

The natives of the iſland of Savu are rather below the middle ſtature: their hair is black and ſtrait; and perſons of all ranks, as well thoſe that are expoſed to the weather, as thoſe that are not, have one general complexion, which is dark brown. The men are well formed and ſprightly, and their features differ much from each other. The women, on the contrary, have all one ſet of features, and are very ſhort and broad built.

The men have ſilver pincers hanging by ſtrings round their necks, with which they pluck out the hair of their beards: and both men and women root out the hair that grows under the arms.

The dreſs of the men conſiſts of two pieces of cotton cloth, one of which is bound round the middle, and the lower edge of it being drawn pretty tight between the legs, the upper edge is left looſe, ſo as to form a kind of pocket, in which they carry their knives and other things: the other piece being paſſed under the former, on the back of the wearer, the ends of it are carried over the ſhoulders, and tucked into the pocket before. The women draw the upper edge of the piece round the waiſt tight, while the lower edge, dropping to the knees, makes a kind of a petticoat: the other piece of cloth is faſtened acroſs the breaſt, and under the arms. This cloth, which is manufactured by the natives, is dyed blue while in the yarn; and, as it is of various ſhades, its look, when it comes to be worn, is very beautiful.

The ornaments of the natives of Savu are very numerous, and conſiſt of rings, beads worn round the neck and on the wriſts, and chains of plaited gold wire, likewiſe hung round the neck. Theſe things are worn by both ſexes; but the women have alſo girdles of beads round their waiſts, which help to keep up the petticoat.

The houſes on the Iſland of Savu are of different lengths, from 20 feet to 400, according to the rank of the inhabitant, and are fixed on poſts about four or five feet from the ground. The houſes are generally divided into three rooms of equal ſize, the center room being ſet apart for the uſe of the women; and ſometimes ſmaller rooms are encloſed from the ſides of the building, the whole of which is thatched with the leaves of the palm-tree.

The

he natives eat of all the tame animals which the iſland produces, but they preſer the hog to all the reſt. Next to the fleſh of hogs they admire that of the horſe; to which ſucceeds the buffalo, and then the poultry: and they like the fleſh of cats and dogs much better than that of goats or ſheep. They ſeldom eat fiſh.

The fan-palm is the moſt remarkable, and moſt uſeful tree that grows on the iſland, its uſes being equally great and various. Soon after the buds put forth, the natives cut them, and tying under them little baſkets, formed of the leaves of the tree, a liquor drops into them, which has the taſte of a light wine, and is the common liquor of all the inhabitants. The leaves of the tree are applied to the various uſes of making tobacco-pipes, umbrellas, cups, baſkets, and the thatching of houſes. The fruit is nearly of the ſize of a full-grown turnip; but the natives are not fond it.

The iſland conſiſts of five diviſions, each of which has a rajah, or chief governor of its own. Theſe diviſions are called Timo, Maſſara, Regeeua, Laai, and Seba. It was on this laſt diviſion that our Engliſh adventurers went on ſhore, the raja of which was between thirty and forty years of age, and remarkable for his corpulency. He governs his people with the moſt abſolute authority, but takes on him very little of the parade or pomp of royalty.

The natives are ſo expert in the uſe of their lances, that they will throw them with ſuch force and exactneſs, as to pierce a man through the heart at the diſtance of ſixty or ſeventy yards.

The inhabitants of Savu are divided into five ranks, the rajas, the land-owners, manufacturers, labourers, and ſlaves. The land-owners are reſpected in proportion to the extent of their lands, and the number of their ſlaves, which laſt are bought and ſold with the eſtates to which they belong; but when a ſlave is bought ſeparately, a fat hog is the price of the purchaſe. Though a man may ſell his ſlave in this manner, or convey him with his lands, yet his power over him extends no farther; for he muſt not even ſtrike him without the raja's permiſſion.

The natives in general are robuſt and healthy, and have the appearance of being long-lived. The ſmall-pox has found its way to this iſland, and is as much dreaded as the peſtilence. When this diſorder attacks any perſon, he is carried to ſome ſpot at a great diſtance from any houſe, where his food is conveyed to him by means of a long ſtick, for no one will venture very near the invalid, who is thus left to take his chance of life or death.

The iſland of Savu having been viſited by the Portugueſe almoſt at their firſt ſailing into this part of the world, they eſtabliſhed a ſettlement upon it; but in a little time they were ſucceeded by the Dutch, who, tho' they did not formally poſſeſs themſelves of the iſland, ſent a number of trading veſſels to eſtabliſh a treaty of commerce with the natives. The principal object of this treaty is, that the rajas ſhould furniſh the Dutch, for the conſumption of their ſpice iſlands with rice, maize, &c. annually, and they are to return the value in arrack, cutlery wares, linen and ſilk. In this agreement the rajas ſtipulated that a Dutch reſident ſhould be conſtantly on the iſland, to obſerve that their part of the contract was fulfilled.

Once every two months the reſident is attended by fifty ſlaves on horſe-back, and in this ſtate viſits each of the rajas. He conſtantly takes with him a quantity of arrack, by which he makes advantageous bargains with the rajas. He had (ſays Captain Cook) been on this iſland ten years, during all which time he had not ſeen a white perſon, except thoſe who came annually in the Dutch ſhips to carry off the rice. He was married to an Indian woman, a native of the iſland of Timor, and he lives in the ſame manner as the inhabitants of Savu, whoſe language he ſpeaks better than any other. Like them, too, he ſits on the ground, and chews betel, and has ſo perfectly adopted their manners, that he is an abſolute Indian; except in dreſs and complexion.

The morality of theſe people is of the pureſt kind. A robbery is ſcarce ever committed, and a murder is never perpetrated. When any diſputes ariſe between the natives, they inſtantly ſubmit the point in debate to the deciſion of the raja, and reſt perfectly ſatisfied with his determination. No man is permitted to marry more than one wife; yet a violation of the marriage-bed, or even the crime of ſimple fornication, is almoſt wholly unknown among them.

SECTION X.

ISLAND OF CEYLON.

THIS iſland (which was well-known to the ancients, and is deſcribed by Ptolemy under the name of Taprobane) lies between 5 deg. 30 min. and 10 deg. 16 min. north lat. and between 79 deg. 40 min. and 82 deg. 45 min. eaſt, at the diſtance of near 190 miles from Cape Comorin, on the continent of India. It is above 300 miles in length, about 140 in breadth, and 900 in circumference. The Dutch call their fort at Jaffnapatam, Ham's-Heel, from fancying that the iſland in form reſembles a Weſtphalia ham.

Ceylon is one of the moſt pleaſant and fertile iſlands in all the Indies, and the air is much more temperate than could be expected from its vicinity to the Line. The mountainous parts are woody, but the plains are exceeding fertile; ſprings, meandring ſtreams, and rivers, water the whole, but the latter in general are ſo rocky as not to be navigable. The principal river riſes in Adam's Peak; it is called Mavillagouga, waſhes the city of Candy, and diſembogues itſelf into the ocean at Trincomale. The variation of the ſeaſons, and the winds which occaſion the monſoons, are much the ſame on this coaſt as on the coaſt of India. The northern corner of this iſland is the moſt unfertile on account of its deficiency with reſpect to rivers, rivulets, ſprings, &c. and not enjoying any refreſhing ſhowers: but the other parts are amazingly fertile, being plentifully ſupplied with water, and enjoying periodical rains, which always proceed from the ſouthward, but are prevented from reaching the northern diſtrict by a chain of very high mountains.

Ceylon produces all the fruits that are known in India, either on the continent or in the iſlands: hence it is called the *Garden of the Eaſt*, and *Paradiſe of the Indies*; grapes in particular are found in perfection during nine months in the year. It alſo produces plenty of ginger, pepper, ſugar, mulberries, palms, cardamum, calacaſs, cotton, and areka trees; figs, originally planted by the Portugueſe, long pepper, melons, various ſorts of mangoes, onions, garlick, and other European roots; but above all, cinnamon.

The cinnamon trees peculiar to Ceylon are the beſt of any known. In a very dry ſoil they are fit to be ſtripped of their bark in two or three years: if the ſoil is a moiſt white ſand, five years are required; but in a wet earth they are eight or nine years before they become ripe. Thoſe that happen to grow in the ſhade do not yield ſo fine a flavour as thoſe that are entirely expoſed to the ſun.

This ſpice is of immenſe value to the Dutch, being univerſally admired for the fragrancy of its ſcent and delicacy of its taſte; and the oil which they extract from it is an important article of commerce.

The fruit of the cinnamon tree is about the ſize of a large hazle nut, reſembles an acorn, and when boiled to a liquid ſerves the domeſtic purpoſe of burning in lamps inſtead of oil; as alſo the medicinal purpoſe of curing aches, pains, ſores, &c. for which it is in great repute.

A gentleman, long reſident in Ceylon in an exalted ſtation, ſays, that the cinnamon plant appears to thrive better when ſelf-ſown, than when propagated by culture. To this the crows greatly conduce, for being fond of eating the red and quick taſted fruit of the cinnamon

cinnamon tree, they ſwallow along with the fruit the kernels, and ſcatter them thus indigeſted every where with their dung, by which the ſoil is at the ſame time manured, and the ſeed ſhortly after ſtriking root ſprings up out of the earth. On this account no one dares to ſhoot, or otherways kill a crow, under a ſevere penalty.

The ſame author relates the following extraordinary circumſtance, to ſhew the medicinal virtues of the pine-apple, which is likewiſe to be found in Ceylon. An European that lay ill in this iſland cried out day and night for ſomebody to bring him a pine-apple. It was however, denied him by the phyſician. In a few days he died, and being opened, a worm of a large ſize was found in his ſtomach, which it had already begun to eat into. The people who attended the ſick man, remembering what he had longed for, by way of experiment dropped ſome pine-apple juice on the worm, which died in an inſtant.

The betel (ſo much chewed in Aſia) grows on a ſmall ſhrub, the leaves reſemble thoſe of ivy, and are naturally of a green colour, but the natives whiten them by artificial means without impairing their virtues; the flavour is exceedingly pleaſant, and the ſcent aromatic.

In preparing the quid, or rather pill, for chewing, they take a piece of chalky earth, or a kind of lime, about as a big as a pea, which they mix with a fourth part of the areka nut, wrap the whole in three betel leaves, and chew it when they think proper. The areka-tree is ſtrait, has no branches, but bears the fruit among a few leaves at the top. Till a perſon is accuſtomed to this chewing, it occaſions a dizzineſs and ſtupefaction like tobacco; but when grown familiar is much more agreeable.

The mangoes here reſemble nectarines, and are, when ripe, either red, white, or green: they are from the ſize of an egg to that of a very large pear, are delicious when preſerved, and make an admirable pickle.

The jackies produce nuts like cheſnuts, which are ſubſtituted for bread when rice is ſcarce: they are, however, far from being wholeſome.

Ceylon likewiſe produces the ſnake-tree, the root-tree, whoſe branches hang to the ground, and take freſh root; and the talipot-tree, which is as high as the maſt of a ſhip, but without any branches or leaves, except at the ſummit. The top is therefore cut off, and uſed as an umbrella, or a ſoldier's tent; as it is very ſtrong and light, and will fold like a fan.

Here are other ſpecies of grain that are converted either into bread or oil; the moſt ſingular of which is the tanna, celebrated not only for its goodneſs, but for yielding a thouſand-fold.

The elephants of Ceylon are the largeſt in the univerſe, and if ſpotted prefered to all others; the tygers and bears are very fierce; and the buffaloes, oxen, hogs, deer, &c. are excellent eating: nevertheleſs, the natives are fond of the fleſh of goats, ſquirrels and monkies. The monkies in this iſland are innumerable, and of many different ſpecies; ſome of which do not reſemble any that are to be found in other countries. One ſort have grey hairs, with black viſages, and a white beard from ear to ear, which makes them appear at a diſtance like old men; another ſort are of the ſame ſize, but of an amazing whiteneſs. They reſide in the woods, but often make excurſions, and do a great deal of miſchief, digging the dead bodies out of the ground to feed upon them.

The dogs are ferocious, but at the ſame time greatly admired for their ſagacity, and are ſo faithful to their maſters, that they fully merit the encomiums given by Homer to the dog of Ulyſſes.

When wiſe Ulyſſes, from his native coaſt
Long kept by wars, and long by tempeſts toſt;
Arriv'd at laſt, poor, old, diſguis'd, alone,
To all his friends, and e'en his queen unknown;
Chang'd as he was, with age, and toil, and cares,
Furrow'd his rev'rend face, and white his hairs;
In his own palace forc'd to aſk his bread,
Scorn'd by thoſe ſlaves his former bounty fed,
Forgot of all his own domeſtic crew,
The faithful dog alone his rightful maſter knew;
Unfed, unhous'd, neglected, on the clay,
Like an old ſervant, now caſhier'd, he lay;
Touch'd with reſentment at ungrateful man,
And longing to behold his ancient lord again;
Him, when he ſaw, he roſe, and crawl'd to meet,
'Twas all he cou'd, and fawn'd, and kiſs'd his feet;
Seiz'd with dumb joy, then falling by his ſide,
Own'd his returned lord, look'd up, and dy'd.

The natives feed ſometimes upon young crocodiles and alligators, and out of their heads take a bone, which, when reduced to powder, is deemed a ſpecific for the ſtone and gravel.

Here are ſwarms of ants, which throw up prodigious large hills, four or five feet in height, and two or three in diameter: theſe they arch in an admirable manner, make ſo ſtrong that it is difficult to deſtroy them with a pick-ax, and fill them with all kinds of grain for their winter ſubſiſtence.

One ſpecies of bees here build the combs on the boughs of trees. When the inhabitants would take the honey they hold lighted torches under the trees, which affects the little animals in ſuch a manner that they fall down dead; the comb is then taken, and the bees gathered up and boiled for food.

Serpents and leaches are very numerous, and conſequently very dangerous, as the natives go bare-legged; but as much as poſſible to prevent them from biting, they rub their legs and feet with a compoſition of aſhes, ſalt, and lemon juice.

No perſon but the king is permitted to keep turkies, geeſe, ducks and pigeons: his ſubjects are, however, allowed the uſe of all other fowls, wild and tame. Here are many wild peacocks and green parrots; but partridges, woodcocks, wood-doves, ſnipes, ſparrows, &c. are not ſo plenty. The moſt ſingular bird, however, is one entirely black, called carlos: it has a large ugly head, a long bill, and ſhort legs: it never lights upon the ground, but ſits almoſt continually on a tree, where it quacks like a duck.

The iſland abounds with ſea and freſh water fiſh, ſeveral kinds of which are appropriated ſolely to the uſe of the king; and it is death by the law for any perſon to catch them but for his uſe.

Though Ceylon abounds with mines of gold, ſilver, and other metals, none are permitted to be worked, but thoſe of iron; and ſuch as produce precious ſtones are all monopolized by the ſovereign. The cat's-eye, which has a variety of fine colours, and needs no poliſhing, is the favourite gem; though their rubies, ſapphires, topazes, hyacinths, turquoiſes, &c. are ſome of the fineſt in the univerſe. The mountains likewiſe produce cryſtal, green, white and red; brimſtone, ſalt-petre, &c.

The inhabitants of Ceylon are compoſed of Dutch, Portugueſe, Moors, Malabars, and a mongrel breed of all four; but the natives, who reſide in the inland parts are called Cingulays or Cinglaſſes. Theſe are of two claſſes, the Cingulays, properly ſo called, who are rather a civilized people; and the Vaddans, who live in the woods, and are quite wild. The firſt are well made, have regular features, are very active, ingenious, hardy, frugal, temperate, and neat; but to balance their good qualities, they are talkative, yet grave; crafty, yet courteous; and treacherous though complaiſant. The latter live without civil government, are excellent archers, and their principal buſineſs is to kill and dry veniſon. When they have expended or ſpoiled their arrows, and want new ones made, they go towards the houſe of a ſmith in the night, and hang up a quantity of veniſon, with a leaf faſhioned into the form and ſize of the arrow's point they want, by way of pattern: if the ſmith makes the arrows as they would have them, and leaves them in lieu of the veniſon, with a leaf

a leaf faſhioned into the form and ſize of the arrow's point they want, by way of pattern: if the ſmith makes the arrows as they would have them, and leaves them in lieu of the veniſon, they reward him with more deer's fleſh; but if he neglects them, they are ſure to do him a miſchief; which proves that they profeſs integrity and gratitude, as well as a ſpirit of reſentment and malice. That they are provident is likewiſe evident from their ſingular method of preſerving fleſh againſt a time of ſcarcity, which is by rubbing the inſide of a hollow tree with a quantity of honey, filling it with fleſh, and cloſing up the aperture with clay, which preſerves it as effectually as if it was ſalted. They love to live under trees by the ſides of rivers, where they fortify themſelves againſt the attacks of wild beaſts with boughs.

The Chingulays, or more civilized natives of Ceylon, live in houſes that are low, built with ſticks, or canes daubed over with clay, and covered with thatch. They have no chimnies, yet would willingly white waſh their houſes often; but this they dare not do, as the uſe of white waſh is one of the king's peculiar privileges; and it is death by the law to infringe upon any of his prerogatives, however abſurd or repugnant to public utility.

The natives ſit croſs-legged on the floor, which is uſually matted. Cane bedſteads and ſtools, and a few china plates, brazen and earthen veſſels for dreſſing food, or to ſerve as lamps, are the whole of their furniture. The men undreſs themſelves, and ſleep between two mats. The women and children lie upon the floor on a ſingle mat, but keep their cloaths on. But what is the moſt extraordinary in ſo warm a climate, they keep a fire burning all night.

The Chingulays eat but little fleſh through inclination: beef they are prohibited from touching, and even fowls they rather abſtain from. They uſe ſpoons and ladles, but neither knives or forks. The huſband ſits down to meals alone, the wife being obliged to wait upon him with all imaginable obſequiouſneſs; and when he has done, ſhe preſumes to ſit down with her children. Like ſome other Aſiatics, they do not touch the veſſel they drink out of with their lips, but hold it at a diſtance, and pour the liquor into their mouths. Old people let their beards grow long, and wear a cap like a mitre: but with reſpect to the people in general, they wear a waiſtcoat either of blue or white callico, and another piece of callico about the middle, tied round with a ſaſh. In the latter they wear their ornamental weapons, ſuch as a hanger, with an enamelled hilt, and ſcabbard finely emboſſed. The people are obliged to go bare-footed, becauſe none but the king is allowed to wear ſhoes and ſtockings. The women greaſe their hair with oil of cocoa-nuts, and comb it down behind. They wear a flowered waiſtcoat, and callico apron, and adorn themſelves with pendants in their ears, bracelets upon their arms, necklaces about their necks, rings on their toes and fingers, and a girdle of ſilver wires; and, upon a viſit, a ſilk hood is added to the reſt of the dreſs.

The Chingulays are divided into five claſſes, viz. the hondrews or nobility, artiſts and mechanics, handicraftſmen of a lower order, ſlaves, and beggars.

They are, in general, ſo addicted to the uſe both of betel and tobacco, that they even ſmoke and chew in the night time; and when they are perfectly intoxicated, fall a ſinging till they drop a ſleep; a cuſtom they are taught from their infancy.

Previous to the marriage ceremony, the man ſends a friend to purchaſe the woman's cloaths, which ſhe freely ſells for a ſtipulated ſum. In the evening he carries them to her, ſleeps with her all night, and in the morning appoints the day of marriage, on which he provides an entertainment of two courſes, for the friends of both parties. The feaſt is held at the bride's houſe, when the young couple eat out of the ſame diſh, tie their thumbs together, ſleep together that night, and, on the enſuing morning, depart for the bridegroom's habitation.

The deſign in purchaſing the bride's cloaths is that ſhe and her friends may be ſatisfied with reſpect to the man's circumſtances, as ſhe always aſks as much for them as ſhe thinks it is requiſite that a young couple ſhould poſſeſs upon their firſt entering upon the world, and becoming liable to the expences incurred by ſupporting a young family. Thus, what at firſt appears to be a ridiculous cuſtom, is in reality, a very prudential maxim.

Let reaſon teach what faſhion fain would hide,
That Hymen's bands by prudence ſhould be ty'd.
Venus in vain the wedded pair would crown,
If angry fortune on their union frown:
Soon will the flattering dream of bliſs be o'er,
And cloy'd imagination cheat no more,
Then waking to the ſenſe of laſting pain,
With mutual tears the nuptial couch they ſtain;
And that fond love which ſhould afford relief,
Does but increaſe the anguiſh of their grief;
While both could eaſier their own ſorrows bear,
Than the ſad knowledge of each other's care.

They are permitted to part from each other whenever they pleaſe: but if there are any children, the man is obliged to maintain the boys, and the woman the girls. They are ſo fond of availing themſelves of this law, that ſome have been known to change a dozen times before they have entirely ſuited their inclinations.

All the male Chingulays are allowed to command thoſe who are within hearing to aſſiſt them upon any emergency in the apprehending of delinquents: but the women are not permitted to mention the king's name, under the ſevere penalty of having their tongues cut out.

Criminals in Ceylon are frequently impaled alive, or have ſtakes driven through their bodies. Some are hung upon trees, and many are worried by dogs, who are ſo accuſtomed to the horrid butchery, that, on the days appointed for the death of criminals, they, by certain tokens, run to the place of execution. But the moſt remarkable criminal puniſhment is by the king himſelf, who rides an elephant trained up on purpoſe, while the beaſt tramples the unhappy wretch to death, and tears him limb from limb.

There are other modes of puniſhing by fines and impriſonment, at the diſcretion of the judges. When the fine is decreed, the officers ſeize the culprit wherever they meet him, ſtrip him naked, (his cloaths going as part of payment,) and oblige him to carry a large ſtone, the weight being daily increaſed by the addition of others that are ſmaller, till the money is either paid or remitted.

A creditor will ſometimes go to the houſe of his debtor, and very gravely affirm, that if he does not diſcharge the debt he owes him immediately, he will deſtroy himſelf. This ſo greatly terrifies the other, that he inſtantly muſters all the money he can, even ſells his wife and children not to be deficient, and pays the ſum demanded. This is owing to a law, which ſpecifies, if any man deſtroys himſelf on account of a debt not being diſcharged, the debtor ſhall immediately pay the money to the ſurviving relations, or forfeit his own life, unleſs he is able to redeem it by the payment of a very large ſum to the king. Such has been the revengeful diſpoſition of ſome, that they have put an end to their own exiſtence, in order to overwhelm others, and thus wickedly gratified their malice at the expence of their lives.

A woman muſt not be beaten without permiſſion from the king; but they may be made to carry heavy baſkets of ſand upon their heads as long as the puniſher pleaſes, which is much more dreadful to them than a hearty drubbing. The circumſtances of the children depend upon thoſe of the mother; for if the mother is a free woman, they are free; but if ſhe is a ſlave, they are always vaſſals.

The Chingulays worſhip both God and the devil. The firſt they think they ought, in gratitude, to pay adoration to, for the innumerable bleſſings he beſtows upon them; and the latter they worſhip, that he ſhould do them no miſchief.

Inferiors ſalute their ſuperiors by bowing their bodies and extending their arms, with the palms of their hands upward; but the great only extend one hand, and not the head. The ſalutation of the women is by clapping their hands together, and then carrying them ſo cloſed to their foreheads.

The begging claſs of Chingulays are mountebanks in their way: the men beat a drum, the women dance, and both ſhew a variety of whimſical tricks. They beg, or rather amuſe people, for their bread, in great companies. They are prohibited, by law, from touching the waters in wells or ſprings, and muſt uſe none but what is procured from rivers or ditches. If a nobleman or gentleman commits high treaſon, he is put to death, and his wives and daughters are delivered to ſome of theſe beggars, which is looked upon in ſo diſgraceful a light, that they frequently deſtroy themſelves to avoid any connections with perſons eſteemed ſo deſpicable.

Their method of teaching children to write here is very ſingular, as they inſtruct them by writing with ſticks in the ſand, and ſoft clay of the roads and ſtreets.

The articles of commerce for exportation are cardamum, jaggory, oil, black lead, turmeric, betel nuts, muſk, ſalt, rice, wax, pepper, coral, amber, pearls, &c. in return for which they import velvets, ſilks, china, red caps, ſpices, opium, China roots, ſandal wood, lead, copper, tin, looking-glaſſes, callicos, bottles, camphire, &c.

Agriculture is followed here by the principal part of the natives. They tread the ground, or rather mud, in which they ſow rice, with buffalos; but before they put the rice into it, they ſoak it in water till blades begin to ſprout. They embank their wet marſhy lands, in order to have foot-paths. When the rice is about ſix inches in height, they weed and tranſplant it. After reaping, the women gather and put it into a pit, where it is threſhed, or rather trod by buffalos.

The Portugueſe landed in Ceylon in 1505, and about twelve years after they eſtabliſhed factories there, the reigning king permitting them to build forts. Upon his demiſe he declared the king of Portugal his heir; but in proceſs of time, the Portugueſe behaving with great cruelty and arrogance, the young king of Candy invited in the Dutch, in 1639, who, after a tedious war, at length, in the year 1655, ſubdued the Portugueſe, and became maſters of the coaſt and trade. The king, their ally, they drove into the mountains, and, with their uſual gratitude, made him their tributary. The Dutch have, in ſubſequent years, committed many cruelties, and the natives frequently retaliate by making incurſions among them, or murdering all they meet with at a diſtance from the forts.

The iſland was formerly divided into nine monarchies, but at preſent it is under the dominion of one king, whoſe court is kept in the center of the iſland, at a place called Digligy-Neur. The palace is but meanly built, though the gates are large, ſtately, and finely carved, and the window-frames made of ebony, and inlaid with ſilver. His elephants, troops, and ſpies are numerous, and his concubines many. The guards are commanded by Dutch and Portugueſe renegado officers. He aſſumes great dignity, and demands much reſpect, which his ſubjects readily pay him, as they imagine that all their kings are immediately, upon their demiſe, turned into gods. He expects that Chriſtians ſhould ſalute him kneeling and uncovered, but requires nothing more of them. His title is Emperor of Ceylon, King of Candy, Prince of Onva and the Four Corles, Great Duke of the Seven Corles, Marquis of Duranura, Lord of the Sea-Ports and Fiſheries of Pearls and Precious ſtones. Lord of the Golden Sun, &c. &c. &c. His revenue conſiſts in the gifts and offerings of his ſubjects. His palaces are built upon almoſt inacceſſible places for the greater ſecurity. No bridges are permitted to be erected over rivers or ſtreams, or good roads to be made, to render the country as impaſſable as poſſible. None are allowed to approach his palace without a paſſport ſtamped on clay.

The troops are hereditary, and carry as weapons, ſwords, guns, pikes, bows, arrows, &c. They are ſubtle, but not courageous, and will not engage an enemy but by ſurpriſe, and when there is ſome manifeſt advantage in their own favour. It is ſo difficult to penetrate into the inland parts, and all the paſſes are ſo well guarded, that even the Dutch themſelves are unacquainted with the greateſt part of the iſland. The chief city, Candy, has nothing remarkable reſpecting it but its ſituation, being naturally fortified by the ſurrounding rocks: having formerly been burnt ſeveral times by the Portugueſe, and the court being removed to Digligy-Neur, it retains very little of its former conſequence.

The moſt remarkable places on and about the coaſt, are the Iſland of Manaar, Chialo, Columbo, Baticalo, Jaffnapatama, Negumbo, Point de Galle, Trincomale, Batchiarapalle, and the ſeven little iſlands of Ourature, Xho Deſerta, Analativa, Caradiva, Pongardiva, Natnandiva, and Nindundiva.

Adam's Peak, which ſtands on the eaſt of Colombo, is not only the higheſt mountain in Ceylon, but in all India. It receives its name from a tradition of the natives, that Adam was created and buried here. It is ſteep and craggy, and of a conical figure. At the ſummit there is a ſmooth ſtone, on which appears the impreſſion of a large human foot, which the Chingulays affirm to have been made by Adam. This occaſions them to pay a great adoration to it; and, at the commencement of every year vaſt multitudes clamber up to it, notwithſtanding the aſcent is ſo difficult, that iron ſpikes and chains have been fixed to the rocks, in order to facilitate their climbing. In another part of the mountain there is a lake, which the natives, with equal gravity, aver to have been made by the tears which they ſay Eve continued ſhedding, on account of the death of Abel, for 100 years ſucceſſively.

SECTION XI.

MALDIVIA ISLANDS.

THE Maldives were the firſt iſlands diſcovered by the European navigators on their arrival in the Indies. They are ſituated about 500 miles from Ceylon, and reach from 1 deg. ſouth, to 7 deg. north latitude. They extend about 600 miles in length, and are upwards of 100 in the broadeſt part. They are numerous, but many of them are only large hillocks of ſand, and, from the barrenneſs of the ſoil, are entirely uninhabited. The whole country is divided into thirteen provinces, called Attolons, each of which contains many ſmall iſlands, and is of a circular form, about 100 miles in circumference. Theſe provinces all lie in a line, and are ſeparated by channels, four of which are navigable for large ſhips, but are very dangerous, on account of the amazing rocks that break the force of the ſea, and raiſe prodigious ſurges. The currents run eaſt and weſt alternately for ſix months, but the time of the change is uncertain; and ſometimes they ſhift from north to ſouth. At the bottom of theſe channels is found a ſubſtance like white coral, which, when boiled in cocoa-water, greatly reſembles ſugar.

As theſe iſlands lie ſo near the equinoctial on both ſides, the climate is exceeding ſultry. The nights, however, are tolerably cool, and produce heavy dews, that are refreſhing to the trees and vegetables. Their winter commences in April, and continues till October, during which they have heavy rains, and ſtrong weſterly winds; but they never have froſt. The ſummer begins in October, and continues ſix months, during which time the winds are eaſterly, and there not being any rain, the heat is ſo exceſſive as ſcarce to be borne.

In general the Maldives are very fertile, and, in particular, produce great quantities of millet, and another grain much like it, of both which they have two harveſts every year. They have alſo ſeveral kinds of roots that ſerve for food, particularly a ſort of bread-fruit, called *nellpou*, which grows wild, and in great abundance.

dance. The woods produce excellent fruits, as cocoas, citrons, pomegranates, and Indian figs. Their only animals for uſe are ſheep and buffalos, except a few cows or bulls that belong to the king, and are imported from the continent; but theſe are only uſed at particular feſtivals. They have little domeſtic poultry, but are well ſupplied with prodigious quantities of wild fowl, which are caught in the woods, and ſold at very low prices. They have alſo plenty of wild pigeons, ducks, rails, and birds reſembling ſparrow hawks. The ſea produces moſt kinds of fiſh, great quantities of which are exported from hence to Sumatra. Among the fiſh is one called a *cowrie*, the ſhells of which are uſed in many parts of the Indies, inſtead of coin; and theſe are the ſame as thoſe known in England by the name of blackamoor's teeth.

There is a very dangerous ſort of ſnake that frequents the borders of the ſea. The inhabitants are alſo greatly peſtered with rats, dormice, piſmires, and other ſorts of vermin, which are very deſtructive to their proviſions, fruit, and other periſhable commodities; for which reaſon they build their granaries on piles in the ſea, at ſome diſtance from the ſhore; and moſt of the king's granaries are built in the ſame manner.

The natives are very robuſt, of an olive complexion, and well featured. They are naturally ingenious, and apply themſelves with great induſtry to various manufactures, particularly the making of ſilk and cotton. They are cautious and ſharp in trading, and courageous and well ſkilled in arms.

The dreſs of the common people is only a piece of cotton faſtened round their waiſt, except on feſtival days, when they wear cotton or ſilk jerkins, with waiſtcoats, the ſleeves of which reach only to the elbows. The better ſort tie a piece of cloth between their legs and round the waiſt, next to which they have a piece of blue or red cotton cloth, that reaches to the knees. Within a girdle, on the left ſide, they keep their money and betel, and on the right ſide a knife. They ſet a great value on this inſtrument, from its being their only weapon; for none but the king's officers and ſoldiers are permitted to wear any other.

The women are fairer than the men, and, in general, of a very agreeable diſpoſition. They wear a coat of cotton or ſilk, that reaches from the waiſt to the ancles, over which they have a long robe of taffaty, or fine cotton, that extends from the ſhoulders to the feet, and is faſtened round the neck by two gilt buttons. Their hair is black, which is eſteemed a great ornament; and to obtain this, they keep their daughters heads ſhaved till they are eight or nine years of age, leaving only a little hair on the forehead to diſtinguiſh them from the boys. They waſh their heads and hair in water to make it thick and long, and let it hang looſe that the air may dry it, after which they perfume it with an odoriferous oil. When this is done, they ſtroke all the hair backwards from the forehead, and tie it behind in a knot, to which they add a large lock of man's hair, and the whole is curiouſly ornamented with a variety of flowers.

The houſes of the common people are built of cocoa wood, and covered with leaves, ſewed one within another. But the better ſort have their houſes built of ſtone, which is taken from under the flats and rocks in the following manner. Among other trees in this iſland is one called *candou*, which is exceeding ſoft, and when dry, and ſawed into planks, is much lighter than cork. The natives, who are excellent ſwimmers, dive under water, and having fixed upon a ſtone fit for their purpoſe, they faſten a ſtrong rope to it: after this they take a plank of the candou wood, which, having a hole bored in it, is put on the rope, and forced down quite to the ſtone: they then run a number of other boards till the light wood riſes up to the top, dragging the ſtone along with it. By this contrivance the natives got up the cannon and anchors of a French ſhip, that was caſt away here in the beginning of the laſt century.

The Maldivians are in general a very polite people, particularly thoſe on the Iſland of Male; but they are very libidinous, and fornication is not conſidered any crime: neither muſt any perſon offer inſult to a woman that has been guilty of miſconduct previous to marriage. Every man is permitted to have three wives, if he can maintain them, but not more.

They are very abſtemious in their diet, their principal food conſiſting of roots made into meal, and baked. They ſit croſs-legged at their meals, in the ſame manner as in other eaſtern countries. The floor on which they ſit is covered with a fine mat; and, inſtead of table-cloths, they uſe banana leaves. Their diſhes are chiefly of china, all veſſels of gold and ſilver being prohibited by law: they are made round, with a cover, over which is a piece of ſilk to keep out the ants. They take up their victuals with their fingers, and in ſo careful a manner as not to let any fall; and if they have occaſion to ſpit, they riſe from the table and walk out. They do not drink till they have finiſhed their meal, for they conſider that as a mark of rudeneſs; and they are very cautious of eating in the preſence of ſtrangers.

Theſe people are naturally very cleanly, and when they riſe in the morning immediately waſh themſelves, rub their eyes with oil, and black their eye-brows.

Though they are Mahometans, yet they preſerve many Pagan cuſtoms: for when croſſed at ſea, they pray to the king of the winds: and in every iſland there is a place where thoſe who have eſcaped danger make offerings to him of little veſſels made for the purpoſe, in which they put fragrant woods, flowers, and other perfumes, and then turn the veſſel adrift to the mercy of the waves. Such are the ſuperſtitious notions they have of this airy king, that they dare not ſpit to the windward for fear of offending him; and all their veſſels being devoted to him, they are kept equally clean with their moſques. They impute croſſes, ſickneſs, and death, to the devil; and in a certain place make him offerings of flowers and banquets, order to pacify him.

Their moſques are very neat buildings, and made of ſtone well cemented: each of them is ſituated in the center of a ſquare, and round them they bury their dead. The moſque has three doors, each aſcended by a flight of ſteps. The walls within are wainſcotted, and the ceiling is of wood beautifully variegated. The floor is of poliſhed ſtone, covered with mats and tapeſtry; and the ceiling and wainſcotting are firmly joined without either nails or pegs.

Each moſque has its prieſt, who, beſides the public duties of his office, teaches the children to read and write the Maldivian language, which is a radical tongue. He alſo inſtructs them in the Arabic language, and is rewarded for theſe ſervices by the parents.

Thoſe who are very religious go to the moſque five times a day; and, before they enter it, they waſh their feet, hands, ears, eyes, and mouth; nor will they neglect doing this on any occaſion whatever. Thoſe who do not chuſe to go to the moſque may ſay their prayers at home; but if they are known to omit doing one or the other, they are treated with the greateſt contempt, as no perſon will either eat or converſe with them.

They keep their ſabbath on the Friday, which is celebrated with great feſtivity; and the ſame is obſerved on the day of every new moon. They have likewiſe ſeveral other feſtivals in the courſe of the year.

When two perſons intend entering into the marriage ſtate, the man gives information of his deſign to the pandiare, or governor, who aſks him if he is willing to have the woman propoſed: on his anſwering in the affirmative, the pandiare queſtions the parents as to their conſent: if they approve of it the woman is then brought, and the parties are married in the preſence of their friends and relations. A woman cannot part from her huſband without his conſent, though a man may divorce his wife.

On the death of any one the corpſe is waſhed by a perſon of the ſame ſex, of which there are ſeveral in each iſland appointed for that purpoſe. After this is done,

done, it is wrapped up in cotton, with the right hand placed on the ear, and the left on the thigh. It is then laid on the right ſide in a coffin of candou wood, and carried to the place of interment by ſix relations or friends, and followed by the neighbours, who attend without being invited. The grave is covered with a large piece of ſilk or cotton, which, after the interment, becomes the property of the prieſt. The corpſe is laid in the grave with the face towards Mahomet's tomb; and after it is depoſited, the grave is filled up with white ſand ſprinkled with water. In the proceſſion both to and from the grave, the relations ſcatter ſhells for the benefit of the poor, and give pieces of gold and ſilver to the prieſt, in proportion to the circumſtances of the deceaſed. The prieſt ſings continually during the ceremony, and when the whole is over, the relations invite the company to a feaſt. They incloſe their graves with wooden rails, for they conſider it as a ſin for any perſon to walk over them; and they pay ſuch reſpect to the bones of the dead, that no perſons dare touch them, not even the prieſts themſelves. They make little difference in their habit on theſe occaſions: the mourners only go bareheaded to the grave, and continue ſo for a few days after the interment.

If a perſon dies at ſea, the body, after being waſhed, is put into a coffin, with a written paper mentioning his religion, and requeſting thoſe who may meet with the corpſe to give it decent interment. They then ſing over it, and, after having compleated their ceremonies, they place it on a plank of candou wood, and commit it to the waves.

Male, the moſt conſiderable of the Maldive iſlands, is the reſidence of the king. It is ſituated in the center of the reſt, and is about five miles in circumference. The king has here a magnificent palace, in which his beds are hung like hammocks between two pillars ornamented with gold; and when he lies down, he is rocked to ſleep by his attendants. His uſual dreſs conſiſts of a coat made of fine white cloth or cotton, with white and blue edgings, faſtened with buttons of ſolid gold: under this is a piece of red embroidered tapeſtry that reaches down to his heels, and is faſtened with a large ſilk girdle fringed, and a great gold chain before, with a lock formed of the moſt precious and valuable ſtones. He wears a ſcarlet cap on his head, which is a colour ſo eſteemed that no other perſon dare preſume to uſe it. This cap is laced with gold, and on the top of it is a large gold button with a precious ſtone. The grandees and ſoldiers wear long hair, but the king's head is ſhaved once a week: he goes bare-legged, but wears ſandals of gilt copper, which muſt not be worn by any other perſons except thoſe of the royal family.

When he goes abroad his dignity is particularly diſtinguiſhed by a white umbrella, which no other perſon, except ſtrangers, are permitted to uſe. He has three pages near his perſon, one of whom carries his fur, another his ſword and buckler, and a third a box of betel and areka, which he almoſt conſtantly chews.

When the queen goes abroad, all the women in their reſpective diſtricts meet her with flowers, fruits, &c. She is attended by a great number of female ſlaves, ſome of whom go before to give notice to the men to keep out of the way; and four ladies carry a veil of white ſilk over her head that reaches to the ground. She and her ladies frequently bathe in the ſea for their health, for the convenience of which they have a place on the ſhore cloſe to the water, which is incloſed, and the top of it covered with white cotton.

The principal part of the nobility and gentry live in the north parts of this iſland, for the convenience of being near the court: and ſo much is this diviſion eſteemed, that when the king baniſhes a criminal he is thought to be ſufficiently puniſhed by being ſent to the ſouth.

The king's guards conſiſt of 600, who are commanded by his grandees; and he has conſiderable magazines of armour, cannon, and ſeveral ſorts of ammunition. His revenue conſiſts chiefly of a number of iſlands appropriated to the crown, with certain taxes on the various productions of others: in the money paid to purchaſe titles and offices, and for licences to wear fine cloaths.

All the ambergris found in this country (which produces more than any other part of the Indies) is alſo the property of the king; and ſo narrowly is it watched that whoever is detected in converting it to his own uſe, is puniſhed with the loſs of his right hand.

The government here is abſolute monarchy, for every thing depends on the king's pleaſure. Each attalon, or province, has a naybe, or governor, who is both a prieſt and a doctor of the law. He not only preſides over the inferior prieſts, and is veſted with the management of all religious affairs, but he is likewiſe entruſted with the adminiſtration of juſtice, both in civil and criminal caſes. They are in fact, ſo many judges, and make four circuits every year throughout their reſpective juriſdictions.

The puniſhments for crimes are various: if a man is murdered the wife cannot proſecute the criminal; but if the deceaſed has left any children, the judge obliges him to maintain them till they are of age, when they may either proſecute or pardon the murderer. The ſtealing any thing valuable is puniſhed with the loſs of a hand, and for trifling matters they are baniſhed to the ſouthern iſlands. An adultreſs is puniſhed by having her hair cut off, and thoſe guilty of perjury pay a pecuniary mulct. Notwithſtanding the law makes homicide death, yet a criminal is never condemned to die unleſs it is expreſsly ordered by the king; in which caſe he ſends his own ſoldiers to execute the ſentence.

The principal articles exported from theſe iſlands are, cocoa-nuts, cowries, and tortoiſe-ſhell, the laſt of which is exceeding beautiful, and not to be met with in any other place, except the Philippine Iſlands. The articles imported are, iron, ſteel, ſpices, china, rice, &c. all which are engroſſed by the king, who ſells them to his ſubjects at his own price.

Their money is ſilver, and of one ſort only, called lorrins, each of which is about the value of 8d. It is about two inches in length, and folded, the king's name being ſet upon the folds in Arabic characters. They ſometimes uſe the ſhells of cowries, inſtead of ſmall change, 1200 of which make a lorrin; but in their own markets they frequently barter one thing for another. Their gold and ſilver is all imported from abroad, and is current here by weight, as in many other parts of the Indies.

Theſe iſlands are happily ſituated for producing mutual commerce to the reſpective inhabitants: for tho' the thirteen attolons, or provinces, are in the ſame climate, and all of them very fertile, yet they produce ſuch different commodities, that the people in one cannot live without what is found in another. The inhabitants have likewiſe ſo divided themſelves, as greatly to enhance this commercial advantage; for all the weavers live in one iſland, the goldſmiths in another; and ſo on of the different manufactures. In order, however, to make the communication eaſy, theſe artificers have ſmall boats built high on both ſides, in which they work, ſleep and eat, while ſailing from one iſland to another to expoſe their goods to ſale, and ſometimes they are out a conſiderable time before they return to their fixed habitations.

CHAP. XXI.

ISLANDS OF ASIA UNDER THE DOMINION OF THE TURKS.

THE Aſiatic Iſlands belonging to the Turks are ſcattered about the Archipelago, ſo called from the Greek words *Archos* and *Pelagos*, the firſt ſignifying chief, and the latter a ſea, this being the chief ſea in theſe parts. Through the oppreſſion of the Ottoman government, they maintain but little of their former opulence and importance. We ſhall deſcribe them in order as follows.

TENEDOS.

No one of the iſlands of the Archipelago has been more famed in the hiſtorian's page, and the poet's numbers, than Tenedos, though it is one of the ſmalleſt in this Archipelago. It lies in 40deg. north latitude, and 26 degrees eaſt longitude, exactly oppoſite to Troy, from the ſhore of which it is about two leagues diſtant, and, indeed, formed the Trojan harbour. It was behind this iſland that the Grecians concealed their fleet in order to delude the Trojans, by making them ſuppoſe that they had raiſed the ſiege, and gone home.

After the fall of Troy, the inhabitants of this iſland were reduced to a ſtate of the utmoſt indigence. At length they were conquered by the Perſians, and afterwards alternately ſubdued by the Lacedemonians, Romans, and Turks. It is near twenty miles in circumference, and formerly had a conſiderable city, and two havens. It was likewiſe celebrated for a temple dedicated to Apollo Symnthius. The only antiquities now to be ſeen on this iſland, are the ruins of the granaries built by the Emperor Juſtinian: they were 280 feet in length, and 90 in breadth. This iſland produces the beſt and moſt delicious wine in all the Levant, which is called Muſcadine, and is held in the higheſt repute both by Europeans and Aſiatics. Tenedos is ſurrounded by rocks, and contains ſeveral towns, or rather villages, the principal of which has the ſame name as the iſland, is inhabited by Greeks, and adorned with many fountains of white marble, being made of ſtones brought from the ruins of Troy. A ſtrong caſtle, flanked with ſquare towers, ſtands on the north of the town, cloſe to the ſea; beſides which, two round towers, and a battery of 20 guns, defend the haven. To the ſouth of the port there is another caſtle, which commands the town and harbour, and is conſequently of the utmoſt importance to the place. The tombs of Marpeſia, queen of the Amazons, and of the hero Achilles, are ſhewn here.

LESBOS, OR MITYLENE.

LESBOS, one of the principal iſlands of the Archipelago, is about 60 miles from Tenedos, and near 8 from the continent of Aſia. It lies under the 39th degree of north latitude, and between the 26th and 27th degrees of eaſt longitude, being about 70 miles in length, and 186 in circumference, The chief cities were,

Ariſba, which was entirely deſtroyed by an earthquake.

Pyrrha, on the weſtern coaſt towards Greece, which met with the ſame fate as the former, as did Hiera and Agamis.

Ereſſus was ſituated on the ſouthern promontory of the iſland and only famous for having been the birthplace of the celebrated Theophraſtus, who ſucceeded Ariſtotle in his Peripatetic academy.

Antiſſa, according to Strabo, was formerly an iſland of itſelf, and was called Antiſſa from being oppoſite to Leſbos, which was then known by the name of Iſſa. This city was deſtroyed by the Romans, on account of its diſaffection to their government.

Methymna. This city was the place of Arion's nativity, and was in great repute for the excellent wine which the inhabitants made.

Mitylene, the metropolis of Leſbos. The city was not more famed for the fertility of the circumjacent country, and the uncommon magnificence of its buildings, than for the number of conſiderable perſonages to whom it gave birth. Among theſe were Pittacus, one of the ſeven Grecian ſages; Alceus, the lyric poet; Sappho, the celebrated poeteſs; Terpander, the muſician; Hellanicus, the hiſtorian; Callias, the critic, &c. &c. &c. Indeed, Mitylene, was deemed ſo much the ſeat of the Muſes, and the center of politeneſs, that Ariſtotle reſided in it two years, to partake of the elegant converſation of its inhabitants.

The city, after having revolted from the Athenians, was greatly injured by the Peloponeſian war. It was ſubſequently deſtroyed by the Romans; and at its ſiege the famous Julius Cæſar made his firſt campaign, and greatly ſignalized his courage. Being afterwards rebuilt, Pompey reſtored it to its ancient franchiſes. The emperor Trajan adorned it with many elegant ſtructures, and from his own name called it Trajanopolis. This iſland is naturally exceeding fertile, and was celebrated by the ancients for producing, in great abundance, all the neceſſaries and delicacies of life. The wine, in particular, is excellent, and as much celebrated by phyſicians for its ſalubrity, as admired by the voluptuous for its admirable flavour.

So immoral was the character of the Leſbians, that at length it became proverbial: for the Greek ſaying, *To live like a Leſbian*, implied to live the moſt abandoned and profligate life that it was poſſible for the mind to conceive.

Leſbos is at preſent but thinly peopled, and ſcarce any thing is to be ſeen but the fragments of its former magnificence. However, 130 ſmall villages are ſtill reckoned, and ſeveral harbours, particularly Caſtri, built on the ruins of the ancient Mitylene, which is ſituated on the eaſt ſide of the iſland, has an excellent port, and is defended by a ſtrong caſtle.

Cos-dogg is a town built on the ſpot where a city anciently ſtood, called the Mount of Ida. The inhabitants are principally Greeks; but the neighbouring mountains are infeſted by a great number of Turkiſh robbers, who are ſome of the moſt bloody and mercileſs villains exiſting.

The trade of this iſland conſiſts principally of wine, grain, fruit, cheeſe, butter, pitch, &c. The duties paid to the Ottoman Porte amount to 18,000 piaſtres; and the inhabitants are computed at about 20,000. The houſes at preſent are low and mean built, and the people miſerably poor. They are, however, as much debauched as when they lived in greater affluence. Magazines are here kept, to furniſh the Turkiſh gallies with ſtores which are employed by the Porte to cruiſe againſt the pirates that infeſt ſome of theſe iſlands. The governor is a cadi; but the troops on the iſland are commanded by an aga of the janiſſaries.

THE CAREENERS.

The Careeners, or Spalmadori Iſlands, are ſmall, and being ſituated north of Leſbos, the pirates put in here to careen, the ſituation being the beſt imaginable for watching the ſhips that trade to and from Conſtantinople.

CHIOS.

CHIOS, or Scio, which lies in 39 deg. north latitude, and 27 deg. eaſt longitude, is called by the Turks Sakiſaduci.

Sakiſaduci. It is ſituated oppoſite to the coaſt of Ionia, and has a coaſt of 80 miles in circuit, being divided into upper and lower ground; the former terminating towards the north, at Cape Apanomeria; and the latter towards the ſouth, at Cape Maſtico. This iſland is mountainous and rocky; yet the plains produce corn, wine, oil, honey, fruits, and gums; though the fertility is much impeded by the great ſcarcity of water. The country is fertile and populous, and the inhabitants opulent. The men are well made, the women handſome, and both ſexes ſo much inclined to mirth, that they think all the time loſt which is not employed in ſinging, dancing, feaſting, revelling or gallantry.

A conſiderable commerce is carried on here; but the harbour is bad, and, indeed, dangerous; yet the ſhips going to and coming from Conſtantinople rendezvous at this place: and a Turkiſh ſquadron is kept here to protect the merchant ſhips, and annoy the pirates.

Scio, the capital, is a handſome city. The houſes are elegant, and have grand terraces, and windows, glazed with red and green glaſs. The Venetians took it in 1694, and greatly embelliſhed it, but loſt it the year following. It is two miles in circumference, and environed by ſeveral beautiful gardens. The inhabitants are chiefly of the Greek Church, or Roman Catholics, and have ſeveral churches and monaſteries, which remain unmoleſted by the Turks, who likewiſe permit them openly to profeſs their religion.

The citadel was erected by the Genoeſe, in order to defend the entrance of the harbour. It is guarded by a Turkiſh garriſon. The eſplanade, or ſpace between the citadel and firſt houſes of the town, was formed by the Venetians, who, for that purpoſe, demoliſhed all the houſes in the vicinity of the caſtle. On this eſplanade, which preſents a moſt pleaſing appearance, there is a fine fountain in the Turkiſh ſtile. We ſhall annex a beautiful view of the whole. Part of the citadel appears to the left of this picturesque ſcene.

About two leagues from the city, in the midſt of the mountains, is a convent, very conſiderable for its vaſt revenues.

At Scio they manufacture ſilk, and gold and ſilver ſtuffs. There is a branch of commerce peculiar to this iſland; this is the produce of the *lentiſk* trees, which furniſh the gum called *maſtich*, of which the Turkiſh and Grecian ladies conſume great quantities. They continually chew this drug, which gives an agreeable aromatic flavour to their breath, but is very injurious to the beauty of the teeth.

It is to be obſerved, that Scio was one of the ſeven cities that contended for the honour of having given birth to Homer, and their coin formerly was ſtamped with his image.

The natives of this iſland are, by their neighbours in general, deemed a very ſtupid and ignorant ſet of people. The Turks call them *Praſnios*, which ſignifies *ſhallow wretches*, and have a proverb concerning them, which may be thus tranſlated:

Before a wiſe Sciot ſhall ever be ſeen,
Be ſure you ſhall meet with a horſe that is green.

The whole iſland contains 30 villages, 300 churches, 2000 Latins, 10,000 Turks, and 100,000 Greeks. In time of peace it is governed by a cadi, with a ſtipend of 500 aſpers per day: but in war time a baſhaw is ſent from Conſtantinople to take upon him the ſupreme command. The Greek biſhop is immenſely rich, having, beſides the above mentioned 300 churches, many chapels and monaſteries under his juriſdiction. The chief of the latter, called Neamoni, or New Solitude, is about five miles from Scio, contains 150 monks, and pays to the government 50,000 crowns annually, which it can well afford, its yearly revenue being 500,000 crowns, or an eighth of the produce of the whole iſland.

Next to the capital the following are the moſt conſiderable towns in the iſland.

Callimacha, the chief maſtich town, contains 600 churches, which have 30 ſubordinate chapels, and a nunnery belonging to them.

Pergi, which contains a caſtle, 30 churches, and 2000 inhabitants.

Meſta. This town is famous for the nectar wine which its neighbouring vineyards produce.

Armolia is a maſtich town, defended by a ſtrong caſtle.

Voliſta is famous for its ſilk manufactory. It contains 300 houſes, 1500 inhabitants, and is defended by a caſtle, which was erected by the celebrated Beliſarius, who experienced the moſt aſtoniſhing reverſe of fortune, and, from the glorious conqueror, became the public beggar.

St. Helena, of the Archipelago, is ſituated on a rock, and contains two churches, a chapel, and about 200 inhabitants.

Cambia has a caſtle upon a rock, and is celebrated for its pines, with which the Turks build many gallies, and for a hot medicinal ſpring.

Cardamita is ſituated in a very rich territory, which, in particular, produces 170 tons of excellent wine annually. Many coins of Conſtantine the Great have been dug up in the neighbourhood. A ſpring of water iſſues from a rock at no great diſtance, which, in its fall, forms a beautiful caſcade. The town was anciently famed for the temple of Neptune, near Port Dolphin, the ruins of which are yet to be ſeen.

While this iſland was under the dominion of the Venetians and the Genoeſe, the natives were permitted to be governed by their own laws; but ſince the Turks conquered it, the poor people are both deſpiſed and oppreſſed.

Thus conqueſt gives the bloody power to kill,
Or the black privilege of uſing ill.
Who heaves a ſigh if freedom be the cauſe,
Is by the victor deem'd to break the laws.
On godlike liberty who caſts a glance,
Falls the ſad victim of the reeking lance.
Th' oppreſs'd in ſilent ſorrow muſt remain,
Nor dare of their hard deſtiny complain.

PSARA.

Psara, a very ſmall iſland to the weſtward of Chios, is not remarkable for any thing but a breed of aſſes, who die immediately after being carried from the iſland; but are exceeding ſtrong, hardy, and long lived, while they remain in their native place.

Near this iſland are ſome ſmaller iſlands called Careeriers, which like thoſe already mentioned, are frequented by Pirates.

SAMOS.

Samos lies in 37 degrees north latitude, and 27 degrees eaſt longitude, at the diſtance of 40 miles from Chios, and oppoſite to the ſouth coaſt of Ionia. It is about 80 miles in circumference, and the ſee of an archbiſhop: but this prelate is exceeding poor; for he is obliged to pay annually ſo large a ſtipend to the court of Conſtantinople that he ſcarce leaves himſelf any thing. It was formerly a commonwealth; and is naturally ſo very fertile, that when Greece was at the ſummit of her glory, it was deemed, though leſs than many, of as much importance as any of the iſlands of the Archipelago. The trade at preſent conſiſts of ſeveral ſorts of wines, which are admirable, a ſuperior kind of onions and garlic, fine earthern ware, raw ſilk, oil, honey, ſaffron, fruits, drugs, minerals, emery, ochre, black dye, &c. Notwithſtanding the natural richneſs of this iſland, the natives are ſo much oppreſſed by the Turks, and plundered by the pirates, who infeſt the coaſt, that they are in general miſerably poor. The inhabitants are about 12,000, principally Greeks. The capitation tax which they pay amounts to about 6400 crowns,

crowns, and the cuſtoms are farmed at 10,000 more. The governor, who is an aga of the Janiſſaries, collects about as much again for himſelf, and makes himſelf likewiſe heir to every Greek who dies without male iſſue; taking money, houſe, goods, and indeed every thing but the garden, which is left to the quiet poſſeſſion of the daughters.

The chief town Samos, which, as well as the iſland itſelf, the Turks called Suſſan, is now reduced to a poor mean village: and to add to its wretchedneſs, the pirates frequently plunder it: but the noble fragments of its ancient ſplendor, which ſtill remain, excite at once admiration and melancholy in the beholder.

Vati, though formerly a ſplendid city, is now only a mean village, containing about 300 miſerable houſes, and a few wretched inhabitants.

Cora contains about 600 houſes, but ſince it was plundered by the Venetians many of them are gone to ruin, and more are uninhabited.

The reſt of the towns are as miſerable; and, upon the whole, the iſland preſents little beſides but ſcenes that are ſhocking to the imagination.

The Hermitage of Cacoperata is highly reverenced by the Greeks; it is a horrid cavern, with a rocky aſcent to it of about 500 yards, narrow, ſteep, and craggy; but they are very fond of ſuch diſmal and romantic ſituations.

Samos is celebrated in hiſtory for having given birth to that admirable philoſopher Pythagoras.

The city of Samos was formerly very magnificent, as we may judge from its ruins, which are ſtill ſuperb monuments of its ancient grandeur. It was famous for a noble temple built to the honour of Juno, ſome veſtiges of which ſtill remain.

NICARIA, or ICARIA.

Nicaria lies in 37 deg. 30 min. north lat. and 26 deg. 30 min. eaſt long. is about 70 miles in circumference, and rocky, mountainous and barren. It has no harbours for ſhipping, and conſequently muſt be without commerce. The Samians ſay, that when the two iſlands were made, all the good materials were exhauſted in making Samos, and that nothing but rubbiſh remained for Nicaria. Some benefits, however, ariſe to the natives from theſe diſadvantages, for the Turks do not think it worth their while to oppreſs them, nor the pirates to plunder them,

The inhabitants, who are about 3000 in number, have wine, ſheep, goats, and aromatic herbs; they row their boats, and do other work quite naked, for fear of wearing out the few cloths they are able to procure.

A ridge of mountains parts the iſland. There are but two towns and a few ſcattered houſes, and the natives are very lazy, of a ſavage diſpoſition, and ſpeak a moſt barbarous dialect of the Greek. They have a kind of biſhop, 24 prieſts, and a few chapels. The people are ſtrong and well made, but ill favoured and naſty, and have in general a bad character.

PATMOS, or PATHMOS.

The iſland of Patmos lies in 17 deg. 20 min. north lat. and 26 deg. 45 min. eaſt long. is 10 miles ſouth-weſt of Nicaria, and only about 18 in circumference: nevertheleſs it has ſeveral convenient harbours, which give it the advantage over many others of the Levant iſlands. De la Scala, its principal port, is deemed the very beſt in the Archipelago. Sapſila and Cricou are likewiſe excellent harbours, but they are all terribly infeſted by pirates, which has obliged the inhabitants of Sapſila to evacuate the town and retire up a neighbouring hill to the monaſtery of St. John, which isat once a religious houſe and fortreſs, has an annual revenue of 6000 crowns, and maintains 100 monks. Though the uſe of bells is prohibited in all other parts of the Turkiſh dominions, yet the monks of this monaſtery are permitted to have two large ones.

St John the Evangeliſt was baniſhed by the Romans to this iſland, and here compoſed his Apocalypſe or Revelation; the place is conſequently in great eſteem both by Turks and Chriſtians. St. John's hermitage is ſituated upon a rock between Port de la Scala and the monaſtery; the entrance is hewn out of the ſolid rock, and leads to the chapel, which is almoſt 44 feet in length, 15 in breadth, and is covered with a Gothic roof.

The management of this iſland is committed to the care of two Greek officers, as no Turks reſide upon it. The taxes produce about 10,000 crowns annually. The houſes are neater than thoſe of moſt of the other iſlands, and the chapels well built, arched, and about 250 in number. It is remarkable, that though the iſland does not contain above 300 men, yet the women are near 6000 in number; the latter are good tempered and handſome, but ſpoil their faces by uſing a prodigious quantity of paint: however, the ſweetneſs of their diſpoſitions makes amends for all faults, and ſurpaſſes beauty.

CLAROS.

Claros lies very near Patmos, is mountainous, about 40 miles in circumference, has two ſea-ports, a town and caſtle, to which it gives name, yet was never famous for any thing but a magnificent temple dedicated to Apollo.

LEROS.

The iſland of Leros, Lerio, or Oleron, lies to the ſouth of Patmos and north of Claros, is 18 miles in circumference, and produces abundance of aloes; Greeks and Turks inhabit it but are not numerous. It contains but one ſmall town, a few ſcattered hamlets, and a ſmall number of monaſteries. Upon a hill are ſome noble ruins, in particular about twenty ſuperb marble pillars that remain entire, and which are, perhaps, the remnants of the temple of Diana, on whoſe account this iſland was formerly famous.

The MANDRIA ISLANDS.

The Mandria Iſlands are a cluſter of ſmall iſlands to the eaſtward of Leros, the center iſland is by far the largeſt, but none of them are inhabited, except by the pirates that infeſt thoſe parts, and who are ſome of the moſt ſavage wretches exiſting, murdering the crews of all the ſhips they are able to overpower.

Bold were the men, who on the ocean firſt
Spread their new ſails, when ſhipwreck was the worſt;
More dangers now from man alone we find,
Than from the rocks, the billows, or the wind.

STANCHIO, or COOS.

Stanchio, which lies in 39 deg. 40 min. north lat. and 27 deg. 30 min. eaſt long. is oppoſite to the coaſt of Doris, 80 miles from Samos, 70 in circumference, has a fruitful ſoil, and towards the eaſt gradually riſes into mountains; it is rich in paſture, wines, fruit, turpentine, cypreſs, medicinal and other plants, &c.

Cos, the capital, is ſpacious, populous, well built, and ſtrongly fortified: it is ſituated on the eaſtern coaſt, and was formerly famous for a ſuperb temple of Æſculapius, as the iſland itſelf was for the birth of the celebrated Hippocrates, whoſe houſe is ſtill ſhewn in the town of Harangues, but both theſe celebrated phyſicians owed their fame more to their recommending temperance than to any of the medicines they diſcovered.

Cos was celebrated for ſome light garments made here, and called Veſtimenta Coa; but was ſtill more famous for the ſtatue of Venus, made here by Apelles, who was a native of this little iſland: and hence originated the notion of Venus's riſing out of the ſea.

This fine piece of workmanſhip was firſt lodged in a ſtately temple, but Auguſtus carried it to Rome; and

to

to make the ſuperſtitious people ſome amends for its loſs, their tribute was entirely remitted. The harbour is good, and well ſecured from pirates.

STAMPALIA.

THIS iſland lies about 40 miles from the coaſt of Anatolia, is 60 miles in circumference, has a town of its own name on the ſouth coaſt, two harbours, and was antiently celebrated for its temple of Apollo. It has a church or two ſubject to a biſhop.

CARPANTHUS.

CARPANTHUS, or Scarpanto, on the ſouth coaſt of Doris, lies in 35 deg. 45 min. north lat. and 27 deg. 40 min. eaſt long. is between Cerate and Rhodes, and anciently gave name to the Carpanthian ſea. It is near 80 miles in circumference, but it is mountainous, barren, and but thinly inhabited. It has no town except Scarpanto, whoſe harbour is tolerable, but terribly infeſted by the pirates.

ISLANDS IN THE GULPH OF SMYRNA.

THESE iſlands, which are five in number, are ſmall and uninhabited; one is called Long Iſland, or Iſola de Eglere, that is, Church Iſland; it is 10 miles long, rather narrow, and contains the ruins of a magnificent temple. Another of them the Greeks ſay formerly contained many elegant buildings, of which no veſtiges are at preſent left, but an apartment ſupported by four pillars, the whole being cut out of the ſolid rock; from this iſland a cauſeway formerly joined to the main land but it is now entirely ruined. Some have imagined this to be the Clazomene of the antients, but whether the conjecture is right we cannot determine.

RHODES.

RHODES extends from 35 deg. 50 min. to 36 deg. 30 min. north lat. and from 28 deg. 20 min. to 28 deg. 44 min. eaſt long. being 75 miles eaſt from Candia, 8 from the Lycian coaſt, and about 120 in circumference. This iſland hath been long famed in hiſtory under various names, and its inhabitants very early were deemed a maritime people. When attacked by the Greeks, the Rhodians called in the Romans to their aſſiſtance: who, according to their uſual cuſtom, drove away the Rhodian's enemies, and repaid themſelves for their trouble, by ſeizing their country, and the property of the natives; after which it underwent various revolutions. It was taken by the Venetians in 1124. The Turks conquered it in 1283, but were driven out of it by the knights of St. John of Jeruſalem in 1308; however, Soliman the Magnificent attacked it with an army of 200,000 men, and 300 ſhips, and took it, Jan. 1, 1523, after the Rhodians had loſt upwards of 93,000 of their men, and the Turks a much greater number. After this misfortune moſt of the Rhodians quitted their country, ſo that the iſland became very much depopulated; the Turks, however, ſhewed ſo great a reſpect to the knights of Rhodes, that they ſuffered them to keep their houſes, effects, coats of arms, ſtatues, inſcriptions, &c. and granted very conſiderable privileges to ſuch as would come and ſettle there, which drew back ſome of the Rhodians, and many of the Greeks; ſo that Rhodes, at preſent, is as populous and flouriſhing as Turkiſh tyranny will permit any place to be in the Ottoman territories.

The metropolis of Rhodes is called by the ſame name, and was always eſteemed a place of conſiderable ſtrength. At preſent, though its former ſplendor is much decayed, it is a handſome city, and a good ſeaport; the ſituation at the ſide of a hill is delightful; it is about three miles in circuit, fortified by a triple wall and caſtle, though they are but in bad repair; the ſtreets are capacious and well paved, particularly that of St. John, which is paved with beautiful marble the houſes are elegantly built in the Italian taſte, and the markets well ſupplied with all kinds of proviſions. It has two harbours, a large one for ſhips of all nations, and a ſmaller for the Turkiſh gallies only a ſquadron of which are always kept here to cruiſe againſt the Malteſe ſhips. This port is ſhut up every night with a chain, and near it is a fine piazza adorned with ſtately trees, at the extremity of which are the arſenal and dock. The church of St. John, a moſt noble ſtructure, is converted into a moſque. Many other churches, the palace formerly belonging to the grand maſter, the houſes of the knights, &c. are ſtill magnificent fabricks.

This city was formerly celebrated for the learning and politeneſs of its inhabitants, and the numerous academies for various arts and ſciences, which are kept open at the public expence; but at preſent, literature meets here with the ſame treatment that it does in moſt other parts of the Turkiſh dominions.

The ſoil of Rhodes is ſo fertile and rich, that it produces every delicacy which man can wiſh to enjoy; and the air is the moſt pure and ſerene that he could deſire to breathe. Indeed, ſuch is the beauty of the country, and delightfulneſs of the climate, as to give occaſion to the poets to feign that Apollo rained golden ſhowers upon it, and bleſſed it with his moſt prolific and ſalubrious beams.

> The glorious ruler of the morning, So,
> But looks on flowers, and ſtraight they grow;
> And when his beams their light unfold,
> Ripens the dulleſt earth, and warms it into gold.

Hence the inhabitants erected the celebrated Coloſſus one of the wonders of the world, to the honour of Apollo, or the ſun. The prodigious ſtatue was made of braſs, 70 cubits, or about 123 feet in height, proportionably big in every part. It ſtood aſtride over the haven, ſo that ſhips could ſail in and out between its legs. In one hand it held a light-houſe, and in the other a ſceptre: and its head repreſented a golden ſun. The diſtance between the two feet was 100 yards; and two men could ſcarce, with extended arms embrace its thumb. After having ſtood 66 years, it was overturned by an earthquake: and though the Rhodians collected from the various Grecian ſtates, a prodigious ſum to defray the expences of repairing it, yet the money was embezzled, and the image was ſuffered to lay on the ground for the ſpace of 894 years, when the Saracens took the city, and ſold it as old braſs to a Jew, who loaded 900 camels with it; the whole weight being 720,000lb. avoirdupoiſe. This wonderful work was made by Clares, a native of Rhodes, who was twelve years in completing it. Juſt on the ſpot where the feet ſtood, a caſtle on the one ſide, and a tower on the other were erected, and are ſtanding at preſent.

The modern Chriſtian inhabitants of this fine iſland are very poor, and are not ſuffered to live within the walls of the city, which privilege is however, granted to the Jews. The principal manufactures are ſoap, tapeſtry, and camblets; but the city is a mart for all the commodities and productions of the Levant: yet Rhodes is kept merely in oppoſition to the Chriſtians, as it does not remit any thing to the Grand Seignior, the Turkiſh baſhaw being allowed the whole of its revenues, to maintain the gallies, the garriſon, and himſelf.

CYPRUS.

This celebrated iſland lies between 34 and 36 deg. north lat. and between 33 and 36 deg. eaſt long. in the moſt eaſterly part of the Levant, and is the largeſt of all the iſlands of Aſia Minor, being 200 miles in length 46 in breadth where wideſt, and about 30 from the continent. The antients had many names for it, in particular they called it Macaria, on account of its ſurpriſing fertility; and Cyprus, the name it ſtill bears from the

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Engraved for BANKES's *New System of* GEOGRAPHY *Published by Royal Authority.*

View of SCIO *anciently called* CHIOS, *one of the most celebrated Cities in the Archipelago.*

Hawkins sculp.

Vestiges of the TEMPLE *of* JUNO *at* SAMOS, *an Asiatic Island under the Dominion of the Turks.*

the abundance of cypreſs-trees which it produced. The firſt mention we have of it in hiſtory is the conqueſt of it by Cyrus, who found it divided into nine petty kingdoms, each governed by its own ſovereign. The Ptolemies of Egypt then ſubjugated it. The Romans, and, after them, the emperors of Conſtantinople, poſſeſſed it. In 1191 it was conquered by Richard I. king of England, and given by him to Guy of Luſignan, whoſe ſucceſſors reigned over it till 1480, when the Venetians ſeized it, who remained maſters of it till 1570, when it was conquered by the Turks, who ſtill continue in poſſeſſion of it.

The ſoil produces all kinds of grain, wines, oil, ſugar, cotton, honey, ſaffron, wood, metals, minerals, plants, drugs, flowers, &c. all excellent in their kinds. It was formerly populous and opulent, but at preſent is but poor and thinly inhabited, which is chiefly owing to two cauſes, viz. the tyranny of the Turkiſh government, and the ſwarms of locuſts which for ſome ages paſt have infeſted it, to the frequent deſtruction of the produce of the earth. Their wool and cotton manufactures are the beſt in the eaſt, but the ſilk is very indifferent. By one of the Turkiſh baſhaws all the ſugar-canes in the iſland were deſtroyed. The people, however, have a great traffic in a delicious bird, which they catch in the month of September and October, and pickle in vaſt quantities to export to Venice, where they are much prized, and purchaſed at a high price by the voluptuous.

It was formerly divided into 12 diſtricts, each containing a large city, and the whole including 800 villages. The inhabitants were formerly a moſt debauched people, and, according to the moſt authentic accounts, their inclinations are as depraved as ever; but the Turkiſh government compels them to a more reſerved behaviour, and obliges them, at leaſt, to act with an outward appearance of decency. The preſent inhabitants are chiefly Greeks, who dreſs after the Italian faſhion, but retain their own religion and cuſtoms. The people of this iſland were converted to Chriſtianity by St. Paul and St. Barnabas, the latter of whom was a native of Cyprus. It gave birth to the poet Aſclepiades, Xenophon, Zeno, Apollonius, the famous biſhop Epiphanius, and ſeveral other great men.

Cyprus has no conſiderable rivers, but ſome famous mountains, particularly Olympus, whoſe height and extent are aſtoniſhing. On Mount Olympus, at the diſtance of every league, there is a Greek monaſtery; and a fountain ſaid to be erected by the empreſs Helena, the mother of Conſtantine the Great.

Hardly any veſtiges remain of the ancient city of Salamis, formerly celebrated for its temple of Jupiter, who was here repreſented by an image armed with thunder and lightning.

The principal places at preſent are the following:

Famaguſta, or Arſinoë, an elegant city, and good ſea port, pleaſantly ſituated, and defended by two forts: it is incloſed on two ſides by a ditch, and double wall, well fortified, and on the other two by the ſea. The Turks are ſenſible of the importance of this place, and, contrary to their uſual cuſtom, keep the fortifications in excellent repair. The governor of this city is accountable only to the Ottoman Porte, not being ſubordinate to the baſhaw of the iſlands. The Greeks and other Chriſtians are only permitted to keep ſhops here in the day-time, but are not allowed to lay in the city, which is, however, a biſhop's ſee, ſubject to the metropolitan of Nicoſia.

Though the laſt-mentioned is the moſt important place, yet Nicoſia is deemed the metropolis of Cyprus. This city, which is delightfully ſituated in the center of the iſland, was formerly the ſeat of the Cyprian monarchs. It was then nine miles in circuit, but is now dwindled to three. It is, however, ſtill a beautiful town of a circular form, ſurrounded with walls, defended by a deep ditch, and well fortified. It formerly contained 40,000 houſes, and ſeveral noble palaces; but many of the firſt, and all the latter, are fallen to decay, or have been pulled down. The beſt churches, particularly St. Sophia, the Turks have converted into moſques. The Greeks, Latins, Arminians, Neſtorians, Maronites, &c. have their churches and chapels allowed them. This city is the reſidence of the Turkiſh baſhaw and the Greek archbiſhop, the ſuffragans of the latter being the biſhops of Famaguſta, Paphos, Larneza, and Cerenes.

Larneza is a good ſea-port, in which the French and Venetians have a conſul. The houſes are, however, low and mean, and the inhabitants compoſed of Turks, Greeks, and ſome Europeans. The commodities are cotton, cotton yarn, wool, &c.

Cerenes, the ancient Ceraunia, is almoſt in ruins, though formerly a ſtrong and populous place.

Limiſſo is now nothing but a mean village, though it remains a biſhop's ſee; and the ſituation of the ancient city of Amatheus is not at preſent known.

Paphos, now called Baffa, is ſituated on the weſtern coaſt of the iſland. St. Paul in this city converted its governor Sergius, and ſtruck the necromancer Barjeſus with blindneſs; Acts xiii. 6. Though much decayed from its former glory, it is ſtill a biſhop's ſee, and a good ſea-port town. In ancient times it was much celebrated for its magnificent temple dedicated to Venus, from which the goddeſs of Love was called the Paphian Venus.

The condition of the votaries of this captivating goddeſs are thus finely deſcribed by Dryden:

In Venus' temple on the ſides were ſeen
The broken ſlumbers of enamour'd men:
Looks that e'en ſpoke, and pity ſeem'd to call,
And iſſuing ſighs that ſmok'd along the wall;
Complaints and hot deſires, the lover's hell,
And ſcalding tears that wore a channel where they fell;
Expence, and after-thought, and idle care,
And doubts of motly hue, and dark deſpair;
Suſpicions, and fantaſtical ſurmiſe,
And jealouſy ſuffus'd with jaundic'd eyes.

"We think it neceſſary to inform our readers, that "the Iſlands of the Archipelago, or Great Sea, de-"ſcribed in this Chapter, are only thoſe ſituated in "Aſia; the remainder belong to thoſe parts which are "ſituated in Europe, and will therefore be properly "deſcribed in their reſpective places, when we come "to a deſcription of that part of the globe. We make "this diſtinction in order to preſerve that order and "uniformity which is conſiſtent with our plan, and to "render our work deſerving the title of a Complete "and Univerſal Syſtem of Geography."

CHAP. XXII.

VARIOUS ISLANDS OFF THE COAST OF ASIA, IN THE GREAT PACIFIC OCEAN, &c.

Including Several diſcovered by our Countrymen, Captains COOK, CLERKE, GORE, KING, &c. ſome of which having been only ſeen, but not viſited, can admit but of ſmall Deſcription.

KERGUELEN'S LAND was diſcovered by Monſieur de Kerguelen, a French navigator, whoſe name it bears. It is ſituated in 48 deg. 41 min. ſouth lat. and 76 deg. 50 min. eaſt long. and was viſited by *Captain Cook* in 1776. Having come to an anchor in the harbour, in order to procure water, and nearly completed their quantity, the commander allowed the ſhips crews (Reſolution and Diſcovery) the 27th of December as a day of reſt to celebrate Chriſtmas; in conſequence of which many of them went on ſhore, and made excurſions into the country, which they found deſolate and barren in the extreme. In the evening one of them preſented a quart bottle to *Captain Cook*, which he had found on the north ſide of the harbour, faſtened with ſome wire to a projecting rock. This bottle contained a piece of parchment, with the following inſcription:

Ludovico XV. Galliarum
rege, et de Boynes
regia ſecretis ad res
maritimas annis 1772 *et*
1773.

Captain Cook, as a memorial of the Britiſh veſſels having been in this harbour, wrote on the other ſide of the parchment as follows:

Naves Reſolution
et Diſcovery
de Rege Magnæ Britanniæ
Decembris 1776.

He then put it again into the bottle, accompanied with a ſilver two-penny piece of 1772, covered the mouth of the bottle with a leaden cap, and placed it the next morning in a pile of ſtones, erected for that purpoſe on an eminence, near the place where it was firſt found. Here *Captain Cook* diſplayed the Britiſh flag, and named the place Chriſtmas Harbour, it being on that feſtival the veſſels arrived in it.

As to the iſland, he was unwilling to rob Monſieur de Kerguelen of the honour of its bearing his name; though, from its ſterility, it might properly be called "The Iſland of Deſolation."

Mr. Anderſon, who, during the ſhort time the ſhips lay in Chriſtmas Harbour, loſt no opportunity of ſearching the country in every direction, relates the following particulars.

No place (ſays he) hitherto diſcovered in either hemiſphere affords ſo ſcanty a field for the naturaliſt as this ſterile ſpot. Some verdure, indeed, appeared when at a ſmall diſtance from the ſhore, which might raiſe the expectation of meeting with a little herbage; but all this lively appearance was occaſioned by one ſmall plant, reſembling ſaxifrage, which grew up the hills in large ſpreading tufts, on a kind of rotten turf, which, if dried, might ſerve for fuel, and was the only thing ſeen here that could poſſibly be applied to that purpoſe.

Another plant, which grew to near the height of two feet, was pretty plentifully ſcattered about the boggy declivities; it had the appearance of a ſmall cabbage when it was ſhot into ſeeds. It had the watery acrid taſte of the antiſcorbutic plants, though it materially differed from the whole tribe. When eaten raw, it was not unlike the New-Zealand ſcurvy-graſs, but when boiled it acquired a rank flavour. At this time none of its ſeeds were ripe enough to be brought home, and introduced into our Engliſh kitchen-gardens.

Near the brooks and boggy places were found two other ſmall plants, which were eaten as ſallad; the one like garden creſſes, and very hot, and the other very mild. The latter is a curioſity, having not only male and female, but alſo androgynous plants.

Some coarſe graſs grew pretty plentifully in a few ſmall ſpots near the harbour, which was cut down for our cattle. In ſhort, the whole catalogue of plants did not exceed eighteen, including a beautiful ſpecies of lichen, and ſeveral ſorts of moſs. Nor was there the appearance of a tree or ſhrub in the whole country.

Among the animals the moſt conſiderable were ſeals, which were diſtinguiſhed by the name of ſea-bears, being the ſort that are called the urſine ſeal. They come on ſhore to repoſe and breed. At that time they were ſhedding their hair, and ſo remarkably tame, that there was no difficulty in killing them.

No other quadruped was ſeen; but a great number of oceanic birds, as ducks, ſhags, petrels, &c. The ducks were ſomewhat like a widgeon, both in ſize and figure. A conſiderable number of them were killed and eaten. They were excellent food, and had not the leaſt fiſhy taſte.

The Cape petrel, the ſmall blue one, and the ſmall black one, or Mother Carey's chicken, were not in plenty here; but another ſort, which is the largeſt of the petrels, and called by the ſeamen Mother Carey's goote, is found in abundance. This petrel is as large as an albatrous, and is carnivorous, feeding on the dead carcaſſes of ſeals, birds, &c.

The greateſt number of birds here were penguins, which conſiſt of three ſorts. The head of the largeſt is black, the upper part of the body of a leaden grey, the under part white, and the feet black; two broad ſtripes of fine yellow deſcend from the head to the breaſt: the bill is of a reddiſh colour, and longer than in the other ſorts. The ſecond ſort is about half the ſize of the former: it is of a blackiſh grey on the upper part of the body, and has a white ſpot on the upper part of the head: the bill and feet are yellowiſh. In the third ſort the upper part of the body and throat are black, the reſt white, except the top of the head, which is ornamented with a fine yellow arch, which it can erect as two creſts.

The ſhags here are of two ſorts, viz. the leſſer cormorant, or water-crow; and another with a blackiſh back and a white belly. The ſea-ſwallow, the tern, the common ſea-gull, and the Port Egmont hen, were alſo found here.

Large flocks of a ſingular kind of white bird flew about here, having the baſe of the bill covered with a horny cruſt. It had a black bill and white feet, was ſomewhat larger than a pigeon, and the fleſh taſted like that of a duck.

The ſeine was once hauled, when was found a few fiſh about the ſize of a ſmall haddock. The only ſhell-fiſh ſeen here were a few limpets and muſcles.

Many of the hills, notwithſtanding they were of a moderate height, were at that time covered with ſnow, though anſwering to our June. It is reaſonable to imagine that rain muſt be very frequent here, as well from the marks of large torrents having ruſhed down, as from the appearance of the country, which, even on the hills, was a continued bog or ſwamp.

The rocks conſiſt principally of a dark blue and very hard ſtone, intermixed with particles of glimmer, or quartz. Some conſiderable rocks were alſo formed here of a browniſh brittle ſtone.

PATERNOSTER ISLANDS, ſo called from the great number of rocks, which ſailors have likened to the beads with which the Roman Catholics tell their paternoſters. They abound in corn and fruits, and are rather populous, but contain nothing remarkable.

GEORGIA, a cluſter of barren iſlands, about 54 deg. 30 min. ſouth latitude, and 36 deg. 30 min. weſt long. one of which is between 50 and 60 leagues in length, but all contain nothing worth deſcription.

ISLAND OF HANDSOME PEOPLE lies in 10 deg. ſouth lat. and 185 deg. eaſt longitude. It is 18 miles in circumference, and was diſcovered by De Quiros in 1696. Notwithſtanding the exceſſive heat of the climate, the natives are remarkably fair and handſome, from whence the iſland had its name. They are covered only from the waiſt downwards with mats of palm, and wear a mantle of the ſame on their ſhoulders. Their houſes, which are thatched, ſtand in cluſters; and their canoes are trees hollowed out.

HORN or HOORN ISLAND is ſituated in 14 deg. 56 min. ſouth lat. and 179 deg. eaſt long. and was diſcovered in 1616 by Schouten.

The male natives of this iſland are tall, well made, and robuſt. They are nimble runners, expert ſwimmers, and good divers. Their complexion is a yelloviſh brown; and they take great pleaſure in dreſſing their hair, which is black. Some tie it, others frize it. Some let it grow down the waiſt, and tie it in five or ſix tails; and others dreſs it right an end, ſtanding up like hogs briſtles, ten or eleven inches long; but they do not ſuffer the beard to grow. The women are ſhort of ſtature, deformed both in features and body, and rather indecent in their behaviour. Both ſexes go naked, except a piece of covering between their legs; and the women rub their heads and cheeks with ſomething red.

Their land produces ſpontaneouſly a great variety of fruits, ſuch as cocoas, bananas, yams, &c. for they are ignorant of cultivation. At low water the women catch fiſh, which is eaten raw. They have alſo ſome hogs, which they cook wretchedly.

PRINCE EDWARD'S ISLANDS, lying in 51 deg. ſouth latitude, were diſcovered by two French navigators, on their paſſage from the Cape of Good Hope to the Philippine Iſlands. They are two in number, and, as they had no names in the French Chart of the Southern Hemiſphere, *Captain Cook*, when he ſaw them in 1776, called them Prince Edward's Iſlands. That which lay moſt to the ſouth appeared to be about fifteen leagues in circuit, and the moſt northerly about nine leagues. There are four others contiguous, called Marion and Crozet's Iſlands, from the names of the diſcoverers.

ADVENTURE ISLAND, ſo called from the ſhip Adventure, in which captain Furneaux ſailed to the South Seas. It lies in latitude 43 deg. 21 min. ſouth, and longitude 147 deg. 29 min. weſt. The natives are deſcribed as mild and cheerful, with little of that wild appearance which ſavages in general have, but at the ſame time totally devoid of perſonal activity or genius.

RESOLUTION, a ſmall Iſland, ſo called by *Captain Cook*, from his own ſhip the Reſolution. It lies in lat. 17 deg. 24 min. ſouth, and long. 141 deg. 45 min. weſt.

PALM ISLAND is ſituated on the coaſt of New South Wales, as are alſo the Iſlands SOLITARY, FURNEAUX, MARIAS, CUMBERLAND, NORTHUMBERLAND, and DIRECTION, ſo called by *Captain Cook*, who firſt explored this coaſt, and named them as above. They contain nothing worthy deſcription.

PRINCE OF WALES ISLANDS lie at the northern extremity of New Holland. They were obſerved at a diſtance to abound with trees and graſs, and were known to be inhabited from the ſmoak that was ſeen aſcending in many places.

BAY OF ISLANDS, a group of ſmall Iſlands ſituated on the coaſt of New Zealand: among which are included thoſe called GANNET, BANKS's, SOLANDER's, TRAP's, &c.

POTOE is an iſland ſituated about two leagues to the weſtward of the Grand or principal of the Ladrones. It is rocky and of ſmall extent.

SENTRY-BOX ISLAND is ſituated about a league and an half from the ſouth point of Chriſtmas Harbour in Kerguelen's Land, and ſo called from its reſembling a ſentry-box.

SOLOR lies to the ſouth of the Iſland of Celebes, in lat. 9 deg. ſouth, and long. 123 deg. 55 min. eaſt. It contains nothing remarkable.

NICOBAR ISLANDS lie at the entrance of the Gulph of Bengal. The natives are tall and well proportioned, with long faces, black eyes, black lank hair, and copper-coloured ſkins. They are ſaid to be an harmleſs, good ſort of people, and go quite naked, except a covering about the waiſt. They have neither temples nor idols, nor does there ſeem to be any great ſuperiority among them. They are excellent ſwimmers, and ſometimes will overtake ſmall veſſels under ſail. They live in little huts, having no towns, and the country is almoſt covered with wood. They have no corn, but a fruit which ſerves them inſtead of bread, and they catch plenty of fiſh. The largeſt of theſe iſlands, which gives name to the reſt, is about 40 miles in length, and 15 in breadth.

PORTLAND ISLAND lies to the ſouthward of the Society Iſles, and was ſo called by *Captain Cook*, who diſcovered it on his firſt voyage, from its reſemblance to that of the ſame name in the Britiſh Channel. Some parts of this iſland appeared to be cultivated, and pumice-ſtones in great quantities lying along the ſhore within the bay indicated that there was a volcano in the iſland. High palings upon the ridges of hills were alſo viſible in two places, which were judged to be deſigned for religious purpoſes.

BARE ISLAND, ſo called by *Captain Cook*, as it appeared to be barren, and inhabited only by fiſhermen. It lies in lat. 39 deg. 45 min. ſouth.

EAST ISLAND lies in lat. 37 deg. 42 min. ſouth. It appeared to *Captain Cook*, who diſcovered it alſo on his firſt voyage, ſmall and barren.

WHITE ISLAND is contiguous to the former.

MAYOR AND COURT OF ALDERMEN, a cluſter of ſmall iſlands lying in lat. 37 deg. 59 min. ſouth, about twelve miles from the main. They are moſtly barren, but very high.

MERCURY ISLANDS, a cluſter of different ſizes. The Bay is called alſo Mercury Bay, and lies in lat. 36 deg. 47 min. ſouth, long. 184 deg. 4 min. weſt, and has a ſmall entrance at its mouth.

HEN AND CHICKEN, ſmall iſlands ſituated in lat. 35 deg. 46 min. ſouth.

POOR KNIGHTS, a cluſter of iſlands lying in lat. 36 deg. 36 min. ſouth. On theſe iſlands were ſeen a few towns which appeared fortified, and the land round them ſeemed well inhabited.

CAVALLES ISLANDS, ſo called by *Captain Cook* from the name of ſome fiſh the crew purchaſed of the Indians.

dians. Theſe people were very inſolent, uſing many frantic geſtures, and throwing ſtones at the crew. Some ſmall ſhot were fired, and one of them being hit, they all made a precipitate retreat.

THREE KINGS. The chief of theſe iſlands lies in lat. 34 deg. 12 min. ſouth, and long. 187 deg. 48 min. weſt. Birds were ſhot upon it which nearly reſembled geeſe, and were very good eating.

HAMOTE, a little iſland in lat. 41 deg. ſouth, near Queen Charlotte's Sound.

ENTRY ISLE, an high iſland ſituate about nine or ten leagues from Cape Keamaroo, which lies in 41 deg. 44 min. ſouth lat. and 113 deg. 30 min. weſt long.

ISLAND OF LOOKERS ON, ſituated contiguous to the former, and ſo called by *Captain Cook*, becauſe the natives could not be prevailed on to approach the ſhip.

MAGNETICAL ISLAND, ſo called by *Captain Cook* becauſe the compaſs did not travel well when the ſhip was near it. It is ſaid to be high, rugged, rocky, and barren, yet not without inhabitants, for ſmoke was ſeen in ſeveral parts about it.

THE SISTERS. Theſe are two iſlands of very ſmall extent, plentifully ſtocked with wood, ſituate in the lat. of 5 deg. ſouth, and long. 106 deg. 12 min. eaſt, nearly ſouth and north from each other, and encompaſſed by a reef of coral rocks, the whole circuit of which is four or five miles.

CARACATOA is the ſouthernmoſt of a cluſter of iſlands lying in the entrance of the Straits of Sunda. Its ſouthern extremity is ſituated in the lat. of 6 deg. 9 min. ſouth, and long. 105 deg. 15 min. eaſt. Its whole circumference does not exceed nine miles. The iſland conſiſts of elevated land, gradually riſing from the ſea, and is entirely covered with trees, except a few ſpots cleared by the natives for the purpoſe of forming rice fields. The population of the iſland is inconſiderable. The coral reefs afford turtles in abundance, but other refreſhments are very ſcarce.

PULO-BALLY is an iſland about two miles round, and lies in the lat. of 00 deg. 30 min. ſouth. There is good anchorage to the eaſtward of it in 12 and 13 fathom water, muddy ground. It has abundance of wood and freſh water.

SCHOUTEN ISLANDS, ſo called from Schouten, a Dutch navigator, who diſcovered them in 1616, lie in lat. 00 deg. 46 min. ſouth.

SELANG lies in lat. 00 deg. 50 min. ſouth. It is not flat, or very high. It forms two harbours with the main land, an outer and an inner harbour. There is no danger in running into either, but what is plainly ſeen. The inner harbour is about two miles broad, and three long, and the general depth ten fathom.

PULO-GAG lies in 00 deg. 18 min. ſouth lat. and is an iſland of middling height. When plainly ſeen, it appears like the land of Europe, not being woody, as the iſlands in theſe parts generally are. The valley is ſaid to have a rich ſoil, and many ſago trees upon it. It is not inhabited, though travellers by water often put into the bay to paſs the night, and ſometimes ſtay there fiſhing ſeveral days.

PRINCES ISLAND lies in the weſtern mouth of the Straits of Sunda. It abounds with vegetables of various kinds, deer, turtle, &c. Our India ſhips uſed to touch here to take in water, but they have omitted this practice ſome years ſince; though *Captain Cook* ſays the water is exceeding good, if filled towards the head of the brook.

TOMOGUY is an iſland ſituated in 00 deg. 15 min. ſouth lat. and, in ſhape, reſembles a horſe-ſhoe. On the iſland riſes a hill, which takes up about three-fourths of its compaſs, and on the ſide of this hill are plantations of tropical fruits and roots.

WAGLOL is a ſmall flat iſland. Here it may not be improper to obſerve, that at moſt of theſe iſlands lives one or more of certain chiefs called Synagees, who repair on board ſuch veſſels as viſit them, in order to beg preſents. The dreſs of one of them is thus deſcribed: one half of the coat and long drawers was clouded red, white, and yellow; the other half blue, white, and green, clouded alſo; not unlike the whimſical dreſſes of maſquerades. His turban, made of coarſe white calico, was pinked.

The Mahometans upon theſe iſlands live moſtly upon fiſh and ſago bread. Sometimes they mix a cocoa-nut raſped down with the ſago flour, and putting this into a thin Chineſe iron pan, they keep ſtirring the mixture on the fire, and eat it warm. They alſo eat the ordinary white ſwallo, a root which is found every where in the ſand at low water. They eat it raw, cut up ſmall, and mixed with ſalt and lime-juice.

They have in this country the following peculiar method of drawing blood. They put the rough ſide of a certain leaf, about as large as a man's hand, on that part where they want to extract blood, then with the tongue they lick the upper ſide of the leaf, and the under ſide is preſently all over bloody.

In theſe parts grows a particular kind of green fruit, which the natives eat. It is as long as the hollow part of a quill, and almoſt as ſmall. They call it ciry. This fruit is very good in a curry or ſtew, leaving a fine aromatic flavour.

The two cluſters of iſlands Bo and Popo lie nearly in the ſame parallel of latitude, 1 deg. 17 min. ſouth. They are about five leagues aſunder. Bo conſiſts of ſix or ſeven iſlands.

Theſe iſlands, which have a good many inhabitants, can ſupply plenty of cocoa-nuts, ſalt, and dried fiſh. To the weſtward of the cluſter, but contiguous to it, are about nine or ten ſmall low iſlands. To the eaſtward, on two iſlands, are two little hills, which, at a diſtance, look like two tea-cups, bottom-up. Theſe iſlands are ſaid to be well inhabited, and here reſides a rajah.

It is affirmed by an authentic writer, with reſpect to the inhabitants of theſe parts, that not only women often kill or burn themſelves with their deceaſed huſbands, but men alſo, in honour of their deceaſed maſters. Thoſe who determine on this are not limited to time; they name, perhaps, a diſtant day, and in the mean while, their intention being made known, there is no honour the natives can think of, but they pay to the devotee. He is careſſed wherever he goes. On the fatal day, by the ſide of a great fire, a looſe ſtage of boards is erected; on this he dances, working himſelf up to a fit. He then ſkips to the end of a plank, which tilting, he falls headlong into the flames.

The north coaſt of the ISLAND of WAYGIOW, which lies about half a degree to the northward of the equator, is near 15 leagues in length. The hill on Gibby Monpine, (a particular quarter of Waygiow,) which, from its ſhape, is called the Cock's Comb, may be ſeen about 20 leagues off. Some white ſpots appear on it. Oppoſite to the entrance of the harbour are two little iſlands, one ſhaped like a ſugar-loaf, the other with a hillock on it. At the bottom of this hillock is a piece of freſh water, where there is anchorage in twelve fathoms ſand. The two iſlands are joined by a reef of coral rocks, dry at low water. There are ſaid to be 100,000 inhabitants upon the iſland, who wage perpetual war with one another. Offak harbour lies in 00 deg. 19 min. north latitude. Near this iſland two fiſh were taken, the heads of which were remarkable for an horn

that

that projected from between their eyes. The horn was about four inches long, equal in length to the head. All together the head was like that of an unicorn. The natives called it Een Raw, that is the fish Raw. The skin was black, and the body might be twenty inches long. Its tail was armed with two strong scythes on each side, with their points forwards.

THE ISLAND of ABDON lies in 00 deg. 36 min. north latitude. It is about three miles round, and 200 feet high. KONIBAR may be about the same height and size: it is north of Abdon. The rest of the sixteen islands that form this cluster are flat and low, except Aiow Babar, which rises about 500 feet. On Konibar are said to be plantations of yams, potatoes, sugar canes, and other tropical productions.

The inhabitants of these islands have fish and turtle in such abundance (and especially cockles about the bigness of a man's head), that they neglect agriculture. When they want bread, they carry live turtle, and sausages made of their eggs, dried fish, to Waygiow, which they truck for sago, either baked or raw; nay, perhaps go to the woods and provide themselves, by cutting down the trees. On these excursions they often carry their wives and families.

SANGIR is an oblong island, extending from 3 deg. 30 min. to 4 deg. 30 min. north latitude. It is broadest towards the north, and tapers small towards the south. About the middle of the west coast of the island is the town, harbour, and bay of Taroona, opposite which, on the east coast, is also a town and harbour, called Tabookang. It abounds in cocoa-nuts, as do many islands that lie near it. A fathom of small brass wire, such as is used at the end of a fishing-line, will purchase 100 cocoa nuts, an ordinary knife 300, and four knives a battel (60 lb.) of cocoa-nut oil.

TULOUR, or TANNA LABU, lies in 4 deg. 45 min. north latitude. It is situated about 70 miles east of the north part of Sangir. It is of middling height. The inhabitants live on the sea-coast, and have their plantations up the country.

SALIDABO ISLAND lies to the southward of Tulour, being divided only by a narrow strait, about a mile wide. It is not above eight or ten miles in circumference, is admirably cultivated, and contains several villages.

KABRUANG lies to the south-east of SALIDABO, and is parted from it by a strait about four miles wide. This island is in high cultivation, and also contains several villages.

TAGULANDA contains about 2000 inhabitants, who, being Pagans, eat pork. On the island are many goats, some bullocks, and cocoa-nuts in abundance. The Dutch keep here a corporal and two soldiers, also a schoolmaster for teaching the children the principles of Christianity. Three prongs, a kind of large chopping-knives, will purchase a bullock, and one a thousand cocoa nuts.

BANKA ISLAND is near Tagulanda, and remarkable for a high hill. It has a harbour on its south end, is pretty well inhabited, and abounds in cocoa-nuts, limes, nankas or jacks, fish, turtle, and rattans.

TELLUSYANG ISLAND, that is, Harbour of Syang, is contiguous to Banka Island. This harbour, which is said to be a good one, is on the south end of the island, which has a hill upon it. There are some wild cattle, but no other inhabitants. These islands are much frequented by cruizers, not only from Mindanao, but from Sooloo.

SOOLOO ISLAND is situated in 6 deg. north latitude, and 119 deg. east longitude. It is 30 miles long, 12 broad, and contains a great number of inhabitants. It is governed by a king of its own. It is well cultivated, and affords a fine prospect from the sea. Indeed, the island being rather small for its number of inhabitants, they study agriculture more than those on the adjacent ones, where land is not deemed so valuable. As they cannot depend on a crop of rice, not being sure of rain in due season, they cultivate many roots; the Spanish, or sweet potatoe; the clody, or St. Hillano yam; the China yam, both red and white; sending to Mindanao for what rice they consume. They have great variety of fine tropical fruits. Their oranges are full as good as those of China. They have also a variety of the fruit called jack, or nake; a kind of large custard apple, named madang; mangos; and a fruit they call bolona, like a large plumb or mango, white inside. They enjoy, in great abundance, a very innocent and delicious fruit, called lancey. The trees in the woods are loaded with this fruit, which is large, and ripens well. The Sooloos having great connexion with China, and many Chinese being settled among them, they have learned the art of engrafting and improving their fruits. Here is no spice tree but the cinnamon.

This island enjoys a perpetual summer. Up the country it is always cool, especially under the shade of the toak trees, which are very numerous. This tree has a broad leaf, which, when bruised between the fingers, stains the hand red. The industrious Chinese gather these leaves, and the leaves of the fruit-tree called madang, to line the baskets of cane or bamboo, in which they pack up the Sooloo root, which they export in great quantities from this place.

The Sooloos are not only neat in their cloaths, but dress gaily. The men go generally in white waistcoats, buttoned down to the wrist, with white breeches, sometimes strait, sometimes wide.

The women are handsome in general, and, by comparison, fair. Those of rank wear waistcoats of fine muslin, close fitted to their bodies; their necks, to the upper parts of the two breasts, being bare. From the waist downwards, they wear a loose robe, girt with an embroidered zone or belt about the middle, with a large clasp of gold, and a precious stone. This being loose, like a petticoat, comes over the drawers, and reaches to the middle of the leg, the drawers, which are of fine muslin, reaching to the ancle.

The sultanship in Sooloo is hereditary, but the government mixed. About fifteen datoos, who may be called the nobility, make the greater part of the legislature. The title is hereditary to the eldest son, and they sit in council with the sultan. The sultan has two votes in this assembly, and each datoo has one.

The common people in Sooloo, called tellimanhood, do not enjoy much real freedom. It is said that their haughty lords, when visiting their estates, will sometimes, with impunity, demand and carry off young women, whom they happen to fancy, to swell the number of their sandles (concubines) at Sooloo. Indeed, the lower class groan under various kinds of tyranny.

The nobles here are extremely dissolute. Those who have more than one wife, which is not very common, keep each in a separate house: but their dissoluteness consists in their numerous concubines and intrigues; for here women have as much liberty in going abroad as in Europe.

The Sooloos have a very good breed of horses, and their women are very expert in riding. Their manner is to ride backwards and forwards the length of a long broad street upon sandy ground, forcing their horses on a quick trot, and checking them when they attempt to gallop. The horses, accustomed to this, trot very fast. Riding is an exercise women of fashion use all over the island.

Here are wild elephants, the off-spring (as is supposed with good foundation) of those sent in former days from the continent of India as presents to the kings of Sooloo. Those animals avoid meeting with horned

cattle, though they are not ſhy of horſes. Sooloo has ſpotted deer, and abundance of goats and black cattle, but the people ſeldom milk their cows. They have very few ſheep, but the wild hogs are numerous, and do much miſchief by breaking down fences. After harveſt the inhabitants hunt the elephants and wild hogs, endeavouring to deſtroy them.

Of birds there are here abundance of diminutive cocatooes and ſmall green parrots.

At Sooloo and the iſlands adjacent the pearl fiſhery has been famous for many ages. In the ſea between Mindanao and Sooloo is a pearl fiſhery not inferior to any in the Indies either in point of colour or ſize. This, indeed, is the ſource of their wealth.

The Sooloos have in their families many ſlaves whom they purchaſe from the different cruizers. Sometimes they purchaſe whole cargoes, which they carry to Borneo, where, if the females are handſome, they are bought up for the Batavia market. The maſters ſometimes uſe their ſlaves cruelly, aſſuming the power of life and death over them. Many are put to death for trifling offences, and their bodies left above ground. An attempt of elopement is here ſeldom pardoned.

The ſtate of Sooloo is important: the inhabitants are very powerful, not only moſt of the adjacent iſlands being under them, but great part of Borneo. They have the character of being treacherous, and of endeavouring always to ſupply by fraud what they cannot effect by force.

PANGATARRAN, lying a little to the ſouthward of the former, is a long flat iſland, has no freſh water, nor is any good anchoring near, except in ſome few places. It abounds in cocoa nuts and a fruit called Guava.

RAMANCOR lies in lat. 9 deg. 25 min. north, and long. 179 deg. 45 min. eaſt. It is about 23 miles in circumference, very ſandy, and has only a few villages in it and a temple.

PULO-SAPATA is ſituated in lat. 10 deg. 4 min. north, and long. 109 deg. 10 min. eaſt. It is elevated, ſmall, and untertile.

PRATA lies in lat. 20 deg. north. Near the ſouthern extremity of the iſland ſome of the crew of the Reſolution imagined they ſaw from the maſt-head ſeveral openings in the reef, which ſeemed to promiſe ſecure anchorage. The extent of the Prata ſhoal is conſiderable, being about ſix leagues from north to ſouth.

MYO lies in lat. 1 deg. 23 min. north. TYFORY is a flat iſland not ſo large as Myo, and lies about W. by S. from it, diſtant five or ſix miles. It was formerly inhabited when the Spaniards had the Moluccas; but the Dutch will not now permit any one to live there leſt it ſhould be convenient for the ſmuggling of ſpices.

KARAKITA, PALLA, SIAO, and GRAVE, are the principal of a cluſter of iſlands lying between the lat. of 3 and 4 deg. north. At Siao the Dutch entertain a ſchoolmaſter, a corporal, and a few ſoldiers.

The RABBIT is a ſmall rocky iſland with a few cocoa-nut trees upon it, and many rocks like ſugar-loaves round it. It lies to the eaſtward of Karakita about four miles, and derived its name from its ſhape.

SULPHUR ISLAND, diſcovered by *Captain Gore*, is in 24 deg. 50 min. north latitude, and 140 deg. 56 min. eaſt longitude. Its length is about five miles. The ſouth point is an elevated barren hill, rather flat at the ſummit, and when ſeen from the weſt ſouth-weſt, exhibits evident tokens of a volcanic eruption. The ſand, earth, or rock (for it was difficult to diſtinguiſh of which of theſe ſubſtances its ſurface was compoſed), diſplayed various colours; and it was imagined that a conſiderable part was ſulphur, not only from its appearance to the eye, but from the ſtrong ſulphurous ſmell perceived in approaching the point. As the Reſolution paſſed nearer the land than the Diſcovery, ſeveral of the officers of that ſhip thought they diſcerned ſteams proceeding from the top of the hill: theſe circumſtances induced Captain Gore to beſtow on this diſcovery the appellation of Sulphur Iſland.

BURNEY'S ISLAND is ſituated on the north-eaſt coaſt of Aſia, in 67 deg. 45 min. north latitude. The inland country about this part abounds with hills, ſome of which are of conſiderable elevation. *Captain Cook* obſerves, that the land in general was covered with ſnow, except a few ſpots on the coaſt.

ST. LAWRENCE'S ISLAND, according to the moſt accurate obſervations, lies in 63 deg. 47 min. north lat. and 188 deg. 15 min. eaſt longitude. The northern part of it may be diſcerned at the diſtance of ten or twelve leagues. It is about three leagues in circumference.

BHERING'S ISLAND, ſo called from the navigator who diſcovered it, lies in 58 degrees north latitude. KARAKINSKOI, MAIDENOI, ATAKA, and SHAIMEA, are all iſlands that lie contiguous, ſaid to be little cultivated, and very thinly, if at all, inhabited.

GORE ISLAND, ſo named by *Captain Cook*, who diſcovered it in his laſt voyage, lies in about 64 deg. north lat. and 191 deg. eaſt longitude. It is about 30 miles in extent, and appeared to our navigators to be barren, and deſtitute of inhabitants.

A NEW and ACCURATE MAP of AFRICA, Drawn from the best AUTHORITIES. by Thos Bowen.

EUROPE

ASIA

AFRICA

AMERICA

ATLANTIC OCEAN

INDIAN OCEAN

SOUTHERN OCEAN

BLACK SEA

MEDITERRANEAN SEA

ARABIAN DESERT

PERSIA

ARABIA

EASTERN

WESTERN

SPAIN

ITALY

ASIA MINOR

SYRIA

EGYPT

BARBARY

BILEDULGERID

DESERT OF ZAARA

NIGRITIA

NEGROLAND

GUINEA

GRAIN COAST

TOOTH COAST

GOLD COAST

SLAVE COAST

BENIN

BIAFARA

ABYSSINIA

ADEL

GALLA

NUBIA

YEMEN

UNKNOWN

COUNTRY

MONOMOTAPA

HOTENTOTS

MADAGASCAR

ZANGUEBAR

Equinoctial Line

Tropic of Capricorn

Tropic of Cancer

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A NEW, ROYAL, AUTHENTIC

And COMPLETE SYSTEM of

UNIVERSAL GEOGRAPHY.

BOOK III.

AFRICA,

Including the New Diſcoveries on the Continent and Iſlands off the Coaſt.

INTRODUCTION.

AFRICA is of vaſt extent, encompaſſed all round by the ſea, except at the Iſthmus, or narrow neck of land, at Suez, which ſeparates the Mediterranean from the Red Sea, whilſt it joins the Continent of Aſia to that of Africa. Its utmoſt length from N. to S. on both ſides of the Equator, that is, from Cape Bona, in the Mediterranean, northward, to the Cape of Good Hope, ſouthward, is 4300 miles. Its breadth, from Cape Verd to Cape Guarda Fui, near the Straits of Babel Mandel, is 3500 miles. It is bounded on the N. by the Mediterranean Sea, by which it is divided from Europe; on the S. by the Pacific Ocean; on the E. by the Iſthmus of Suez, the Red Sea, and the Indian Ocean; and on the W. by the Great Atlantic, which ſeparates it from America.

As the Equinoctial paſſes through the middle of Africa, and the greater part of it lies between the Tropics, the heat, in the inland parts eſpecially, is almoſt inſupportable to Europeans. Though, from ſituation, the climate can have but little variation, moſt parts of this region are inhabited. The natives of theſe ſultry climes are unacquainted with ſnow and ice, nor ever dream of the poſſibility of fluids being conſolidated by the cold. The ſoil, through extreme heat, as well as drought, from want of rain, is, in general, ſterile; but on the coaſts and banks of rivers, particularly thoſe of the Nile, are fertilized by inundations.

The principal rivers of Africa are the Nile and the Niger. The Niger falls into the Atlantic, or Weſtern Ocean, at Senegal, after a winding courſe of 2800 miles: but the Nile has, from time immemorial, obtained the firſt rank, upon many valuable accounts. This celebrated river divides Egypt into two parts, and, after a vaſt courſe, from its ſource in Abyſſinia, diſcharges itſelf into the Mediterranean. There are alſo the rivers Gambia and Senegal which are branches of the Nile, and ſeveral others of leſs note.

The moſt conſiderable mountains in Africa are the following. The Greater and Leſſer Atlas. The former ſtretches to the Atlantic Ocean weſtward, to which it gives its name. The latter, called alſo Lant, and by the inhabitants Errif, is a ridge extending along the Mediterranean, from the Straits of Gibraltar to the city of Bona on the ſame coaſt. The mountains of the Sun and Moon, called by the Spaniards Montes Claros, are famous for their prodigious height. The Sierra Leona, or Mountains of Lions, ſo called from the number of thoſe fierce creatures which range at large on them, divide Nigritia from Guinea, and extend as far as Ethiopia. The Peak or Pike of Teneriffe, which is ſaid to be ſtill higher than any of the reſt, in the form of a ſugar-loaf, is ſituated on an iſland of the ſame name near the coaſt.

Though the ſituation of Africa, as a peninſula, as it were, in the center of the globe, is extremely favourable for commerce; though the country abounds with gold, as appears from the concurrent teſtimonies of the Engliſh, Dutch, and French, who have ſettlements on the coaſts, the natives derive little benefit from navigation. In ſhort, Africa, ſtored with treaſure, and capable, under improvement, of producing ſo many things, delightful as well as convenient, within itſelf, ſeems to be too much neglected, not only by the natives, but alſo by the more civilized Europeans who are ſettled in it.

Africa was once, indeed, famous for the liberal arts, for opulence and commerce. It has given birth to eminent divines, heroes, and poets: but the natives are now degenerated to ſuch a degree, as to become odious to a proverb. Its chief commerce is that of all others the moſt diſgraceful to human nature, namely, the ſale of our fellow-creatures; a practice attended with ſuch circumſtances of horror and barbarity, as cannot but thrill the breaſt that is not ſteeled againſt the nicer feelings. Upon the whole, the nature of the clime, the brutality of the natives, and the ferocity of the beaſts, diſplay the powerful effects of exceſſive heat both on the vegetable and animal creation; while the ſucceſſive depredations of different nations have reduced it to the loweſt ebb of ignorance and barbarity.

A GENERAL

A GENERAL TABLE OF THE CONTINENT OF AFRICA, &c.

Nations.			Length.	Breadth.	Principal Cities.	Dist. & Bear. from London.	
Included under the general Names of	Barbary	Morocco	500	480	Morocco	1080	S.
		Algiers	480	100	Algiers	920	S.
		Tunis	220	170	Tunis	990	S. E.
		Tripoli	700	240	Tripoli	1260	S. E.
		Barca	400	300	Tolemata	1400	S. E.
	Beledulgerid		2500	350	Dara	1565	
	the Defart	Zaara	2400	660	Tigeſſa	1840	S.
		Tombut	Limits uncertain		Tombuto		
	Negroland	Sierra Leona					
		Mundingo					
		Pholey and Jaloffs Countries	2200	840	Mundingo	2500	
	Guinea	Slave Coaſt			Great Popo		
		Gold Coaſt			Acra, Crevecoeur, Fort James		
		Tooth Coaſt			Laho		
		Grain Coaſt			No Towns		
		Whidah			Xavier		
		Ardrah	1800	360	Aſſem	1700	S.
		Fetu			Cape Coaſt Caſtle		
		Commendo			Little Commendo		
		Jaby			No Town		
		Anta			Bourtray		
		Axim			Achombone		
	Benin		Limits uncertain		Benin	2800	S.
	Congo	Benguela	430	180	Benguela	3900	S.
		Angola	360	250	Loando	3750	S.
		Congo Proper	540	420	Saint Salvador	3480	S.
		Loango	410	300	Loango	3300	S.
	Monomotapa	Monomotapa	960	660	Monomotapa	4500	S.
		Monomugi	900	660	Chicova	4260	S.
	Caffraria		780	660	Cape Town	5200	S.
	Zanguebar	Melinda					
		Moſambique	1400	350	Melinda or Moſambique	4440	S. E.
		Sofala					
	Abex		540	130	Doncala	3580	S. E.
	Upper Ethiopia	Anian					
		Magadoxa					
		Brana	900	800	Gondar	2800	S. E.
		Abyſſinia					
	Nubia		940	600	Nubia	2418	S. E.
	Egypt		600	250	Grand Cairo	1020	S. E.

ISLANDS.

Names.	Where ſituated.		Chief Towns.	Trade with or belong to.
Madeiras	Atlantic Ocean.		Santa Cruz and Funchal	Portugueſe
Canaries			Palma, St. Chriſtopher	Spaniards
Cape de Verd			St. Domingo	Portugueſe
Goree			Fort St. Michael	French
Biſſao			Have no Towns, the Natives living in ſcattered Huts	All Nations
Biſſagoes				
Saint Helena			St. Helena	Engliſh
Aſcenſion				Uninhabited
Saint Matthew				
Annabon				
Saint Thome			St. Thomas and Anaboa	Portugueſe
Prince's Iſle				
Fernando Po				
Bourbon	Indian Ocean.		Bourbon	French
Mauritius			Mauritius	French
Madagaſcar			St. Auſtin	All Nations
Comora Iſles			Joanna	All Nations
Zocrata			Calanſia	
Babel-mandel			Babel-mandel	

Oceans, Seas, &c.	Rivers.	Mountains.	Religions.	Languages.		Capes and Straits.
Atlantic, Pacific, Indian } Ocean	Niger	Atlas	Pagan	Coptic	Negro Dialects	Cape de Verd
	Nile	Moon, Lion } Mountains	Mahometan	Arabic	Portugueſe	Cape of Good Hope
	Gambia		Chriſtian	Greek	Dutch	Strait of Babel-mandel
Mediterranean, Red } Sea	Senegal	Teneriff		African or Moriſco	French Lingua Franca	

CHAP. I.

CAFFRERIA, or the Country of the Hottentots.

SECTION I.

Name, Boundaries, Extent, Diviſion.

THERE are many places in the rude and uncivilized parts of the world, which ſeem, from the nature of their ſituation, admirably adapted for the purpoſes both of navigation and commerce; but which have been neglected through the inſuperable indolence of the natives. No inſtance affords a greater proof of the truth of this remark than the country now under conſideration, which (according to the accounts of Captain Cook and other late navigators) from its contiguity to the ſea, and that profuſion of ſpontaneous productions of nature in the vegetable ſyſtem, apparent both on its plains and vallies, evidently wants nothing but the exertion of human induſtry in the grand points of navigation and cultivation to render it both advantageous and comfortable to its inhabitants.

Authors are divided with reſpect to the origin of the name of this country: ſome ſuppoſe it to be derived from Caffies, the appellation given to ſome of its inhabitants; while others maintain that it is a ſtigma affixed on them by the Arabs in common with all who do not profeſs the Mahometan religion; aſſigning as a reaſon, that Caffreria is derived from Cafir, an Arabic word ſignifying an Infidel.

Caffreria is bounded on the north by Negroland and Abyſſinia, on the eaſt by the Ocean, on the ſouth by the Cape of Good Hope, and on the weſt by a part of Guinea. It is computed at about 708 miles in length and 660 in breadth.

This region may be divided into two parts; the northern, including Caffreria Proper; and the ſouthern, comprehending the country of the Hottentots. Caffreria Proper being little known by Europeans, we ſhall begin with the country of the Hottentots, after having premiſed ſome particulars relative to the Cape of Good Hope.

SECTION II.

Deſcription of the Cape of Good Hope. Situation. Diſcovery. Foundation of the Dutch Settlement. Climate. Soil. Productions. Mountains. Curioſities deſcribed by our countryman Captain Cook. Account of Cape Town.

THE Cape of Good Hope, which is the ſouthern extremity of Africa, lies in 34 deg. 29 min. ſouth lat. and 81 deg. 23 min. eaſt long. It was diſcovered by the Portugueſe in 1493, but they never made any ſettlement. The Dutch firſt viſited it in 1600, and for many years afterwards touched at it in their voyages to and from the Eaſt Indies for refreſhments. The idea of forming a ſettlement there was firſt ſuggeſted in 1650 to the Dutch Eaſt India Company by M. Van Riebeck, a ſurgeon of one of their ſhips, who pointed out the advantages that might accrue from ſuch an undertaking. The ſcheme meeting the approbation of the directors, the propoſer was pitched upon as the propereſt perſon to carry it into execution. Four ſhips were fitted out for the Cape, having on board artificers, materials, implements, and ſtores neceſſary for the occaſion. M. Van Riebeck, veſted with his credentials, ſailed accordingly, and on his arrival at the Cape ſo effectually conciliated the natives by the diſtribution of the commodities he took, ſuch as braſs, toys, beads, tobacco, brandy, &c. that a treaty was concluded, by which it was ſtipulated, that in conſideration of certain articles to the amount of 50,000 guilders being delivered up to the natives, the Dutch ſhould have full liberty to ſettle there.

A fort was then built, together with dwelling-houſes, warehouſes, an hoſpital for the reception of the ſick, and proper fortifications, and the Dutch trade eſtabliſhed on a good and ſolid foundation, with many conſiderable privileges of great advantage to their commerce in the Indies. In proceſs of time the trade as well as number of ſettlers was ſo greatly increaſed, that it was judged expedient to augment the garriſon and enlarge the ſtore-houſes; and in order to be provided againſt attempts from any of the European powers, who began to envy the advantage the Dutch received from their ſettlement, a fort was built in a better ſituation than the firſt, which at different times was ſo conſiderably augmented, that at length it became a ſtrong and elegant building, provided with every kind of accommodation. The number of ſettlers afterwards increaſing to a conſiderable degree, they were obliged to extend themſelves in colonies along the coaſt, and were divided into four principal ones, viz. Cape, Hellenbogeſh, Drakenſtein, and Waveren. So that the province is of great extent, and the government of it a very conſiderable poſt.

The climate would be intolerable, if the heat was not mitigated by the winds which blow from the ſouthern ocean. Violent ſtorms frequently ariſe, which, though they render the coaſt very dangerous, are abſolutely neceſſary to the health of the inhabitants.

Captain Cook ſays, the land over the Cape of Good Hope is mountainous and barren: beyond theſe mountains the country is covered with a light ſand, which will not admit of cultivation. There are, indeed, a few cultivated ſpots, but they bear no proportion to the others. Proviſions are brought to the Cape from a diſtance ſome hundred miles up the country.

The ſame celebrated navigator likewiſe affirms, that notwithſtanding the natural ſterility of the climate, the induſtry of Europeans produces all the neceſſaries and moſt of the luxuries of life. The beef and mutton are excellent, though the oxen and ſheep are natives of the country. The cattle are lighter than ours, moſt neatly made, and have much wider horns. The ſheep are clothed with a ſubſtance between wool and hair, and have tails of an enormous ſize, ſome weighing upwards of twelve pounds. Good butter is made from the milk of cows, but the cheeſe is very inferior to ours. Here are hogs and a variety of poultry; alſo goats, but theſe are never eaten. The hares are exactly like thoſe in Europe. There are quails of two ſorts, and buſtards, all well flavoured but not juicy. The fields produce European wheat and barley; the gardens European vegetables and fruits of all kinds; beſides plantains, guavas, jamba, and other Indian fruits, but theſe are not in perfection. The vineyards alſo produce wines of various ſorts, but not equal to thoſe of Europe, except the Conſtantia, which is made genuine only at one vineyard, about ten miles diſtant from Cape Town. There is another vineyard near it, where wine is made and called by the ſame name, but it is greatly inferior. Proviſions in general are ſold very cheap to the Dutch, who make all other Europeans that touch there pay dear for them.

When we ſpeak of agriculture, it is to be confined to Europeans; for ſuch is the indolence of the Hottentots, that they deteſt cultivation and every kind of labour.

While *Captain Cook* lay here, a farmer came to the

Cape, bringing his young children with him from a diſtance ſome hundred miles up the country, and which took him fifteen days journey. On being aſked why he had not left his children with ſome neighbour, he ſaid there were no inhabitants within five days journey of his farm. There are no trees that are even two yards in height, except in ſome plantations in the vicinity of Cape Town.

The animals found at the Cape are very numerous, as the elephant, rhinoceros, lion, tyger, leopard, buffalo, elk, hart, Cape-ſheep, wild aſs, zebra, wild goat, wolf, tyger, civet-cat, &c.

There is great variety of birds and fowls, as wild geeſe, gulls, penguins, oſtriches, peacocks, pheaſants, ſnipes, ravens, owls, &c. But the moſt ſingular is a particular kind of eagle called dung-birds. They will attack an horſe or cow in great flights, and making a hole in the belly of the beaſt with their beaks and talons, ſcoop out the inſide, leaving only the bones and hide. The ſeas adjoining to the Cape abound with various kinds of fiſh.

As a very ſingular curioſity, we cannot omit to inſert the deſcription of an extraordinary ſpecies of cuckow, communicated in a letter from a member of the Royal Academy in Stockholm to a Fellow of the Royal Society in London. "The Dutch ſettlers (ſays he) at the place where theſe birds are found, have given them the name of Konig-wiſer, or Honey-guide, from its diſcovering wild honey to travellers. It has nothing remarkable either in colour or ſize, but the inſtinct which prompts it to ſeek its food is truly admirable. Not only the Dutch and Hottentots, but likewiſe a ſpecies of quadruped which the Dutch name a Ratel (probably a new ſpecies of badger) are frequently conducted to wild bee hives by this bird, which, as it were, pilots them to the very ſpot. The honey being its favourite food, its own intereſt prompts it to be inſtrumental in robbing the hives, as ſome ſcraps are commonly left for its ſupport. The morning and evening are its times of feeding, when it is heard calling in a ſhrill tone Cherr Cherr, to which the honey-hunters carefully attend, as the ſummons to the chaſe. From time to time they anſwer with a ſoft whiſtle, which the bird hearing, always continues its note. As ſoon as they are in ſight of each other, the bird gradually flutters towards the place where the hive is ſituated, continually repeating its former call of Cherr Cherr. At laſt, the bird is obſerved to hover for a ſhort time over a certain ſpot, and then ſilently retiring to an adjoining buſh, or other reſting-place, the hunters are ſure of finding the bees neſt in that very ſpot. While the hunters are buſy in taking the honey, the bird is ſeen looking on attentively to what is going forward, and waiting for its ſhare of the ſpoil. The bee-hunters never fail to leave a ſmall portion for their conductor, but commonly take care not to leave as much as would ſatisfy its hunger. The bird's appetite being only whetted by this parſimony, it is obliged to make another diſcovery in hopes of a better reward. It is further to be obſerved, that the nearer the bird approaches the hidden hive, the more frequently it repeats its call, and ſeems more impatient."

The reptiles of this country are various, and among them they have the ſix following of the ſerpent kind, viz. the tree ſerpent, the aſh-coloured aſp, the ſhoot ſerpent, the blind ſlow-worm, the thirſt ſerpent, and the hair ſerpent. There are alſo many inſects of divers kinds.

In the neighbourhood of the Cape are three principal eminences, called the Table-hill, Lion-hill, and Wind-hill. There are no navigable rivers in this country, but the brooks and rivulets which deſcend from the mountains tend greatly to the fertilization of the land.

Captain Cook, when he touched at the Cape in his LAST voyage, went, accompanied by a party, to ſee a remarkable large ſtone in the colony of Drakenſtein, called by the inhabitants The Tower of Babylon, or the Pearl Diamond. It ſtands on the top of ſome low hills, is of an oblong ſhape, rounded on the top, and lying nearly ſouth and north. The circumference of this ſtone is about half a mile, as the party were half an hour walking round it, including allowances for ſtopping and a bad road. Its height ſeemed to equal the dome of St. Paul's cathedral in London. Except ſome few fiſſures, it is one uninterrupted maſs of ſtone.

Cape Town, the principal European ſettlement here, ſituated in Cape-Colony, in 34 deg. 15 min. ſouth lat. and 16 deg. 5 min. eaſt long. is large, commodious, pleaſant, and populous; the ſtreets are ſpacious, and regularly laid out; the houſes are tolerably handſome, but very low, and only thatched; in general they have pleaſant gardens behind, and neat court-yards before them. Building, as well as tillage, is greatly encouraged at the Cape, and land given for either purpoſe to thoſe who chuſe to accept of it; but then the government claims an annual tenth of the value of the former and produce of the latter, and a tithe of all purchaſe money when eſtates are ſold. The town extends from the ſea-ſhore to the Company's garden, ſpreading along the Table Bay. The fort is in a valley at a ſmall diſtance, and its form is pentagonal: it commands the landing place, and is garriſoned by 200 ſoldiers: the government ſtore-houſes are within it; the governor and other officers have apartments here, as well as 600 ſervants: the ſame number of ſlaves are lodged in a commodious building in the town, which is divided into two wards, the one for the men, and the other for the women; and the diſſolute of either ſex are ſent to a houſe of correction.

The Dutch ſhips derive great benefit on their outward and homeward bound paſſages to and from India from the hoſpital founded here for diſeaſed mariners.

The church is a large commodious edifice, elegantly plain, but the roof and ſteeple are thatched. Thatching, indeed, from the nature of the hurricanes, ſeems abſolutely neceſſary, but from the method in which it was formerly done, it appears that it was frequently attended with danger, as we are informed that there were formerly ſhelving pent-houſes erected on both ſides the ſtreets, to ſhelter paſſengers in rainy weather; but theſe brought the inhabitants under ſuch dangers and inconveniences, that they were quickly all pulled down by order of the government. Sailors and Hottentots were continually crowding and ſmoaking their pipes under them, and ſometimes through careleſſneſs ſet them on fire. The government very dexterouſly laid hold of that occaſion to rid the ſtreets of thoſe fellows that were continually peſtering them, by publiſhing an order, which is ſtill kept up, and from time to time republiſhed, that no Hottentot or common ſailor ſhall ſmoak in the ſtreets; with a declaration, that the ſailor or Hottentot who ſhould preſume to do ſo, ſhall be tied to the whipping-poſt, and ſeverely laſhed. This cleared the ſtreets at once, and keeps them clear to this day of all ſailors and Hottentots who have no buſineſs there: for it is with great difficulty that either an Hottentot or a Dutch ſailor, if they have tobacco, and they are ſeldom without it, can forbear ſmoaking while they are awake.

SECTION III.

Country of the Hottentots.

THE country of the Hottentots extends towards the north of the tropic of Capricorn, and on all other parts is bounded by the Southern Ocean. It is divided into twenty parts or provinces, which, being independent of each other, are termed nations. Theſe Hottentot ſtates are as follows:

1. The country of Heykams. This country abounds in cattle, though there is no fodder but flags and reeds, nor any water but what is brackiſh.

2. The Camtours diſtrict contains the fineſt and moſt lofty trees of any in the country of the Hottentots. The land in general is flat, the ſoil rich, and the water excellent.

excellent. Here is plenty of ſea and river fiſh, abundance of cattle, great quantities of game, and a variety of wild beaſts.

3. The Houteniquas land contains many fine ſhady woods, and fair fertile meadows; the firſt are luxuriant in abundance of medicinal herbs; and the latter are beautifully enamelled with a great variety of fragrant flowers.

4. The country of the Gauriques, or Gauros, is a ſmall but plentiful territory. Wild beaſts abound more here than at any other place within the vicinity of the Cape.

5. The people called Damaquas inhabit a diſtrict which abounds in cattle, game, hemp, and water melons. Wood is very ſcarce, and ſalt-pits are at once numerous and uſeleſs; for the Hottentots never eat any ſalt; and the pits are too far from the coaſt to be of any ſervice to the Europeans. Thoſe who travel through this territory are much obſtructed by the ſerpentine river Palamites, which meanders through the whole country, and is paſſed upon floats, or in canoes, as the people have not the ſmalleſt idea of building a bridge.

6. Dunquas land is the leaſt uneven and moſt fertile place in this part of Africa. It is watered by ſeveral fine ſtreams which diſembogue themſelves into the river Palamites. Here is a profuſion of cattle, game, fiſh, herbs, and flowers.

7. The Sonquas are but few in number, and inhabit a very barren, rocky country; from the nature of which, and the manner in which they pick up a ſubſiſtence, they may be termed the Swiſs of the Cape. Cattle is ſo ſcarce among them, that they never kill any but upon certain ſolemn occaſions; their food being either the game they provide themſelves with in hunting, or ſuch roots, plants, and herbs, as their poor country furniſhes.

8. The Heſſequas, or Gaſſequas, one of the richeſt and moſt poliſhed of all the Hottentot nations; that is, they have the greateſt quantity of cattle, the only criterion of riches, and are the moſt luxurious in their living, the ſole mark of refinement which can be adduced in this country. Their kraals or villages are larger and better built; their bakkeleys, or oxen for carriage, ſtronger and more handſome; and their country is better inhabited than any other about the Cape. They have abundance of game, and, indeed, every thing that is neceſſary to convenience and pleaſure in that tropical ſituation. Some of theſe people article themſelves as ſervants to the Dutch for a certain term of years, and, during the ſtipulated ſpace, act with the utmoſt integrity.

9. The Koopmans, poſſeſs a large fertile territory, which contains many European ſettlements, and is well ſupplied with wood and water.

10. The Chainouquas territories are ſmall and fertile. The people conſiſt only of about 400 perſons. They are, however, very rich in cattle, and generous to ſtrangers.

11. The Kabonas inhabit a country ſituated near the tropic of Capricorn, and are reported to be anthropophagi, or men-eaters.

12. The country of the Hancumquas, which adjoins to the former, and lies in about the 26th degree of ſouth latitude, is likewiſe very little known: we ſhall, therefore, not preſerve the conjectures of others, as we mean to adopt nothing but what is well authenticated.

13. The Henſaquas differ from the other Hottentots in applying themſelves to agriculture, as well as the breeding of cattle. They cultivate a ſingular root called dakha, the juice of which is ſharp and ſpirituous. The ſubſtantial part ſerves them for food, and the fluid is an intoxicating liquor, of which they are very fond. Theſe people catch lions by traps, and have the peculiar art of taming them, ſo as to render them ſociable and domeſtic. Some of the ſtrongeſt and fierceſt they breed for the purpoſes of war, and ſo perfectly well diſcipline them, that they are obedient to command, and attack furiouſly when ordered by their maſters; ſo that by the aſſiſtance of theſe tremendous light troops, the Henſaquas are exceeding formidable to their neighbours.

14. The Attaquas are poor, having but few cattle, which is owing to the barrenneſs of the country, and the want of water. This poverty of ſoil is, however, their grand ſecurity againſt invaſion, as none care to ſteal that which is not worth having, or to run the hazard of their lives with a certain proſpect of being loſers.

15. The Chirigriquas inhabit a country bordering on the Bay of St. Helen's, and are a ſtrong, active, bold, people. The territory is watered by an excellent ſtream called the Elephant's River, on account of the great number of elephants which frequent its banks. This diſtrict abounds in mountains which are flat on the top and the ſummits of ſome of them have all the verdure of the fineſt meadows. The vallies are admirably enamelled with the moſt beautiful flowers; but it is dangerous to enjoy their fragancy, on account of the prodigious number of ſnakes with which they abound; that called Ceraſtus being particularly venomous.

The Chirigriquas are very numerous, and are celebrated for being the moſt dexterous of any of the Hottentots in throwing the aſſagaye or half pike, which they do with a moſt critical exactneſs. This weapon is made of a taper ſtick about four feet long, armed at one end with an iron plate, ſharp at the edge, and tapering to a point: the blade is always kept bright and clean, and when uſed in war is dipt in poiſon.

16. The people called Namaquas are divided into two nations; the Greater Namaquas inhabit the coaſt, and the Leſſer Namaquas extend more to the eaſtward. Though the government of theſe two nations differs, the characters of the people are much the ſame: they are more poliſhed and poſſeſs a greater degree of reputation than any of the other Hottentots. Their ſtrength, valour, fidelity, and diſcretion, are much admired even by Europeans.

17. The Odiquas inhabit a diſtrict to the north of Saldano Bay. They are in perpetual alliance with the Saſſiquas, in order to defend each other mutually from the Chirigriquas, with whom they are continually at war.

18. The Saſſiquas inhabit a country which is mountainous, but at the ſame time covered with verdure, and the vallies are finely enamelled with flowers. The natives were numerous, till driven away by the Dutch freebooters, ſo that it is now but thinly inhabited.

19. The territory of the Cochaquas is a fine country, particularly in paſturage, on which account a great extent of it is occupied by the Dutch farmers, who have the care of furniſhing the Dutch Eaſt India ſhips with proviſions.

20. The Gorenghaiconas, or Ghunjemans, dwell promiſcuouſly with the Dutch, as they ſold their country to thoſe people, only reſerving to each family a ſmall portion of land.

The above names of the ſeveral Hottentot nations were not given to them by the Europeans, but are rendered agreeable to the ſound of thoſe appellations by which they diſtinguiſh each other. Nor is the word Hottentot a word of deriſion, as ſome ſuppoſe, but the name by which theſe people have called themſelves time immemorial.

The Hottentots and the Caffrees have been often confounded together by writers, but they are a different people having a conſiderable diſſimilarity even in perſon and features, as the Caffrees are totally black, and the Hottentots of a dark olive colour.

SECTION IV.

Perſons, Dreſs, Diſpoſitions, Habitations, Furniture, Diet, Diverſions, Muſic, Dancing, Hunting, Swimming, Marriages, Diſeaſes, Phyſical and Chirurgical Operations, Funeral Ceremonies, &c.

THE Hottentots are as tall, and in general more ſlender, than moſt Europeans. A late intelligent voyager affirms, that he was the firſt who remarked, that

that they have ſmall hands and feet compared with other parts of their bodies, and mentions it as a characteriſtic mark of the nation. A flat noſe being eſteemed beautiful, as ſoon as the child is born they break the griſtle of its noſe.

Their complexion is of a dark olive; their lips are not ſo thick as thoſe of ſeveral of their neighbours; their teeth are remarkably white, their eyes black, and their hair ſhort, black and curled. Upon the whole, their perſons may be ſaid to be agreeable.

It has been an opinion generally received, that the Hottentot women have an exuberance, or rather excreſcence of fleſh, which veils ſuch parts as decency teaches others to conceal. A notion has likewiſe prevailed, that the males, at the age of ten years, by a kind of caſtration, are deprived of one of thoſe organs neceſſary for the propagation of the ſpecies. But a phyſician of eminence, who travelled throughout this country, avers, that the Hottentots in both theſe inſtances, have been miſrepreſented; as the former have no parts uncommon to the reſt of their ſex; and the men, at preſent, are by no means monorchides.

The Hottentots paint, or rather beſmear, their bodies all over with greaſe and ſoot, which they deem ornamental. They likewiſe perfume themſelves with a powder compoſed of herbs, by them called *bucku*, and conſidered as poſſeſſing great virtues in curing diſorders.

The garments uſually worn by theſe people is a ſheep-ſkin, with the woolly ſide inwards. When the weather is not cold, it hangs looſely over their ſhoulders, reaching down to the calves of their legs, leaving the lower part of the breaſt, ſtomach, and fore part of the legs and thighs bare: but in rainy and cold weather they wrap it round them, ſo that the fore part of the body likewiſe is in ſome meaſure covered with it as far as below the knees.

As one ſheep ſkin alone is not ſufficient for this purpoſe, there is a piece ſewed on at the top on each ſide, or rather faſtened on with a thong, ſinew, or cat-gut. In warmer weather they wear this cloak ſometimes with the hairy ſide outwards, but frequently take it off, and carry it on their arms. The cloak, or karoſs (as they call it in broken Dutch), ſerves them at the ſame time for cloathing and bedding, and in this they lie on the bare ground, drawing themſelves up in a heap ſo cloſe, eſpecially when the weather is cold, that their karoſs is ſufficient to cover them. The women have a long peak on their karoſſes, which they turn up, forming with it a hood or little pouch, with the hairy ſide inwards. In this they carry their little children, to which their mothers breaſts are now and then thrown over their ſhoulders. The men in general wear no peculiar covering on their heads. Thoſe who live neareſt to the coloniſts, indeed, fancy the European hats. The women go frequently bare-headed; ſometimes they wear a cap, in the form of a ſhort truncated cone.

Both ſexes often wear beads and other ornaments in their ears, and round their necks and wriſts. Impending from a collar round the neck of the men is a pouch, which contains their pipe, tobacco, knife, dakha, &c. On their backs are ſlung a bow and quiver. They alſo carry a lance or javelin affixed to a long ſtick, by way of defence againſt the wild beaſts.

Indolence and intoxication are the predominant vices of the Hottentots, and theſe will eaſily account for any enormities into which their votaries may be hurried, though they have the general character of being very honeſt.

Their habitations are as homely as their dreſs, ſcarcely meriting any other name than that of huts. The great ſimplicity of theſe huts is, perhaps, the reaſon for which in an Hottentot kraal, or village, the huts are all built exactly alike. Moſt of them are of a ſemicircular, and ſome of an oblong ſhape, reſembling a bee-hive or a vault. The higheſt of them are ſo low, that even in the center of the arch it is ſcarcely poſſible for even a middle-ſized man to ſtand upright. The fire-place is in the middle of each hut. The door, low as it is, is the only place that lets in the day-light, and, at the ſame time, the only out-let that is left for the ſmoke. The materials for theſe huts are by no means difficult to be procured; and the manner of putting them together, being inartificial, is very ſuitable to the character of the Hottentot. When an Hottentot has a mind to take his houſe down, and remove his dwelling, he lays all the materials on the backs of his cattle, and by that means conveys them to the ſpot he has fixed upon for removal. Their furniture conſiſts of two or three earthen pots for dreſſing their victuals, which is generally herbs, fleſh, or ſhell-fiſh. As they are the moſt indolent, ſo they are the moſt naſty people in the univerſe; yet ſuch as confine themſelves to the natural diet of the country live to a great age; but though their common drink is milk or water, many of them drink brandy and other ſtrong liquors to ſuch an exceſs as to ſhorten their lives. Both ſexes are very fond of tobacco.

The Hottentots uſe a variety of diverſions. They have frequent feſtive meetings, which uſually conclude with muſic, ſinging, and dancing. Their muſical inſtruments are the greater and leſſer gongom and the drum. The gongom is a bow of iron or olive-wood, ſtringed with ſheep ſinews. At one end of the bow a quill is placed upon the ſtring, and a cocoa ſhell faſtened to it by two holes. The mouth is applied to the quill, and the player blows and modulates his breadth as if playing on a Jew's harp. The drum is made of earthen ware, and covered with ſheep ſkin braced on with ſinews. The vocal muſic is confined to a few ſongs, and a frequent repetition of the monoſyllable "ho," by way of chorus. When they are to have a dance, the men ſquat down in a circle; then ſeveral couple preſent themſelves; but only two couple enter the ring at the ſame time, performing face to face. Sometimes they dance back to back, but never take hands.

The Hottentots are excellent huntſmen, and diſplay great dexterity in diſcharging and throwing their weapons. In hunting the lion or any other wild beaſt, they attack him with their aſſagayes, and goad him till he drops down with loſs of blood. Elephants are ſometimes taken by digging a hole in the paths through which they go to their watering-places, and covering it over with boughs. When the animal falls into one of theſe holes, the ſtake runs into him, and entangles him, till the natives ſurround the place and deſtroy him.

The Hottentots are very ſkilful in fiſhing, either with net or hook, and are deemed ſome of the moſt expert ſwimmers in the world.

Hottentot marriages are made by the parents or neareſt relations. If the female does not approve of the match, ſhe is obliged to remain with the bridegroom all night: if he forces her to conſummation, ſhe is compelled to be his wife; but, on the contrary, if ſhe preſerves herſelf uncontaminated, ſhe is ever after free from him. The day after the nuptials an ox is killed to feaſt the company, who tear the fleſh from the bones and ſmear themſelves with the fat, powder each other with bukhu, and paint themſelves with red chalk.

The marriage ceremony itſelf is thus performed: the men ſquat in a circle, as they do indeed upon moſt other occaſions, and the bridegroom is placed in the center: the women ſquat, and form another circle to ſurround the bride: the prieſt then goes from one circle to the other, and alternately urines on both bride and bridegroom, who make furrows with their nails in the greaſe with which they are plaiſtered, in order to rub in the precious libation. The prieſt then pronounces the benediction in theſe words; "May you live happily together; may you have a ſon before the year's end; may he be a good huntſman and a great warrior."

Thoſe of the Hottentots who live in their natural manner are rarely afflicted with diſeaſes, to which thoſe who reſide among the Europeans are very liable. Their practitioners are equally ſkilled in medicine and ſurgery. They perform aſtoniſhing cures by their botanical knowledge. In bleeding they are only provided with a common

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HOTENTOT

(Man, Woman, and Children.)

Hottentot Entertainment of Music and Dancing.

Hawkins sculp.

Marriage Ceremony of the Hottentots.

common clasp knife and a strap. When they have taken away as much blood as is thought necessary, the orifice is closed, and rubbed with mutton fat, and then the leaf of some herb is bound over it.

With all this skill they are very superstitious, and fond of divination. In order to know the fate of a sick person, they flea a sheep alive: if the poor animal, in this plight, is able to get up and run away, the omen is esteemed favourable; but, on the contrary, if it dies with the excruciating pain, it is deemed fatal to the patient, who is therefore totally neglected.

Savage as these people are, their physicians are much more liberal than those of civilized countries, as they prescribe gratis, and think the honour of having done good a sufficient recompence for their pains. Each village hath usually two, who are chosen from the wisest and most experienced of the people, to be the guardians of the public health. The Europeans who reside at the Cape are, in general, healthy. The small-pox and measles are not so malignant as in most other countries. The bloody flux usually attacks new comers; and the principal disorders among the Cape Europeans are sore eyes and sore throats in both sexes, and sore breasts in the women: but the country produces many efficacious remedies, which are usually applied with success when wanted.

When a Hottentot falls sick, his friends make a doleful noise around him; but when he expires, their howlings become truly hideous. A corple is always bent double, and being tied neck and heels, it is wrapped up in the karos or mantle of the defunct. They usually bury the body in the cleft of a rock, or the den of some wild beast, as they are too lazy to dig a grave, if they can find one ready made. They inter their dead six hours after they expire, or at least six hours after they fancy they expire; for it is imagined that many are buried alive by this precipitation. Previous to the funeral, the men and women squat down in separate circles before the hut of the deceased. The body is then brought out, not through the door, but through the side of the hut, the mats being loosened for that purpose. During the whole ceremony the company clap their hands, and cry *ho, ho, ho.* The corpse is then followed without order, only each sex keeps separate from the other, when the howlings and grimaces are truly ridiculous. The grave is filled up with the mould of ant-hills, and well secured from the depredations of wild beasts, by being heavily covered, and defended with wood and stones. The company then return to the hut, squat down as before, each sex in a circle, and renew their yellings. A signal is then given for them to cease the hideous noise, when the two oldest men in the village step into each circle, and urine upon the company, who rub in the precious liquor with singular satisfaction. Afterwards entering the hut of the deceased, these elders take up a handful of ashes each, with which they powder the mourners. This ceremony, at the decease of rich persons, is repeated several times, but the poor have it only once performed. The latter likewise only mourn by shaving their heads, but the former give an andersmaken, or feast, when the lamentations are concluded, at which time a sheep is killed, and the cawl, well powdered with bakhu, is put about the neck of the heir to the defunct, who is obliged to wear it till it rots off, as a memorial of his respect for the dead.

The Hottentots sometimes expose their old men, when they become decrepid, in the forests, to be devoured by wild beasts. This however is done without the advice of the chief men of the kraal.

They have neither temples or idols, nor any peculiar place of worship. They celebrate, indeed, nocturnal dances, with singing, at the new and full moon; but these are rather pastimes, than any thing relative to religious worship.

They are so attached to the manners and customs of their own country, that it has never yet been in the power of the Dutch to bring them over to those of Europeans. There is an instance of an Hottentot who had been taken from Caffreria while an infant, and instructed in the learning, customs, and religion of the Europeans; but, on returning to his native country, he abandoned all the advantages of education, returned his European dress to his master, put on the sheep-skin mantle, and never more appeared among the Dutch.

SECTION V.

Civil, Military, and Commercial State of the Hottentots.

AMONGST the Hottentots every nation or tribe is governed by a national chief, called Konquer, whose office is to command the army, conduct negociations of peace, and preside in the councils. Without him they can make neither peace nor war. His installation is attended with great pomp and solemnity. Next to the Konquer is the Kraal Captain. Every village has one of these, who looks to the preservation of peace, the administration of justice, and in war holds command under the national chief. He is bound by solemn engagement to the people, not to alter or deviate from the ancient laws or customs of his kraal. He hears and decides all disputes of right and property, and tries and punishes for crimes within his jurisdiction.

Justice is dispensed among the Hottentots with a most laudable impartiality. If the criminality of the very captain of the kraal is proved, he is seized as rudely, persecuted as severely, and punished as ignominiously as the poorest and meanest. The charge against a culprit is pronounced by the prosecutor, whose witnesses are heard by the court. The culprit makes his defence, and has his witnesses heard with the greatest indulgence. The captain, after debates on the evidence, collects the voices, the majority of which acquits or condemns. If the latter, and the crime be death, sentence is pronounced, and execution done immediately on the spot, without a moment's time to confer with friends. The captain having pronounced the fatal word, the court rises, but the criminal stirs not a limb. After a profound silence for a minute or two, the captain flies at him as in a rage, and, with one blow on the head with the kirri stick, fells him to the ground, when the rest fall on and complete the execution, by beating him to a mummy, and breaking several of his limbs. He is then interred in the manner already described; but his family and relations suffer nothing in name, privilege, or property. No mortal is reproached with the memory of his crime or punishment; an example worthy the imitation of the most civilized nations.

The Hottentots have very little notion of military discipline. The causes of war are chiefly three; trespassing on each others districts, stealing the cattle, or running away with the wives of their neighbours. Disputes are decided between two nations by fighting one battle, the success of which determines the whole affair. They shew great generosity of sentiment, never plunder the dead, but suffer their friends to bury them, and dispose of their arms as they think fit.

The wealth of an Hottentot consists in the number of his flocks, and commerce is carried on here entirely by barter. The articles of the natives are cattle, skins, elephants teeth, ostriches eggs, &c. in return for which they receive from Europeans, brandy, wine, tobacco, dakha, coral, beads, brass, copper, iron, &c. But a Hottentot will not sell his arms, nor even a single weapon, upon any consideration. They are very just and upright in their dealings. From proofs of their dexterity in some handicraft professions, it appears they would be expert in most, were they not prevented by their prevailing indolence from the prosecution of them.

SECTION VI.

Deſcription of a Race of Hottentots, called Boſhies.

THAT ſpecies of Hottentots called Boſhies are ſworn enemies to the paſtoral life, their maxims being to live on hunting and plunder, and never to keep any animal alive for the ſpace of one night. Their dwellings are as hideous as their maxims and manners. Like the wild beaſts, buſhes and clifts in rocks by turns ſerve them inſtead of houſes. Many of them are entirely naked; but ſuch as can procure the ſkin of any animal, great or ſmall, cover their bodies with it, from the ſhoulders downwards, as far as it will reach, wearing it till it falls off their backs in rags. As ignorant of agriculture as apes and monkies, like them they are obliged to wander about over hills, after certain wild roots, berries, and plants, (which they eat raw,) in order to ſuſtain a life that this miſerable food would ſoon extinguiſh and deſtroy, were they uſed to better fare.

The capture of ſlaves from among this race of men is effected in the following manner. Several farmers, that are in want of ſervants, join together, and take a journey to that part of the country where the Boſhies live. They themſelves, with their attendants, who are Boſhies that have been caught before, and trained up to fidelity in their ſervice, endeavour to ſpy out the haunts of that wild race. This is beſt done by the ſmoak of their fires. They are found in ſocieties, from 10 to 50, and ſometimes 100, reckoning great and ſmall together. Notwithſtanding this, the farmers will venture, on a dark night, to ſet upon them with ſix or eight people, which they contrive to do by previouſly ſtationing themſelves at a diſtance round about the ſpot. They then give the alarm by firing a gun or two. By this means there is ſuch a conſternation ſpread over the whole body of theſe ſavages, that it is only the moſt bold and intelligent among them, that have courage to break through the circle and ſteal off. The reſt allow themſelves to be taken, and carried into bondage. They are at firſt treated by gentle means; that is, the captors intermix the faireſt promiſes with their threats, and endeavour, if poſſible, to ſhoot ſome of the larger kinds of game for their priſoners, ſuch as buffaloes, ſea-cows, and the like. Such agreeable baits, together with a little tobacco, ſoon induce them, continually feaſted as they are, to go with ſome degree of chearfulneſs to the place of abode of the coloniſts. Then this luxurious living in meat is exchanged for more moderate portions, conſiſting moſtly of butter-milk, frumerty, and haſty-pudding. This diet, however, fattens the Boſhies in a few weeks. Their good living, indeed, is embittered by the taunts and grumblings of the maſter and miſtreſs, to which are ſometimes added curſes and blows, for neglect, remiſſneſs, or idleneſs: ſo that by nature and cuſtom deteſting all manner of labour, and now, from greater corpulency, becoming ſtill more ſlothful, and having, beſides, been uſed to a wandering life, ſubject to no controul, they moſt ſenſibly feel the want of liberty. No wonder then that they generally endeavour to regain it by making their eſcape. But what is really a ſubject for wonder, when any one of them runs from his ſervice, or, more properly, bondage, he never takes with him any thing that does not belong to him. This is an inſtance of moderation in the ſavages towards their tyrants which is univerſally aſſerted, and at the ſame time praiſed and admired by the coloniſts themſelves. It is neceſſary to obſerve here, that ſome of theſe Boſhies live in ſmall ſocieties, peaceably and quietly, in deſert tracks, where the coloniſts cannot eaſily come at them, and are ſometimes in the poſſeſſion of a few cows.

With reſpect to religion, theſe people, in general, are not ſenſible of the exiſtence of any being who is the origin and ruler of all things; for ſome of them, who ſpoke Dutch, being queſtioned upon the ſubject, by a learned traveller, anſwered him to this effect: "We are poor ſtupid creatures, and have never heard, neither are we able to underſtand, any thing of the matter." Many of the coloniſts declared, that the Boſhies of both ſexes uſed, in ſtormy weather, to abuſe the thunder with reproachful expreſſions; and at the ſame time, in a furious manner, with their ſhoes or any thing elſe that was at hand, threaten and bid defiance to the flaſhes of lightning, and peals of thunder, that flaſhed and rolled over their heads. Nay, they moſt obſtinately perſiſted in declaring that rain was always an evil, and that it would be a happy circumſtance were it never to rain.

They ſeem to have ſome idea of ſpirits, and of a future ſtate, as they accoſt their friends, as ſoon as they are dead, with reproaches for leaving them ſo ſoon, at the ſame time admoniſhing them henceforth to demean themſelves properly; by which they mean that their deceaſed friends ſhould not come back again to haunt them, nor allow themſelves to be made uſe of by wizards, to bring any miſchief on thoſe that ſurvive them.

There is a genus of inſects, called the mantis, or gold beetle, and deemed by the coloniſts the Hottentots god. They think it would be a crime, as well as very dangerous, to do any harm to theſe inſects: but it is added, by a celebrated writer, that the ſpecies is by no means an object of religious worſhip.

The moon, according to ſome writers, receives a kind of adoration from the Hottentots. But the fact is, that they merely take the opportunity of her beams, and at the ſame time of the coolneſs of the night, to amuſe themſelves with dancing, and conſequently have no more thoughts of worſhipping the moon than the European coloniſts, who are ſeen at the ſame time ſtrolling in great numbers about the ſtreets, and parading on the ſtone ſteps with which their houſes are uſually encircled.

CHAP. II.

CAFFRERIA PROPER.

Including *Mataman*, or the Country of the *Caffrees*, *Terra de Natal*, and *Terra dos Fumos*.

SECTION I.

MATAMAN, OR CLIMBEDE.

A GEOGRAPHER of repute ſays, that Mataman is properly the name of the kings, that of the country being Climbede. It is bounded by the river Bravaghul on the eaſt and weſt, by Bengulca on the north, and by the Atlantic Ocean on the ſouth. The firſt place worthy of obſervation in this kingdom is Cape Negro, or Black Cape, which receives its appellation from its ſable appearance to mariners, when at a conſiderable diſtance at ſea. At the extremity of the northern angle is a bay about ſix miles broad; and on the ſummit of the mountain is a pillar of alabaſter, with the arms of Portugal upon it. Beneath the 18th deg. of ſouth lat. lies Cape Ruy-Piz, which extends about 10 leagues north-weſt. Gulfo-Frio, and the Cape of the ſame name, lie in 18 deg. 35 min. and the Bay of St. Ambroſe in 21 deg. ſouth latitude.

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The coaſt here is very ſandy, but the climate is tolerably mild, conſidering the tropical ſituation of the country. The inland parts are fruitful, and a variety of trees abound towards the north. The Dutch judge of their approach to this coaſt by the flight of the birds called mews, as theſe never fly above 20 leagues from land. There is likewiſe another token by which ſailors know when they are near the ſhore, that is, the floating of the weed called ſargoſſa upon the ſurface of the waters. The government of Climbede is deſpotic, and the whole country ſubject to one ſovereign, ſubordinate to whom are a few petty lords, who ſtile themſelves princes, though their dominions conſiſt only of a ſmall number of ſcattered towns towards the ſea coaſt.

SECTION II.

Country of the CAFFREES.

THIS country is bounded on the north by the province of Ohila, on the ſouth by the country of the Hottentots, on the eaſt by Monomotapa, and on the weſt by Mataman or Climbede.

The province of Abucua is ſaid to abound in gold mines. The province of Toraca contains many iron mines, and in the midſt of them is a ſurpriſing fabric, being a capacious ſquare caſtle, built of poliſhed free-ſtone. The ſtones are very large, and placed upon each other without any kind of cement. The walls are near nine feet thick, and contain ſeveral inſcriptions, which none have yet been able to explain, or even gueſs to what language the characters belong. As the inhabitants are unacquainted with the name of the founder of this extraordinary pile, they compliment the devil with the honour of having been the architect. The neareſt ſtone building to this caſtle is a Portugueſe fort, which, however, is 200 leagues from it. The town of Fatuca, near this place, is rich in gold and precious ſtones. Boro and Quitici likewiſe abound in gold mines; and Chicova, which lies more to the north-eaſt, contains many ſilver mines.

The following narrative, extracted from an account of the loſs of the Groſvenor Eaſt-Indiaman, and the ſubſequent fate of the people, in 1782, is inſerted as the beſt deſcription of the *uncultivated natives* of this country.

This ſhip ſailed from Trincomale, on their paſſage to India from London, the 13th of June, having on board 142 ſailors, paſſengers, &c. and on the 4th of Auguſt following, about 4 A. M. was wrecked on that part of the coaſt of Africa inhabited by the Caffrees, a ſavage people, ſeparated from the Hottentots by an uninhabited country.

When the people on board found the ſhip muſt be irrecoverably loſt, two laſcars ſwam aſhore, and made a hawſer faſt to a large rock, by means of which all the crew got on ſhore, except 15, who were drowned in the attempt.

About noon the ſhip parted by the fore-chains, and in an hour after by the main chains, at which time there were near 100 perſons on board. They got the women paſſengers out of the ſtarboard quarter gallery, the reſt ſtanding on the ſtarboard ſide of the ſhip, and when ſhe parted, the ſide ſunk down into the ſea with them all upon it, and floated into ſhallow water, when the ſailors helped the ladies and children on ſhore by the body of the ſwell, while others got aſhore on the fore part of the ſhip.

As ſoon as they had a little recovered from their fright, they made a tent with a new mizen top-ſail for the ladies, &c. on the flattiſh part of the rock; and here they continued from the Sunday morning, the time the wreck happened, till the Wedneſday following, when they all ſet out to travel to the Cape of Good Hope. Their arms conſiſted only of five or ſix cutlaſſes. There were, indeed, plenty of fire-arms thrown on ſhore, but they were of little uſe for want of gunpowder.

At the time they ſet out the chief mate was exceeding ill, and therefore obliged to be carried. The ſecond mate led the van, the ladies went in the middle, and the captain brought up the rear. On the third day after leaving the wreck they met with one of the natives, from whom the captain took his lance. The Caffree endeavoured, by ſigns, to get it back, but to no purpoſe, on which he precipitately ran away, and in a ſhort time returned with a great number of others, all armed with lances and targets. The captain placed the ladies, and thoſe who were unable to do any thing, on a riſing ground with the baggage, and, aſſiſted by the crew, attacked the natives, who fled with the utmoſt precipitation. They, however, ſoon after returned, and brought ſweet potatoes to exchange for the lances, ſtaffs, and ſticks they had thrown at our people. They ſat themſelves down in a circle, and the captain giving them ſome toys, which he happened to have about him, they aroſe, and went away with great ſeeming ſatisfaction.

On the evening of the 12th of Auguſt they were ſurrounded by another body of the natives, who wanted to take from them their buttons, &c. and to ſearch the ladies, but, by the vigilance of the Engliſh people, they were prevented from their deſign, and obliged to fly. In the morning they came to a river (which was the firſt they had met with after leaving the ſhip,) and through this river the ladies waded breaſt high, being ſupported by the ſailors, ſome of whom carried over the children in their arms.

After croſſing the river the Laſcars and a black maid left them firſt. Theſe were followed by ſome others, who ſet out in ſtraggling parties, leaving the captain and ladies behind, together with 16 officers, 9 ſeamen, 12 paſſengers and children, 7 black men and women ſervants, and a French officer and his ſervant.

From this period the body became more and more divided, ſome going one way, and ſome another; and the only accounts that could be collected of what happened after, were from four of the crew who belonged to as many different parties, and who were the only four that reached England. The relation given by each of theſe was truly deplorable, being ſometimes almoſt periſhed with hunger and thirſt, and at other times in the moſt imminent danger from the ſavageneſs of the natives, the conſequences of whoſe ferocity they avoided either by oppoſition and reſolution, or pliability and condeſcenſion.

No account (to be depended on) could be given of what became of the captain, ladies, and children. It was ſuppoſed they fell into the hands of the natives. But the iſſue of their fate time only can diſcover.

At the time of the melancholy cataſtrophe of the ſhip, there were 142 ſailors, paſſengers, and Laſcars on board. But the four who returned to England, and gave the relation of what paſſed after the wreck, only account for 102, viz. 15 drowned; 46 left with the captain, and not ſince heard of; 17 left in the deſert, and probably periſhed; 15 died in the deſart; 2 left at the Cape; 3 went to Denmark; and 4 arrived in England.

The calamities of the crew and paſſengers belonging to this ſhip, it is probable, might have ariſen from want of proper management with the Caffrees. We have been informed by late navigators, who touched at the Cape of Good Hope, that ſome of the ſurviving part of theſe ſufferers are ſtill living, and are (in the way of the natives) treated in a manner as would reflect no diſgrace on a polite European.

SECTION III.

TERRA DE NATAL.

THIS country, called Terra de Natal from its being diſcovered by the Portugueſe on Chriſtmas-day, takes about 3 deg. lat. from north to ſouth. It was likewiſe, as well as the Cape, purchaſed by the Dutch, for

for the convenience of commerce. The natives are neither ſo indolent or ſo filthy as the Hottentots. The river Dellagoa, which bounds the country on the north, is navigable, and has been frequented by European ſhips, for the purpoſes of trade. There is plenty of water here. The wood produces good timber, and the fields kindly graſs. They have variety of beaſts and birds. But though the ſea and rivers abound with fiſh, the natives ſeldom take any but tortoiſes, and that chiefly when they come aſhore to lay.

The natives of this country are but of a middle ſtature, yet have very good limbs; the colour of their ſkin is black, and their hair criſped; they are oval-viſaged; their noſes neither flat or high, but very well proportioned; their teeth are white, and their aſpect altogether graceful. Their chief employment is agriculture. Their cattle, which are numerous, they carefully attend. The men and women have their reſpective occupations, and their apparel is light but mean. Their ordinary ſubſiſtence is Guinea corn, beef, fiſh, milk, hen-eggs, &c. They are of a facetious and ſocial diſpoſition. They purchaſe their wives, a circumſtance which renders a female progeny advantageous. They live in ſmall villages, under the government of the oldeſt man; and thoſe who live in one village are all related; and, as an amiable characteriſtic, they are juſt and civil to ſtrangers.

SECTION IV.

TERRA DOS FUMOS.

THIS ſmall country is bounded on the ſouth by the river Dellagoa, which ſeparates it from Terra de Natal; on the north by Zanguana; on the weſt by the country of Naontas; and the eaſtern ocean on the eaſt. It extends from the mouth of the river Dellagoa, to the mouth of the river De Ladroon, or Teude; the firſt appellation ſignifying the river of robbers, which is in 26 deg. 40 min. ſouth lat. The only places worthy of notice here are, Cape Pedras, which is in about the 29th deg. of ſouth lat. Potto de Pe Peſqueria, or the Fiſhing-place, which is a little beyond the former; and the bay of St. Lucia, which is between the latter and the Ladroon river. The Portugueſe, who either named places from the ſaint's day on which they diſcovered them, or from ſome trivial circumſtance which they obſerved when they firſt ſaw them, gave this country the name of Terra dos Fumos, or the land of Smoak, from perceiving ſome ſmoak on their firſt approaching this ſhore. The Europeans as yet have not made any ſettlement here, and the Caffrees who inhabit the place live in a ſimple ſtate of nature, without towns, villages, or ſettled habitations, and frequently indeed without even moveable huts.

CHAP. III.

MONOMOTAPA.

MONOMOTAPA is an extenſive empire, bounded on the eaſt by the kingdom of Safala; on the weſt, by the mountains of Caffreria; on the north, by the river Cuama, which ſeparates it from Monœmugi; and on the ſouth, by the river del Spiritu Sancto. It is ſituated between the 14th and 25th deg. of ſouth lat. and between the 41ſt and 56th of eaſt long. being 960 miles in length from eaſt to weſt, and 660 in breadth from north to ſouth.

This country is divided into ſix provinces, or petty kingdoms, the governors of which are vaſſals to the king or emperor of Monomotapa. The names of theſe provinces are, Monomotapa Proper, Quiteve, Manica, Inhambana, Inhamior, and Sabia.

Monomotapa Proper is the moſt conſiderable of the whole, and particularly diſtinguiſhed for containing the capital city of the empire. It is ſituated in 11 deg. 27 min. ſouth lat. and 31 deg. 10 min. eaſt long. It is a large and populous city, and the ſtreets are very long and ſpacious. The houſes are built with timber and earth, and are of different ſizes. The greateſt ornament of the city is the imperial palace, which is a large ſpacious fabric, well flanked with towers, having four avenues, or ſtately gates, conſtantly kept by a numerous guard.

The other towns in this province are all very inſignificant, except one called Tete, which is large and populous, and remarkable for being the reſidence of the Portugueſe jeſuits.

Quiteve lies to the ſouth of Monomotapa Proper, and is bounded on the eaſt by Sabia, on the weſt by Caffreria, and on the ſouth by Manica. The capital city is called Lambave, and is ſituated about 120 miles from Monomotapa Proper. It is a large and populous city, and the place where the king or governor of the province uſually reſides.

The province of Manica is bounded on the eaſt by Sabia, on the weſt by Caffreria, on the north by Quiteve, and on the ſouth by the river de Spiritu Sancto. The capital town is called after the name of the province, but it is a ſmall place, and very poorly inhabited.

Inhambana lies ſouthward from the above province under the tropic of Capricorn, ſo that the air here is exceeding ſultry. The capital town is called Tongue, which, though ſmall, is very populous, owing to the number of Portugueſe that reſide there.

The province of Inhamior is very extenſive, but contains nothing that merits particular notice. Its chief town of the ſame name is the conſtant reſidence of the king or governor of the province.

Sabia is alſo very large, and well watered by ſeveral excellent rivers, one of which is called Sabia, and the other Arœ. On the coaſt of this kingdom is the iſland of Bocica, and the capes of St. Sebaſtian and St. Catharine.

The climate of Monomotapa is much more wholeſome than many other parts of Africa, and the ſoil is ſo fertile that it produces a great plenty of the principal neceſſaries of life. It abounds with paſture grounds, on which are bred prodigious quantities of cattle, eſpecially oxen and cows.

The natives here are in general tall, well-ſhaped, ſtrong, and healthy: they are quite black, and have woolly hair, which they ornament with a great variety of trinkets. They are of a very ſprightly and docile diſpoſition, notwithſtanding which they are fond of being engaged in war, and prefer that employment to any other. The poorer ſort are brought up to diving, and their chief buſineſs is to get the ſand or mud from the bottom of the rivers, ponds, and lakes, from which they ſeparate the gold that is intermixed with it, and ſell it to the Portugueſe in exchange for cotton and various other articles of merchandize.

Their common food is the fleſh of oxen and elephants, with bread made of rice or millet, which is baked into thin cakes; and their drink is either ſour milk or water. The better ſort uſe ſtrong liquors made from honey, millet, rice, and ſeveral ſorts of fruits; but they moſtly eſteem palm-wine, which is reckoned a royal liquor, and greatly uſed at court.

Polygamy is allowed here, as in moſt other parts of Africa, every man being permitted to take as many wives

wives as he can maintain; but the firſt wife is the principal, and the children born from her inherit the father's eſtate.

They pay a religious worſhip to the dead, every one preſerving the bones of the moſt diſtinguiſhed of his family. Theſe they hang up in a court, and know to whom they belonged by fixing certain marks on them. Every ſeventh day the relations go and viſit them, being all dreſſed in white, which is the mourning of the country. They ſpread a table before them with proviſions, then pray to the deceaſed for the king's proſperity, and afterwards ſit down and regale themſelves, which they look upon as the greateſt honour that can be paid to the defunct.

The king, or emperor of Monomotapa, has a prodigious number of wives, the principal of whom are the daughters of ſome of his vaſſal princes; but the firſt only is called empreſs, or queen. The princeſs and ladies of the higheſt rank always attend upon him; they diſcharge this buſineſs in their turns, and think it the higheſt honour to be ſo employed. He is waited upon alſo by a great number of officers, who keep moſt profound ſilence, except when he drinks, or happens to ſneeze or cough, at which time one of them cries aloud, "Pray for the health and proſperity of the emperor:" as ſoon as the words are repeated, they all kneel, then riſe, and teſtify their joy by the loudeſt acclamations.

He alſo takes great pains to preſerve the reſpect of his ſubjects: he exacts no taxes or tribute from them, inſtead of which he is ſatisfied with a trifling preſent when they apply to him for any particular favour.

This is an univerſal cuſtom from an inferior to a ſuperior of every rank or denomination, and eſteemed the higheſt mark of reſpect that can be ſhewn. If at any time he orders his ſubjects to labour either at the gold mines, or any other ſervice, (as is ſometimes the caſe), he always ſends them cows and other proviſions, ſo that inſtead of attending with reluctance, they obey his commands with the greateſt chearfulneſs.

His miniſters and officers, both civil and military, as well as his ſoldiery, who ſubſiſt by his pay, are indeed obliged, inſtead of taxes, to pay him a kind of ſervice of ſeven days in every month, either in cultivating his grounds, or any other work he thinks proper to employ them in; the lords and nobles are alſo bound to the ſame ſervice when required, unleſs exempted from it by ſome particular privilege granted to their family or office.

The emperor maintains a numerous army of foot, for he has no cavalry, there being but few horſes, and thoſe not fit for the purpoſe, throughout his dominions. Wherever the emperor encamps they always erect a large wooden houſe, in which a fire muſt be kept conſtantly burning. Neither he nor any of his ſoldiers are permitted to waſh their hands or face while the war continues; when it is over, and they have gained a complete victory, the ſpoil is divided, the emperor reſerving one part to himſelf and diſtributing the reſt in proportionable ſhares to his officers and men. This equitable diſtribution has an excellent effect, as it animates the men, and makes them fight with diſtinguiſhed intrepidity.

The laws of this country are very few, and ſo little occaſion is there for the confinement of criminals, that there is not a ſingle priſon throughout the whole empire. Thoſe found guilty of murder are puniſhed with death; but in trifling matters they only inflict corporal puniſhment, which is done by giving the party a certain number of ſtrokes with a knotted cord, according to the nature of the crime.

Here are gold mines in the inland parts, which have produced conſiderable advantages to the Portugueſe.—There are other mines in different parts of the empire that produce excellent metal, particularly thoſe near Batua, a ſmall place bordering on the province of Manica, and extending itſelf from the Mountains of the Moon to the river Magnico, whoſe governor is a vaſſal to the emperor.

There are ſeveral conſiderable places between the mines and the ſea-coaſt, where fairs and markets are held for the ſale of gold, particularly at thoſe towns which lie on the river Zezebe, and Cuama, where the Portugueſe have built fortreſſes to keep the natives in awe, who come to thoſe markets to exchange their gold for European and other commodities. In each of theſe markets they have an officer of their own, who decides all conteſts and differences that ariſe about their traffic; they have likewiſe in moſt of theſe towns churches and monaſteries of the Dominican order.

The emperor of Monomotapa firſt permitted the Portugueſe to build their forts here, in gratitude for the ſervice they had done in contributing to reduce ſome revolted vaſſals to return to their obedience, as well as to enable them, on all ſuch exigencies, to be near at hand to aſſiſt him. This was about the year 1640, ſince which time they have been on good terms with the ſovereigns of the empire.

The commodities which they bring the natives are chiefly cloths of various ſorts, glaſs beads of different ſizes and colours, and other trifling trinkets; in exchange for which, beſides gold, they receive great quantities of ivory, furs of ſundry wild and tame beaſts, and other valuable articles, which make their commerce here very advantageous.

CHAP. IV.

SOFALA.

SOFALA is an extenſive kingdom, and, like Monomotapa, remarkable for containing many excellent mines of gold. It is bounded on the eaſt by the Indian ſea, on the weſt by the province of Manica, on the north by the empire of Monomotapa, and on the ſouth by the kingdom of Sabia. It is, properly ſpeaking, a continued coaſt, extending itſelf from the river Cuama on the north, to that of Magnico, or Del Spiritu Sancto, on the ſouth. The inland parts are very trifling in extent, being confined on the weſt by the empire of Monomotapa, notwithſtanding which the whole kingdom is computed to be at leaſt 2250 miles in compaſs.

The moſt conſiderable rivers of this country are the Cuama and the Del Spiritu Sancto, both of which are ſuppoſed to take their riſe from the lake Goyama. The former received its name from the Portugueſe, but it is generally called by the natives Zambere. This river waſhes down great quantities of gold, which the negroes gather when the waters are low, by diving to the bottom of ſuch parts of it as, from practice, they know contain the greateſt abundance. They bring up the mud in buckets, which being properly levigated, eaſily diſcovers the metal.

On the coaſt are ſeveral capes, the principal of which are called Corientes, St. Catharine and Sebaſtian. The former is ſituated under the 23d deg. of ſouth latitude: it is noted for the many rocks, ſands and ſhelves that lie between it and the iſland of St. Laurence, or Madagaſcar, and cauſe frequent ſhipwrecks along that channel.

The climate of this kingdom is very unwholeſome, occaſioned by the vaſt number of marſhes, which being in ſummer dried up by the ſcorching heat of the ſun, infect the air with peſtilential ſteams. The ſoil, in

general is very uneven, barren, and defert. The inland parts abound with various forts of wild beafts, particularly elephants, great numbers of which are annually killed by the natives, not only for the fake of their flefh, which is the chief part of their food, but alfo for their teeth, which they fell to great advantage to the Europeans. The number of thefe animals deftroyed here by the natives is faid, one year with another, to amount to near 4000.

The inhabitants of this kingdom are in general well-fhaped, and have fhort curled hair: they cover themfelves only from the waift to the knees, with a garment made of filk or cotton; but they adorn their arms, wrifts, legs and ancles, with rings of gold, amber, or coloured beads; the better fort wear turbans on their heads, and have fwords by their fides, the handles of which are made of ivory curioufly inlaid with precious ftones.

Their food confifts of the flefh of elephants, large and fmall cattle, and fifh, with which the rivers abound; inftead of bread, they ufe rice and millet.—The drink of the common people is water, but the better fort have a kind of beer, which is made of rice and millet; they have alfo fome ftrong liquors made from honey, palm, and other fruits.

The king and his court, with a great number of the principal people, are defcendants of the Arabs, and not only fpeak that language, but alfo ftrictly profefs the Mahometan religion; the original natives are permitted to retain their antient cuftoms, as alfo their religious maxims, the latter of which are much the fame as thofe obferved in the principal parts of Africa.

Sofala, the metropolis of this kingdom, is the only place of any note in it, and is pleafantly fituated on a fmall ifland, at the mouth of the river Cuama. The Portugueſe have built a ftrong fortrefs here, which is of infinite fervice to them, as it fecures their fhips in the harbour when they ftop here in their paffage to and from India. The articles they purchafe of the natives are gold, ambergris, flaves, and elephants teeth; in exchange for which they fupply them with filks, ftuffs, cotton, glafs beads, and other trinkets. Both the fortrefs and ifland are tributary to the king of Portugal.

The king keeps a great number of foldiers, who are all paid in gold duft, each according to his rank. Their original weapons were bows and arrows, the fcymetar, javelin, dagger, and hatchet; but fince the arrival of the Portugueſe, they have been taught the ufe of fire-arms, of which they are very fond, and exercife them with great dexterity.

The inhabitants of Quiloa, Mombaza, and Melinda, come to this country in fmall boats called tambues, with ftuffs of blue and white cottons, filk ftuffs, yellow and red ambergris, which they exchange with the people here for gold and ivory. Thefe again fell them to the inhabitants of Monomotapa, who give them gold in return without weighing it, fo that the profit of the exchange is very conſiderable. This is the reafon that when the Monomotapans come to purchafe thefe articles, as foon as the Sofalans perceive their veffels at fea, they fignify their joy, and bid them welcome, by lighting fires on the fhore.

The gold mines of this kingdom are faid to yield above two millions of metigals per annum, each metigal amounting to fourteen livres; that the fhips from Zidem and Mecca carry off about two millions a year in time of peace; and that the governor of Mofambique, whofe office lafts but three years, has above 300,000 crowns revenue, without including the foldiers pay, and the tribute annually paid to the king of Portugal. From hence many learned men are of opinion that this is the Ophir whither Solomon fent fhips every three years from Eſiongeber to fetch gold; Eſiongeber being thought to be Suez, a fea-port on the Red Sea. This conjecture is fupported by the remains of feveral ſtately edifices, which are found in the different parts where the gold mines are fituated, and, from their appearance, are fuppofed to have been originally palaces or caſtles, built by that opulent prince the king of Iſrael. It may alſo be confirmed by the authority of the Septuagint, who tranſlate the word Ophri (1 Kings ix. 28.) into Sophira, which has ſome reſemblance to its preſent name of Sofala. As a farther confirmation of theſe conjectures, Lopez, in his voyage to India, ſays, the inhabitants of this country boaſt that they have books which prove, that in the time of Solomon, the Iſraelites ſailed every third year towards theſe parts to fetch gold.

CHAP. V.

MONOEMUGI.

THE empire of Monoemugi being an inland country, is very little frequented by the Europeans. It is bounded on the eaſt by part of Zanguebar, on the weſt by Matamba and Makoko, on the north by Abyſſinia, and on the ſouth by the empire of Monomotapa.

The account we have of this country is chiefly founded on the authority of the Negroes, who carry on a commerce with it, European travellers not daring to venture themſelves into it, not only by reaſon of the unhealthineſs of the climate, but alſo for fear of the inhuman Jagas, who infeſt the more interior parts of it, and maſſacre all that happen to fall in their way.

The extent of this country cannot be aſcertained, but that it is very great appears from the diſtance of its confines. The emperor is a powerful and rich prince, and has ſubdued moſt of the petty kingdoms about him to obedience.

The empire of Monoemugi is divided into five kingdoms or provinces, all of which are governed by petty princes ſubject to the emperor. The names of theſe are as follow, viz. Mujaco, Gingiro, Cambate, Alaba, and Monoemugi Proper.

Mujaco is bounded on the eaſt by Abyſſinia, on the weſt by Congo, on the north by Nubia, and on the ſouth by Makoko. It is a large kingdom, but very poorly inhabited; neither does it contain any thing that deſerves particular notice.

Gingiro, which is alſo a large kingdom, lies between Narea, the moſt ſouthern kingdom of Abyſſinia, and Makoko and Cambate. A writer who travelled thro' this kingdom, ſays, the king preſerves an extraordinary dignity, and that he contends with the ſun; for which reaſon he never goes abroad, or gives audience, but before the ſun riſes, alledging that two ſuns cannot appear at once. His palace is no better than a cottage, which when he dies is always burnt, and his ſucceſſor has a new one built for him, which is dedicated with the blood of two or three men of a certain family killed at the door, and on that account the ſaid family is free from all other duties, which are ſo heavy, that they render this cruel compoſition acceptable; for when the king buys any thing of foreign merchants, he pays them in ſlaves, and theſe are the ſons and daughters of any family, which he takes at pleaſure without any contradiction.

Cambate joins to the above kingdom on the weſt, and is bounded on the eaſt by Alaba, on the north by Abyſſinia, and on the ſouth by Makoko. It is a poor country, and badly inhabited.

Alaba

Alaba, is a large kingdom, and ſituated on the coaſt of Cambate. It reaches to the coaſt of Zanguebar, and is inhabited by a cruel people called Gallas. The prince is a Mahometan, but many of his ſubjects are idolaters, and of the worſt ſort, for they offer human ſacrifices.

Monoemugi Proper is bounded on the eaſt by Congo, on the weſt by Tranquebar, on the north by Monomotapa, and on the ſouth by Makoko. This is the largeſt diviſion of the whole, but not otherwiſe remarkable, except from its being the reſidence of the emperor.

The chief productions of this country, excluſive of the reſpective mines of gold, ſilver, and copper, are palm-wine and oil. Honey is here ſo plentiful, that the Negroes cannot conſume one third of it, ſo that they ſuffer the reſt to be loſt.

The natives dreſs in ſilks and cottons, which they buy of ſtrangers, and wear collars of tranſparent beads brought from Camboya. Theſe beads ſerve alſo inſtead of money, gold and ſilver being ſo common that it is conſidered by them as of no value. They are moſt of them idolaters, and in their diſpoſitions refractory and cruel.

CHAP. VI.

ZANGUEBAR.

THIS country received its name from the Arabs, the word Zangue, in their language, ſignifying black, all the inhabitants being of that colour. It is bounded on the eaſt by the Indian Ocean, on the weſt by Monoemugi, on the north by Anian, and on the ſouth by the river Cuama, which ſeparates it from Monomotapa. It is very diſproportionate in its extent, being 1400 miles in length, and not more than 350 in the broadeſt part.

The coaſt is very extenſive, and in the courſe of it has many rivers and iſlands. This part of the country is beſt known to the Europeans, owing to the conqueſts made here by the Portugueſe. The inland parts conſiſt of a large, barren, and unhealthy track, the lands lying low, and interſected by rivers, lakes, thick woods, foreſts, and marſhy grounds. Moſt of the inhabitants are Arabs, being the deſcendants of thoſe who were baniſhed here from their own country, on account of their adherence to the ſect of Ali, of which they are ſtill zealous profeſſors.

The principal river of this country is that called Kilmanci, or Quilmanci, the latter of which name was given it by the Portugueſe, from a fort and town ſo called, built by them at the mouth of it.

The continental part of Zanguebar is divided into two kingdoms, Moſambique and Melinda.

Moſambique is divided into ſeveral provinces and lordſhips, each of which has a peculiar dialect to itſelf. The climate is ſultry and unwholeſome, but the ſoil is fertile, producing plenty of millet, rice, and ſeveral ſorts of pulſe; as alſo abundance of orange and lemon trees. It abounds likewiſe with wild beaſts, particularly bears and elephants, the latter of which are ſo numerous, that the inhabitants are obliged to kindle fires round the fields to prevent them from devouring the corn, nor dare they go abroad at night without carrying lighted torches in their hands to frighten them away.

The inhabitants of Moſambique are of low ſtature, very black, and have ſhort curled hair. They are naturally cruel and deceitful.

Their towns are very ſmall, and the buildings low and deſpicable. Their common food is the fleſh of elephants, with bread made of millet and rice; from the latter of which they alſo make a kind of beer.

The chief wealth of theſe people conſiſts in gold, ebony, ivory, and ſlaves, all of which they ſell to the Portugueſe only; for they will not ſuffer any other foreigners to enter their country.

With reſpect to their religion, ſome of them are Chriſtians, and others Mahometans; but the principal part are idolaters, and uſe all thoſe ſuperſtitions and ridiculous cuſtoms, practiſed in other idolatrous countries.

There are two ſmall diſtricts adjoining to the kingdom of Moſambique, called Mongalo and Angos: the former is ſituated near the mouth of the river Cuama, and is chiefly inhabited by Arabs: the other is alſo ſituated on a bank of the ſame river, about 160 miles from the former. Both theſe places are fruitful, producing abundance of rice and millet; as alſo great quantities of cattle. The inhabitants are chiefly Mahometans, but intermixed with Negroes, who are idolaters, and remarkable for the lowneſs of their ſtature. They have no covering to the upper part of their bodies, but round their waiſts they wrap pieces of cotton or ſilk. Some of the better ſort wear a turban on their heads.

The people of both theſe places carry on a commerce with the inhabitants of Monomotapa in gold, elephants teeth, gums, &c.

Melinda is ſituated partly under the equinoctial line, and partly on both ſides of it; for its ſouthern boundaries lie under the 2d degree, and 30th minute, ſouth latitude, and its northern extremity extends to the river Quilmanci.

As this kingdom is well watered by rivers, the ſoil is in general fertile, and produces great abundance of the principal neceſſaries of life. It abounds alſo with a variety of fruit trees, particularly orange, palm, and citron, the latter of which conſtantly perfume the air with an odoriferous ſcent.

The inhabitants of this kingdom greatly differ in their complexions, ſome of them being quite black, ſome of an olive colour, and others almoſt white, particularly the women. The common people wear only a looſe piece of cloth about their waiſts, but the better ſort have a garment made of cotton or ſilk, which reaches from the waiſt to the knees, and on their heads they wear a turban. The ladies of quality always appear in ſilk, and ornament their necks and arms, the former with ſtrings of gold, and the latter with bracelets made of the ſame metal.

The city of Melinda, the capital of the kingdom, is ſituated on a very agreeable plain, and contains a great number of houſes, moſt of which are well built with free-ſtone. It is the reſidence of the king, and in it are a great number of rich merchants, who trade with the Indians of Camboya in gold, ivory, copper, quick-ſilver, and all ſorts of ſtuffs. The Portugueſe are ſo numerous in this city, that they have built ſeveral handſome churches and chapels in it; and before one of the churches they have erected a ſtately croſs of gilt marble.

The king's palace is a very ſpacious edifice, built of ſtone, and neatly ornamented.

Whenever the king goes abroad he is carried in a ſedan, on the ſhoulders of four of the greateſt men in his kingdom, and incenſe and other perfumes are burned before him as he paſſes along the ſtreets. At every town he enters, he is always met by a number of beautiful women, ſome of whom preſent him with flowers, and

and others go before him ſcattering various kinds of perfumes.

The laws of this country are but few, and thoſe wholly veſted in the power of the king. If any one is found guilty of murder, he is immediately puniſhed with death: but thefts and trifling offences are puniſhed only by fine. If any of the king's grandees are detected in having impoſed falſities on him, they are either ſentenced to pay a fine, or to receive a number of blows from the king's own hand, more or leſs, according to the greatneſs of the offence. In the latter caſe, the method of inflicting the puniſhment is thus: they ſtrip the criminal naked, and lay him on the ground, in the apartment of the palace aſſigned for that purpoſe. The king then gives him a number of blows on his back and breech, with a kind of whip, made with two long pieces of leather, faſtened to a ſtick. As ſoon as the king thinks he has ſufficiently ſcourged him, he deſiſts, when the criminal riſes, puts on his cloaths, kiſſes the king's feet, and thanks him in the moſt reſpectful and ſubmiſſive manner.

The weapons uſed by the people of this kingdom are bows, arrows, darts, and ſhields.

Some of theſe people are Mahometans, but the principal part are idolaters. The Portugueſe have made but few proſelytes in this kingdom, the people being obſtinate in preſerving their own religious principles.

CHAP. VII.

BRAVA.

BRAVA, the only republican ſtate on the whole coaſt of Africa, is pleaſantly ſituated on the coaſt of the ſame name, being bounded on each ſide by a river, ſuppoſed to be two branches of the great river Quilmanca. Its extent inland is very trifling; and the chief thing that renders it remarkable is its capital, which is called Brava, and ſituated in the firſt degree of north latitude, between the two rivers above-mentioned, where it has a tolerable good harbour. It is a large city, and, with the whole republic, was founded by ſeven Arabian brethren, who fled hither to avoid the impending danger that threatened them from the tyranny of their king, one of the petty monarchs of Arabia Felix.

The city is ſurrounded by ſtrong walls, and otherwiſe well fortified. The houſes are very ſpacious, and built after the Moreſco ſtile. They are chiefly inhabited by rich merchants, whoſe principal traffic conſiſts in gold, ſilver, cotton, and other cloths, elephants teeth, gums and other drugs, particularly ambergris, with which this coaſt abounds.

The government of this republic is ariſtocratical, the inhabitants having a right to chuſe twelve chiefs from amongſt the moſt ancient families, whom they truſt with the management of all affairs, and the adminiſtration of juſtice.

The inhabitants are chiefly Mahometans, but ſubject to the king of Portugal, to whom they pay an annual acknowledgement.

The manner in which this republic became tributary to the Portugueſe is thus related: Triſtran de Cugna, admiral of the Portugueſe fleet, having ſet on ſhore at Melinda three ambaſſadors, ſent by king Emanuel to the emperor of Abyſſina, and recommended them to the care and protection of the king of it, continued his courſe northward along the coaſt, till he came to the city of Brava, where he caſt anchor at the port. Here he diſpatched, according to the Portugueſe cuſtom, one of his officers, named Lionel Codingo, to wait on the heads of the republic, and offer them peace, and the friendſhip and alliance of the king his maſter. To this the chiefs anſwered, that they had no objection to enter into ſuch a treaty: but this anſwer was only a piece of diſſimulation, and calculated to detain the fleet to its deſtruction, the ſeaſon being then near at hand when ſuch boiſterous winds uſually blow in theſe parts, as would daſh in pieces all their ſhips, even in the very harbour.

Cugna having diſcovered this artifice, reſolved immediately to aſſault the city; accordingly, before day-break, he drew up his men on the ſhore, and formed them into two lines, the firſt whereof conſiſted of 600, the command of which he gave to Alphonſo Albuquerque, whilſt he reſerved to himſelf the command of the other, which conſiſted of 600 ſoldiers.

Brava was at this time garriſoned by 4000 men, half of whom immediately ſallied out againſt them. The conflict was ſevere on both ſides; but the Portugueſe charged them with ſuch fury, that they found themſelves obliged to give ground, and made a very regular retreat into the city; after which they ſhut all the gates to prevent the enemy from following them.

The Portugueſe immediately ſurrounded the place, examining, with the utmoſt diligence, where they could beſt force an entrance; but were all that time terribly annoyed from within, by burning torches and other miſſile weapons.

In the mean time Albuquerque having diſcovered a weak place in the wall, began his attack there, but was quickly oppoſed by the beſieged, who flocked thither with all ſpeed, and defended it with ſurpriſing intrepidity. The conteſt was kept up with great fury on both ſides, when luckily for Albuquerque, the admiral came up, at whoſe approach the Moors were ſtruck with ſuch a panic, that they fled with the greateſt precipitation; whilſt the Portugueſe ſoldiers, eager for their prey, would have purſued them into the city, but were reſtrained by their commanders.

The city, however, was ſoon after entered, and plundered of a very large and valuable booty, which the Portugueſe immediately carried on board their ſhips. Great numbers of the beſieged were ſlain and wounded, and many of them taken priſoners; but moſt of theſe were ſoon after releaſed. The Portugueſe had about 50 of their men killed, and many dangerouſly wounded, beſides 18 others who periſhed in the long-boat, which, through their inſatiable avarice, they had loaded ſo immoderately, as to occaſion it to overſet. Such, indeed, was the inhumanity of the Portugueſe ſoldiers and ſailors, and ſuch their thirſt after ſpoil, that they cut off the arms of ſeven women, to come the more readily at their rings and bracelets; but Cugna having ſeverely puniſhed the perpetrators of this cruelty, thereby deterred the reſt from the like barbarity.

After the city was plundered, Cugna ordered it to be ſet on fire; and it was ſoon reduced to aſhes in ſight of the inhabitants, who ſtood at a ſmall diſtance beholding the diſmal ſpectacle. From this cataſtrophe they were forced to become tributary to their conquerors; for the Portugueſe would not permit them to rebuild their city, or enjoy their ancient privileges, on any other condition, than that of paying the king of Portugal an annual acknowledgement, which they have continued to do from that time to the preſent.

CHAP.

CHAP. VIII.

KINGDOM OF MAGADOXA, OR MAGADOSKA.

THIS kingdom is ſituated on the coaſt of Ajan, and is of conſiderable extent, reaching from 5 deg. 40 min. of north lat. to the equinox, where the river or gulph of Jubo ſeparates the coaſt of Ajan from that of Zanguebar. It is bounded on the eaſt by the ocean, on the weſt by the kingdom of Alaba, on the north by the kingdom of Adel, and on the ſouth by the territories of Brava. It receives its name from its capital, ſituated at the mouth of a river of the ſame name, which river is called by the Arabs, the Nile of Magadoxa, by reaſon of its annual overflowing like that of Egypt.

Beſides this river, the country is well watered by a number of canals that are cut from it; ſo that the ſoil is exceeding fertile, and produces great quantities of ſeveral kinds of grain, as alſo a variety of excellent fruits. It likewiſe affords good paſturage, for which reaſon the natives breed great quantities of cattle, particularly oxen and ſheep. They have alſo numbers of horſes; and in the inland parts are various kinds of wild animals, particularly monkies, baboons, and apes. The rivers alſo produce ſeveral ſorts of fiſh, which the inhabitants catch without any fear, as they are not, as in moſt other parts of Africa, infeſted with crocodiles, or any other dangerous animals.

The inhabitants greatly differ in their complexion, ſome of them being quite black, others of a tawny colour, and ſome almoſt white. They are very robuſt, and of a courageous and warlike diſpoſition. Their weapons are darts and lances, as alſo bows and arrows, the latter of which are infected with a poiſonous quality.

The city of Magadoxa is tolerably large, and well inhabited. It is reſorted to by great numbers of merchants from the kingdoms of Adel, Camboya, and other parts, who bring here ſtuffs of various ſorts, as alſo drugs and ſpices; in exchange for which they receive of the inhabitants gold, ivory, wax, and other commodities.

The king and all his court are Mahometans, as are alſo the chief of the inhabitants of the city; but thoſe in the interior parts of the country are idolaters, and ſtrictly adhere to their heatheniſh ſuperſtitions.

With reſpect to the hiſtorical part of this kingdom, we have only to obſerve, that an hoſtile attempt was made on its capital by the Portugueſe fleet under the command of admiral Triſtran de Cugna, who, as before mentioned, reduced the city of Brava to aſhes; the circumſtances attending which were as follow:

Cugna having reduced that place, proceeded as far as the city of Magadoxa, which he cauſed to be ſummoned, as uſual, to accept of peace, of friendſhip, or, in plainer terms, of ſubjection and tribute to Portugal; but here he found the inhabitants ready prepared to give him a ſuitable reception: great numbers of foot were patrolling along the ſhore, the walls were covered with armed men, and a conſiderable body of troops were drawn up before the town, which made Codingo, the officer ſent with the ſummons, afraid of going on ſhore; therefore he diſpatched one of the Bravan captives to aſſure the Magadoxans that the Portugueſe came not to denounce war, but to offer peace to them. They, however, knowing what dreadful execution had been made at the city of Brava, fell furiouſly upon the meſſenger, and tore him in pieces. They alſo threatened to ſerve Codingo in the ſame manner, if he offered to land, which obliged him to return to his admiral, and acquaint him with the ill ſucceſs he had met with, and the inſolent menaces of the enemy.

Upon this information, the admiral was ſo enraged, that he determined to bombard and ſtorm the place, but was happily diverted from his deſign by the perſuaſion of his officers and pilots. The former repreſented to him the natural ſtrength of the place, the number of the garriſon, the great plenty of ammunition, and the valour and reſolution of the inhabitants. The latter pointed out the extreme danger that muſt unavoidably ariſe to the ſhips, both from the fire of the town, and the violence of the ſea, eſpecially as winter was then coming on, and the ſeaſon for ſailing nearly expired; ſo that if his troops ſhould miſcarry in their attempt againſt the place, their fleet and army muſt inevitably periſh. From theſe reaſonable obſervations Cugna immediately relinquiſhed all thoughts of attempting the deſign he had ſo precipitately formed, and immediately gave orders for ſailing to the iſland of Socotora, where he ſoon after arrived with all his ſhips, leaving the brave Magadoxans in the peaceable enjoyment of their own poſſeſſions.

CHAP. IX.

KINGDOM OF ADEL, OR ZEILA.

ADEL, or Zeila, as it is called from its capital city, is bounded on the north by the Straits of Babel-Mandel, on the eaſt by the Eaſtern or Indian Ocean, on the ſouth by Magadoxa, and on the weſt by the kingdom of Bali. The ſoil round the city of Zeila is barren, and the inhabitants labour under a dearth of water. At ſome diſtance from the city the country is fertile, and produces plenty both of grain and fruit. They have alſo cattle in abundance. The other parts of the kingdom being flat, they have rain but ſeldom, but that defect is ſupplied by the rivers that run through it.

The natives along the coaſt, as far as Barbora, are tawney, but farther to the ſouth they are jet black. They wear cotton garments in general, from the waiſt downwards, and have the reſt of their bodies bare; but thoſe of ſuperior rank have callico gowns, which cover their whole bodies, and are diſtinguiſhed by wearing caps on their heads.

The Adelites are brave and warlike, but being unacquainted with the art of making weapons, they are furniſhed with them by the Turks and Arabs, who receive in exchange the ſlaves and ſpoils they get from the enemy.

The country around the city of Barbora is fertile, and produces various kinds of grain, fruit, and cattle.

The articles of traffic here are gold duſt, elephants teeth, frankincenſe, and ſlaves.

CHAP. X

GUINEA.

GEOGRAPHERS divide this vaſt ſpace into two parts, namely, Upper Guinea, or Guinea Proper, and Lower Guinea, diſtinguiſhed by the name of Congo. We ſhall treat of them in that order.

Upper Guinea, or Guinea Proper, is bounded on the north by Negroland, on the eaſt by the unknown parts of Africa, and on the ſouth and weſt by Congo and the Atlantic Ocean. It is in length computed at 1800 miles, and in breadth at 360. The coaſt of Guinea is much frequented by Europeans, who uſually divide it into the Slave, the Gold, the Ivory, and the Grain Coaſt.

The Europeans gave theſe names to the reſpective parts from the chief commodities they afford. For inſtance, the Slave Coaſt is thus named from its furniſhing a greater number of ſlaves than any other country; the Gold Coaſt from the great quantity of that metal found there; the Ivory Coaſt, from the cargoes of elephants teeth brought from thence by the Europeans; and the Grain coaſt from the Guinea pepper, which grows there in abundance.

SECTION I.

THE SLAVE COAST.

THIS part of Guinea is bounded on the eaſt by the kingdom of Benin; on the weſt by the Gold Coaſt; on the north by Biafara, with the Deſert of Seth; and on the ſouth by the Atlantic Ocean. It comprehends the kingdoms of Coto, Popo, Whidah, and Ardrah. The two firſt, in compariſon with the two laſt, are very inconſiderable; a particular deſcription therefore, of the cuſtoms, manners, &c. of the inhabitants, will be given under the reſpective heads of Whidah, and Ardrah, which form the principal parts of the Slave Coaſt.

The kingdom of Coto (by ſome called the Land of Lampi) begins at the river Volta, and extends eaſtward to Little Popo, a diſtance of about 50 miles. It is a flat, ſandy, and barren country; and the only trees to be found in it are the palm and wild cocoa. The town or village of Coto, otherwiſe called Verbon, is about fourteen miles from the river Volta, and was formerly the reſidence of the king. The inhabitants of Coto are poor and illiterate, and their chief traffic conſiſts in ſlaves, whom they ſteal from the inland countries and ſell to the Europeans.

The kingdom of Popo extends about 30 miles, and is divided into two parts, by the names of Great and Little Popo. The laſt is ſo remarkably ſandy, and ſo barren, that the inhabitants are ſupplied with all their proviſions from Whidah. They chiefly live by plunder, and ſtealing ſlaves, in both which they exceed their neighbours of Coto, being of a more courageous and warlike diſpoſition. They are alſo great cheats, and frequently take in the Europeans by deluding them on ſhore in expectation of ſlaves, at a time when they have not one to diſpoſe of; when they not only fleece them, but ſometimes detain them for ſeveral months before they procure the number wanted, and then take the advantage by fixing on them an exorbitant price.

The town of Little Popo is ſituated on the ſhore, about ten miles from Coto. It is a poor, miſerable place, and conſiſts only of a number of ſtraggling huts, inhabited by people whoſe lives are chiefly ſpent in concerting meaſures for the deſtruction of their fellow-creatures.

In the inland parts of Great Popo are plenty of various kinds of fruit, as alſo cattle and poultry. The town ſtands on an iſland formed by marſhes, and is divided into three parts, each diſtinct from the other. It is the reſidence of the king, whoſe palace is very large, conſiſting of a number of huts, encloſed by lofty trees. The king has a great number of concubines, two of whom conſtantly ſtand by him with fans to cool and refreſh him. He is very fond of tobacco, and ſpends the principal part of his time in ſmoking and converſing with his concubines. His dreſs conſiſts only of a long gown of brocade, with an ofier cap on his head, and ſandals on his feet.

The town of Great Popo is the only place in the kingdom that merits the leaſt notice, the reſt being only ſmall hamlets of five or ſix inſignificant buildings, whoſe inhabitants, on the leaſt apprehenſion of danger, immediately retire to Great Popo.

The blacks of this kingdom are addicted, in general, to plunder and rapine. They carry on ſome trade in ſlaves, but their chief advantages ariſe from the fiſh caught in the rivers.

KINGDOM OF WHIDAH.

Extent. Boundaries. Rivers. Soil. Diviſions, Vegetable and Animal.

THIS kingdom extends from Popo about 10 leagues along the ſhore, and in the middle reaches ſix or ſeven inland; after which it divides itſelf like two arms, being in ſome places 30 or 40 miles broad, and in others much more. It is bounded on the eaſt by the kingdom of Ardrah, on the weſt by the river Volta, on the north by the country of Dahomy, and on the ſouth by the Gulph of Guinea. It is a fine fertile country, being watered by two excellent rivers, called Jakin and Euphrates, both of which take their riſe in the kingdom of Ardrah. At the mouth of the laſt river is the road where the ſhips ride, but the landing is exceeding dangerous on account of the prodigious ſwell of the ſea, particularly in the months of April, May, and July.

Theſe rivers greatly contribute to the fertility of the country. The coaſt part is ornamented with a variety of lofty and beautiful trees, which are planted in ſuch order as to form the moſt agreeable retreats. From the coaſt the country riſes with a fine eaſy aſcent for the ſpace of 50 miles, commanding, in moſt parts of it, a fine proſpect of the ſea. The fields are every where cultivated; and, inſtead of hedges or other fences, are divided by beautiful groves of trees. In ſhort the whole country appears as one continued garden, and its beauties may be much eaſier conceived than deſcribed.

The kingdom of Whidah is divided into twenty-ſix provinces or governments. The king is at the head of theſe, and has the government of the province of Xavier, ſo called from the capital of the kingdom. Each of theſe provinces has ſeveral ſmall villages or hamlets that are ſubordinate to it: ſo that the whole kingdom appears to be one large and populous town, divided into different parts by gardens, lawns, and groves.

So fertile is the ſoil of this country, that as ſoon as one harveſt is over, the ground is ſown with ſome other grain; ſo that they have two, and ſometimes three crops a year. They plough their land in ridges, by which means the dews falling into the hollows, and the ſun heating the ſides, whatever is planted ſoon comes to perfection. The grain conſiſts of rice, miller, and maize, or Turkey corn. The Negroes are ſo induſtrious, that they will not ſuffer any ſpot of ground to lie uncultivated: even the encloſures of their houſes and villages are planted with melons and other fruits; and inſtead

inſtead of highways, they have only ſmall paths that lead through the fields from one village to another.

Here are oranges, lemons, bananas, ananas, pine-apples, water-melons, citrons, and tamarinds. There are alſo prodigious numbers of palm-trees, but they are chiefly cultivated by the natives for the ſake of the oil, being ſo little fond of the wine that few of them take the trouble to draw it.

The roots produced are cabbages, carrots, turnips, radiſhes, parſley, and various kinds of ſallads, all of them little inferior in quality to thoſe of Europe. They have alſo peas, and plenty of other vegetables.

About Whidah they are ſeldom troubled with wild beaſts; but in the more inland parts there are elephants, buffalos, and tygers; and a greater plenty of all ſorts of apes and monkies than in any other part of Guinea. There are alſo many deers and hares, the latter of which are much like thoſe of Europe.

The tame beaſts are oxen, cows, goats, ſheep, and hogs, all of which are large and well taſted. The hogs, in particular, are exceeding large, and the fleſh as white and ſweet as thoſe of England. This, indeed, is little to be wondered at; for the poorer ſort of Negroes pay more regard to their hogs than to themſelves, and feed them much better.

They have plenty of poultry, as cocks and hens, geeſe, ducks, and turkies; beſides great plenty of wild fowl, as partridges, pheaſants, thruſhes, pintados, wild duck, teal, woodcocks, ortolans, and ring-doves. There are alſo many parrots, which are chiefly grey, with ſome red feathers on the head, and the tips of their wings and tails.

Here are ſeveral other ſorts of birds, whoſe peculiarities merit particular attention. The firſt of theſe is the kurbalot, or fiſher; it is a ſmall bird, about the ſize of a ſparrow, and its plumage is beautifully variegated; the bill, which is as long as the body, is very ſtrong and ſharp, and is furniſhed on the inſide with ſmall teeth, not unlike thoſe of a ſaw. They build in high trees by the ſides of the rivers, and their neſts are compoſed of earth mixed with feathers and moſs. They make their neſts at the extremity of the moſt ſlender branches, where they hang by a reed or ſtraw about a foot long: they are of an oval form, and are entered by a projection at the top that bends a little, ſo that the inſide is perfectly ſecure from the weather. Theſe birds not only fly in the air, but ſkim on the ſurface of the water with prodigious ſwiftneſs. They are exceeding numerous, and breed ſo faſt, that ſometimes a dozen neſts are found on the ſame tree.

The aigret is a bird of the heron kind, but is remarkable for the colour of its legs and feet, which are of a deep red. The body is about the ſize of a gooſe, and the feathers are of a darkiſh colour, intermixed with white: the neck is long, but the tail remarkably ſhort: the bill, near the head, is of a blueiſh colour, but towards the point it is black. They are little uſed by the Negroes, their fleſh being ill taſted.

The buſtard here is about the ſize of the Guinea hen and the fleſh of it exceeding good. The bill is of a whitiſh colour, and much longer than thoſe of Europe. The eyes are large, the iris hazle-coloured, and the eye-lids of an aſh colour. The ſides of the head, all round the eyes, are of a bright brown; but the top of the head, and the whole neck, are covered with black feathers, hanging a little looſe, with narrow points. The back, rump, and tail, are of a bright brown; and the feathers on the latter have tranſverſe black bars. The quills, or greater wing feathers neareſt the back, are browniſh, with black ſpots; and the middle quills white with tranſverſe bars of black. The legs are long, and the toes ſhort in proportion, being void of feathers ſome way above the knees. The toes are only three, all ſtanding forward, and they are covered with ſcales of a white colour, but the claws are duſky.

The bird called the Numidian Damſel is very delicate in its conſtruction. The body is long and taper, as are alſo the legs. The feathers on the upper part of the wings and back are of a light colour; but the tail, which is long and ragged, is black. The ſides of the head are white, and from the top of it behind hangs a long tuft, which reaches for ſeveral inches down the back of the neck. It is a bird much eſteemed among the Blacks, the fleſh of it being firm and well taſted.

The rivers here produce great plenty of various kinds of fiſh, which are caught by the natives with lines, they being ſtrangers to the uſe of nets. Among the fiſh caught here is a remarkable one, called by the natives the ape or monkey fiſh. The fleſh is tolerably good, and greatly reſembles lean beef in its taſte. It is a lively fiſh, and ſwims very ſwift. When he appears firſt on the ſurface of the water before he takes the hook, his motions are truly diverting: he comes gently near it, looks at it, taſtes it with the edge of his lips, and then quits it. After ſeveral evolutions, he at length ſwallows it, and, when he is entangled, he throws himſelf into ſuch poſtures, as to afford a moſt laughable ſcene to the ſpectators.

Here are great numbers of ſnakes or ſerpents, but they are chiefly of two ſorts. The firſt of theſe are black and poiſonous; but the other is quite harmleſs, and worſhipped by the natives. The poiſonous ſort are about 12 feet long, and three inches in diameter. They have a flat head, with two large crooked teeth, and always creep with their heads erect and their mouths open, and attack their prey with great eagerneſs.

The fetiſh ſnake has a large round head, with beautiful eyes: the tongue is ſhort, pointed like a dart, and their motion is exceeding ſlow: their tail is ſlender and ſharp, and the ſkin very beautiful, the ground of it being white, with waved ſtreaks or ſpots of yellow and brown, agreeably intermixed. They are ſo gentle, that they will not hurt any creature except the venomous ſerpents, to whom they have the greateſt enmity, and ſeem to take pleaſure in deſtroying them. Both Negroes and Whites handle and play with them without the leaſt danger.

Theſe ſnakes are held in ſo ſacred a light by the Blacks, that ſhould either a Negro or a white man kill one of them, whether on purpoſe or by accident, his life would pay for it. Of this the following tragical inſtance is recited by a late writer: "When the Engliſh firſt ſettled in Whidah, a captain of that country having landed and houſed his cargo, his men one night found a ſnake in the lodge, which not thinking any harm, they immediately killed and threw out before the door. The Blacks next morning ſeeing the dead ſnake, and the Engliſh as innocently owning they had killed it, the natives maſſacred all that were in the lodge, ſet fire to it, and deſtroyed all the goods." The Engliſh, deterred by this cruelty, diſcontinued from going to trade there for ſome time; but at length ſome of them again venturing, on their arrival the negroes ſhewed them ſome of theſe ſnakes, and deſired they would not hurt them, by reaſon they were ſacred. This requeſt the Engliſh readily obeyed, and no material accidents have happened to them ever ſince.

If a white man ſhould happen by chance to kill one of theſe ſerpents, the only means to ſecure him are to fly immediately to the king, and ſatisfy him that it was not done deſignedly; in which caſe, and a handſome preſent made to the prieſts, he may probably eſcape the rage of the populace; but even then his ſituation is very dangerous.

Before we quit this ſubject we ſhall take notice of a whimſical ſtory relative of one of theſe ſnakes, as mentioned by an Engliſhman who ſome time reſided on the ſpot. "A ſnake (ſays he) once placed himſelf over the table where I always dined, and though he might be eaſily touched, yet no perſon could be found who would venture to take him away. However, I was afterwards well paid for his lodging; for ſome of the great men of Whidah dining with me one day, happening to talk about the ſnakes, I glanced my eye to that which was over their heads, and told them, that not having eaten any thing for fourteen days he muſt certainly at

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laſt die with hunger if he did not ſpeedily remove his quarters. My gueſts anſwered, that although I was not aware of it, the ſnake had undoubtedly part of my victuals out of the diſhes, which he knew how to come at. I took the hint, and next day told the king, in preſence of the ſame perſons, that one of his fetiſhes had made bold, uninvited, to eat at my table for fourteen days; adding, that I thought it was but reaſonable that I ſhould be paid for his board, otherwiſe I ſhould be obliged to diſcharge from my houſe this bold intruder. The king, who was always diverted with ſuch ſort of diſcourſe, deſired me to let the ſnake remain where it was, and promiſed to provide both for him and me, which he accordingly did, by ſending me a fine fat ox the ſame evening."

The ſame writer ſays, "If a fire breaks out in which one of theſe ſnakes happens to be burnt, all that hear of it ſlap their ears, and give money to reconcile them to the conſumed fetiſh, of whom they have been ſo careleſs; ſince they believe he will quickly return, and revenge himſelf on thoſe who have been the occaſion of his death.

Perſons, Dreſs, Manners, Cuſtoms, &c. of the Negroes of Whidah.

THE Negroes of Whidah of both ſexes are generally tall, luſty and well proportioned. Their dreſs conſiſts of three or four ells of a ſtuff called Paen, which is wrapped round the waiſt, and then deſcends to the middle of the leg. The women wear a ſilk garment, with two or three rows of fringes, the bottom of it covering the feet. Sometimes they wrap themſelves round with a piece of the beforementioned Paen, and bring part of it over the head and round the ſhoulders like a mantle. The better ſort of the men are diſtinguiſhed by their hats, which they purchaſe of the Europeans; the larger they are, the better they like them, and are particularly proud of them after they are old and ruſty; others have bonnets made of deer or dogs-ſkins. They wear ſtrings of pearls or coral on their necks, and have bracelets of the ſame materials on their arms and wriſts.

In general they are very illiterate. When two perſons of equal condition meet in the morning, they both fall down on their knees, clap their hands, then riſe, and mutually ſalute, by wiſhing each other a good day. They pay particular reſpect to their ſuperiors, for when they chance to meet theſe they immediately fall on their knees, and kiſs the earth thrice, clapping their hands, and congratulating them by wiſhing them a good day or night, which the ſuperior returns by gently clapping his hands together, but without altering his poſture; all which time the inferior continues on the ground till the other departs. The ſame kind of ceremonies are alſo uſed by the younger to the elder brother, the children to the father, and the wives to their huſbands

The Whidah blacks are cleanly and aſſiduous in buſineſs; nor will they ever leave any work they undertake till it is thoroughly compleated. Beſides agriculture, the men make calabaſhes, wooden utenſils, hardware, and ſeveral other things, which they execute with great neatneſs. The women are employed in ſpinning and in planting and ſowing their corn, yams, potatoes, &c. The Whidah cloth is about two yards long, and about a quarter of a yard broad. It is of various colours, but thoſe moſt in uſe, are either white or blue.

Thoſe that are wealthy, beſides huſbandry, in which their wives and ſlaves are employed under them, drive on a very conſiderable trade, not only in ſlaves, but in many other commodities.

They are moſt artful thieves, and greatly addicted to gaming. When they have loſt their money and other property, they will play for their wives and children; and when they have loſt them ſtake their own liberty, and thus become ſlaves to their countrymen, who ſometimes ſell them to the Europeans.

Polygamy is univerſally prevalent here. It is no uncommon thing for a poor man to have forty or fifty wives; a chief or grandee three or four hundred; and a king as many thouſands. Theſe wives, however, may be conſidered only as ſo many ſlaves, and, indeed, the principal part of thoſe belonging to the great are probably captives that happen to pleaſe their maſters, who therefore rather chuſe to keep them, than ſell them to the Europeans.

Their marriage ceremonies are very conciſe. When a man fancies a young woman, he applies to her father and deſires her for his wife, which is ſeldom refuſed. He then preſents her with a fine pagne, or garment, as alſo necklaces and bracelets; after which he provides a grand entertainment, which concludes the ceremony. If a ſlave is inclined to marry a girl who is the ſlave of another he aſks her of her maſter without applying to her parents. The boys of this marriage belong to the maſter of the wife.

The women here cannot be conſidered in any other light than as ſlaves. They are in general obliged to till the ground for their huſbands; and even the favourites who are kept at home, are not exempt from labour; beſides which they are obliged conſtantly to attend on their huſbands, and behave to them with the greateſt ſubmiſſion.

The prodigious number of ſlaves to be had here can be no cauſe for wonder; for, from the multiplicity of wives that each man has a great number of children muſt reaſonably be expected. It is no uncommon thing to ſee fathers who have two hundred children living at the ſame time; and it often happens that a man has half a dozen children born in a day, for they never cohabit with their wives while pregnant, which, indeed, is the only reaſon that can be given for their being permitted to take ſo many. A man's principal wealth conſiſts in the number of his children, whom he can diſpoſe of at pleaſure, except his eldeſt ſon. On the death of the father the eldeſt ſon inherits not only all his goods and cattle, but his wives, which he immediately holds and retains as his own, except his mother, for whom, in caſe ſhe deſires it, he provides a ſeparate ſubſiſtence, and apartment. This cuſtom not only prevails among the common ſort of people, but alſo the king and grandees.

The Whidah blacks are equally fond of dancing and muſic.

Circumciſion is practiſed here, but the time of performing the operation is uncertain, ſome doing it at the moſt infant ſtate, and others not till the children are five or ſix years old.

They are ſubject to ſeveral diſeaſes, particularly malignant fevers, and the fleſh worms. Theſe worms are of different ſizes: in general they run about a foot in length, and are not thicker than a hair. They breed between the fleſh and the ſkin, where they extend themſelves till they force a paſſage; and not only men and women, but cattle, are ſubject to this diſorder. Various conjectures have been formed relative to the cauſes of theſe worms, but the moſt reaſonable opinion is, that of the unwholeſomeneſs of the water generally taken out of pools or ponds. They cauſe excruciating pain, and diſcloſe themſelves ſometimes by cold ſhiverings and ſometimes by burning heat. In ſome they are attended with a large ſwelling, in others with carbuncles and ulcers. The negroes uſe no remedy for them, but let them come out freely, and afterwards treat the part either by waſhing it with ſalt water or anointing it with freſh butter intermixed with ſalt. A late writer, ſpeaking on this head, ſays, "The pain of theſe worms is ſo exceſſive, that a man would for ever renounce all the profit of trading on this coaſt rather than endure it."

Their fevers are moſt prevalent in the months of June, July and Auguſt. The worſt and moſt difficult diſorder to cure is the dyſentery, which attacks ſtrangers at all ſeaſons of the year. It commonly ariſes from eating the country fruits to exceſs, or making themſelves too free with ſpirituous liquors.

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The people here are greatly alarmed in caſe of ſickneſs; and the mention of death has ſuch an effect on them, that it frequently facilitates their illneſs. It is a capital crime to ſpeak of it before the king, or any great man.

The fetiſhes, or objects of religious worſhip among the Whidah Negroes, are four in number, viz. the ſnake, or ſerpent, which is the principal; the trees; the ſea; and Agoye, or the god of councils.

The ſnakes are kept in fetiſh or religious houſes, built for that purpoſe in groves; and to theſe the people ſacrifice hogs, ſheep, fowls, goats, &c. The principal ſnake houſe, or cathedral, is ſituated about ſeven miles from the king's village, and is built under a beautiful and lofty tree. It is called the Grand Snake, being the largeſt of them all, and is chiefly worſhipped by the king and great men. The offerings made to this ſnake are very conſiderable, conſiſting not only of various kinds of proviſions, but alſo money, pieces of ſilk or ſtuff, and all ſorts of European and African commodities. Theſe offerings are preſented to the prieſt, or grand ſacrificer, who reconciles the diſpoſal of them with the idol in ſuch a manner as to enhance his own emolument.

An annual pilgrimage is made to the grand ſnake by all the nobility and great men of the kingdom, when the richeſt offerings and moſt valuable preſents are beſtowed. The grand maſter of the king's houſehold alſo goes once a year in the king's name, and offers preſents to the ſnake for the preſervation of the government. But the greateſt piece of devotion paid to this idol, is the ſolemn proceſſion made after the coronation of a new king, the particulars of which are thus related by the Chevalier de Marchais, which we have carefully tranſlated into Engliſh.

"As ſoon as notice is given of theſe proceſſions, the crowds are ſo great from all parts of the kingdom, that it would be impoſſible to paſs, if care was not taken to range them in order on each ſide. For this end a great number of officers, with large rods or ſwitches in their hands, go foremoſt, to keep order and make way. Theſe oblige the people, gathered near the temple gate, to ſit on their heels, and keep ſilence. Next follow 40 of the muſketeers, four and four, with their captain at their head: then the king's trumpet major, with 20 trumpets; and after him the drum-major, with as many drums, beating as loud as they can: next the chief player on the flutes, with 20 muſicians on the ſame inſtrument. Theſe three bands are the king's chamber muſic, and ſometimes play ſeparately, ſometimes together. Twelve of the king's wives, two and two, carrying the king's preſents to the ſerpent, which conſiſt of bujis, brandy, linen, callico, and ſilk. The king's valet-de-chambre alone, with a cane in his hand, bare-headed, and clothed like the grandees, his pagne trailing on the ground. Twenty-one trumpets, three and three. Forty ſoldiers with muſkets, four and four. Twenty drums, two and two. Twenty flutes, ditto. Twelve of the king's wives of the third claſs, with large baſkets of reeds on their heads, with victuals for the ſerpent from the king. Three of the king's dwarfs richly dreſſed, and long pagnes trailing behind them, which makes them look leſs. The grand maſter of the ceremonies, bare-headed, his cane in his hand, dreſſed like the grandees. Forty muſketeers, four and four. Twenty drums. Twenty trumpets. Twenty flutes. Twelve of the king's wives, carrying the queen-mother's preſents to the ſerpent. Three valets of the queen-mother carrying her arm-chair; the foremoſt has the back of the chair faſtened to his ſhoulder, the other two carry the feet. Three of the king's dwarfs, dreſſed like the former. After them comes the queen-mother, walking alone, her cane in her hand, magnificently dreſſed, her pagnes trailing behind, and on her head a reed hat, neatly wrought. Three ladies of the palace richly dreſſed, but bare-headed. Twelve women trumpets, two and two. Twelve women drums. Twelve women flutes. The grand ſacrificer, bare-headed, his cane in his hand, richly dreſſed like a grandee. Laſtly, a body of 40 muſketeers cloſing the proceſſion, with ſome officers to keep off the mob.

"As theſe ſeveral bodies arrived at the place of the ſerpent, without entering the court, they proſtrated themſelves, with their faces to the earth, at the gate, clapping their hands, throwing duſt on their heads, and giving ſhouts of joy. Mean time the men and women muſicians, ranged on each ſide, made an horrible noiſe, while the ſoldiers kept continually firing with their muſkets. The king's wives, who carried his preſents, and thoſe of the queen mother, waited, ranged in a line in the outer court, till that princeſs entered, and delivered theſe preſents to the grand ſacrificer. In doing this ſhe was aſſiſted by the king's valet-de-chambre, the maſter of the ceremonies, and the three ladies of the palace, who were the only perſons admitted into the temple. It did not appear that this princeſs was admitted to ſee the ſerpent, for that is a favour not even allowed to the king, who is not ſuffered to enter the firſt hall, but makes his addreſſes to the ſerpent by the mouth of the grand ſacrificer, who brings back ſuch anſwers as he thinks proper. After this the proceſſion returned to Sabi with the ſame order and ceremony as before."

They invoke the ſnake, or ſerpent, on particular occaſions, when they think their private fetiſhes have not ſufficient power to protect them. Theſe times are when they are afflicted with drought or rain, famine, or other public calamities. The common people go daily in large bodies to their ſnake-houſe, with drums beating and trumpets ſounding, where they perform their worſhip, which conſiſts of certain ſongs and dances to the honour of their idol, from whom they implore either a propitious journey, fair weather, a good crop, or whatever elſe they ſtand moſt in need of; to obtain which they preſent their offerings, and then return home.

Their ſecond public fetiſhes are the trees. Theſe are very lofty; and though they are formed by pure nature, yet they appear as if the greateſt art had been beſtowed on them. Theſe trees are only prayed to, and preſented with offerings in time of ſickneſs, more eſpecially fevers, for the reſtoration of health. The ſacrifices offered them conſiſt of loaves, of millet, maize, or rice. Theſe the prieſt places at the foot of the tree to which the patient is deſirous of making his offering. If the latter compliments the former with a pecuniary preſent, he leaves them to be devoured by the beaſts and birds; if not, when the patient is gone, he takes them home, and converts them to his own uſe.

Their third principal fetiſh, the ſea, they firmly believe (and not without juſt cauſe) is able to do as much for them as the ſnake or the trees. When the weather is ſo ſtormy as to hinder trade, the grand ſacrificer is conſulted, and according to his anſwer, a proceſſion is made to the ſea, where an ox or ſheep is killed on the ſhore, letting the blood flow into the water, and at the ſame time throwing a ring into the ſea as far as the ſtrength of the arm will reach. The carcaſe of the beaſt ſacrificed is the property of the prieſt, who diſpoſes of it in ſuch manner as he thinks proper: ſometimes he divides it among the people, but in general he converts it to his own uſe.

Agoye, their fourth and laſt public fetiſh, is an image, made of black earth or clay, and in form ſomewhat reſembles a Negro ſquatting. It is placed on a kind of pedeſtal, ornamented with a ſlip of red cloth bordered with cowries: the head is crowned with lizards and ſerpents, intermixed with red feathers; and from the top iſſues the point of an aſſagaye that goes through a larger lizard, beneath which is a ſilver creſcent. This idol is placed on a table in the houſe of the grand ſacrificer. Before it ſtand three wooden bowls, or half calabaſhes, in one of which are a number of ſmall earthen balls. With this idol the people generally adviſe before they commence any capital undertaking, for which reaſon he is called the god of councils.

The office of the prieſthood is not, as in moſt other countries, veſted in the males excluſively; the females alſo enjoy it in a ſuperior degree, being wholly exempt from the controul of their huſbands, who treat them with the utmoſt reverence. Girls are trained to the prieſthood, under the inſpection of an old prieſteſs, from whom they imbibe many abſurd principles and maxims, both as to religious tenets, ceremonies, and practices.

The high prieſt, or grand ſacrificer, preſides over the reſt, who pay him the greateſt homage; and even the king himſelf conſiders him with equal reſpect. The prieſthood of the grand ſerpent is peculiar to one family, of which the grand ſacrificer is the chief, all the others being ſubject to and dependent on him. The prieſts, as well as the prieſteſſes, are eaſily known by the ſcars and marks on their bodies, made at the time they are initiated into the religious order. In other reſpects they differ but little from the laity. They trade like other people, and gather conſiderable poſſeſſions by the ſale of cattle and ſlaves: but their greateſt gains ariſe from the credulity of the people, from whom they extort offerings and preſents for the great ſerpent, which their deluded devotees imagine are religiouſly beſtowed.

Government of Whidah, with the Puniſhments inflicted on Criminals.

THE civil and military government of Whidah is veſted in the king and his principal men: but in criminal caſes the king aſſembles a council, when he opens the indictment, and requires every perſon to declare his opinion what puniſhment the offenders deſerve, and according to the verdict the puniſhment is immediately inflicted. Under the king are the ſeveral viceroys, whom he appoints at pleaſure, and who in his abſence have an unlimited power. He has alſo grand captains, who are viceroys over certain diſtricts. Beſides theſe, there are a great number of honorary captains, and another ſort that are entruſted with the care of the markets, ſlaves, priſons, &c.

Murder and adultery are the only capital crimes here. For the firſt offence the criminal is cut open alive, his entrails taken out and burnt, and his body fixed on a pole erected in the market-place, where it continues for ſome days, and is then carried to a remote place, to be devoured by birds or beaſts of prey.

Adultery is puniſhed no leſs ſeverely than murder, eſpecially when it is committed with one of the king's wives. If the guilty couple happen to be ſurpriſed, the king pronounces ſentence of death immediately; the manner of executing which, according to a late writer, is thus performed: The king's officers cauſe two graves or pits to be dug ſix or ſeven feet long, four broad, and five deep, ſo near each other, that the criminals may ſee and ſpeak together. In the middle of one they plant a ſtake, to which they faſten the woman, tying her arms behind the poſt: her legs are alſo tied at the knees, and at the ancles. At the bottom of the other the king's wives lay bundles of ſmall faggots, after which they retire; and two forks of wood being faſtened by the officers at the ends, the man, ſtark naked, is tied to an iron bar, like a broad ſpit, with iron chains that he cannot ſtir, and laid acroſs the two forks. They then ſet fire to the wood, ſo that the flames may juſt reach the body, which is thus roaſted by a ſlow fire. This cruel puniſhment would be lingering, if they did not take care to turn the criminal ſo with his face downwards, that the ſmoak ſuffocates him before he is quite broiled. When they no longer perceive ſigns of life, they untie the body, fling it into the pit, and fill it up with earth. When the man is dead, the women iſſue from the palace, to the number of fifty or ſixty, richly dreſſed as on a feſtival day. They are guarded by the king's muſketeers, accompanied by his drums and flutes. Each carries on her head a large pot of ſcalding water, which they pour one after another on the head of the female criminal, dead or not dead, and throw the pot after it. This done they looſen the body, take up the ſtake, and caſting both into the pit, fill it up with earth and ſtones.

When the wife of a grandee is taken in adultery, the huſband is at liberty to uſe his own diſcretion, either to put her to death, or ſell her as a ſlave to the Europeans. If he determines on the former, ſhe is ſtrangled or beheaded by the executioner, and the king is ſufficiently ſatisfied on being made acquainted with the fact. The injured huſband, however, has not any power over the man that diſhonoured him, unleſs he happens to catch him in the fact, when he has liberty to kill him on the ſpot. If otherwiſe, he muſt apply to the king for juſtice, who uſually ſentences the criminal to death. The Chevalier Marchais, who was preſent at one of theſe executions, gives the following account of it. "A grandee complained to the king that a private perſon had debauched his wife. His majeſty, upon hearing the witneſſes, paſſed ſentence, that the offender ſhould be beaten to death wherever he could be found, and his body expoſed for food to the birds and beaſts. The officers belonging to the governor of Sabi immediately went in ſearch of him, and found him almoſt entering his own door, where they ſoon diſpatched him with their clubs, and left the body as the king had ordered. The neighbours went to acquaint the captain of the ſeraglio, that the body would infect all that quarter before it corrupted, and intreated he would obtain the king's orders to have it taken from thence, or throw it into the ſewer, where it could not affect any body. The officer repreſented their complaint to the king, who replied, 'if I did not puniſh adultery with ſeverity, no perſon in my kingdom could be ſafe. The body ſhall lie there till it be devoured or rotten. The people ſhall ſee it, and learn, at the expence of this wretch, how they invade their neighbour's bed. All I can grant is, that in the day-time they may throw a mat over the body, leaving the face uncovered, that the criminal may be known as long as his features can be diſtinguiſhed.' Not content with this, the king gave to the grandee, whom the deceaſed had injured, all his effects, with his wives and ſlaves, to ſell or diſpoſe of as he thought proper."

Crimes of a more trifling nature are left to the viceroys, who generally inflict either ſome kind of penance, or a pecuniary mulct, which is always paid to the king.

Ceremonies uſed at the Coronation of the Kings of Whidah.

ON the death of a king, the crown deſcends to the eldeſt ſon, unleſs diſapproved by the grandees, who ſometimes take upon them to veſt it in a younger branch of the family.

The time of the coronation is appointed by the grandees. It is ſometimes protracted for months, ſometimes for years, but never more than ſeven. During theſe intervals the grandees may be ſaid to govern; but the king, in all other inſtances, is treated with that reſpect which is due to his rank.

At the time appointed for the coronation, the grandees give intimation of it to the king, who aſſembles them in the palace, and after the council have deliberated on the meaſures to be uſed in executing the ceremony, notice is given of it to the public, by a diſcharge of cannon, and the news is ſoon circulated all over the kingdom.

After ſome previous ceremonies, conſiſting of offerings made to the grand ſerpent, and a proceſſion of a number of the king's wives, attended by a party of muſqueteers and muſicians, to the place of ſacrifice, the grandees repair to the palace, dreſſed in their richeſt apparel, and attended by their ſlaves. The king not being preſent, they enter it without ſtripping, and after having proſtrated themſelves before the throne retire. This part of the ceremony continues for fifteen days, during which the king's women make the palace reſound with their acclamations; and the public joy is teſtified by the firing of cannon, and an almoſt inceſſant diſplay of rockets from all parts of the town.

At

At the cloſe of this ceremony, an ambaſſador is deputed by the grandees of Whidah to requeſt one of the nobles of Ardrah (in whoſe family the right has continued time immemorial) to perform the office of crowning the king. This nobleman is conducted with great ſtate to Sabi, and having been ſplendidly entertained for five days, on the evening of the fifth nine guns are fired at the palace, to give the people notice that the king will be crowned the following day. At the ſame time one of his officers acquaints the directors of the European factories with the time and place, and invites them to be preſent at the ceremony.

In the evening of the ſixth day, about five o'clock, the king ſets out from his ſeraglio, attended by 40 of his favourite wives, dreſſed in the moſt ſumptuous manner, and rather loaded than ornamented with gold necklaces, pendants, and bracelets, foot-chains of gold and ſilver, and the richeſt jewels. The king is dreſſed in the moſt magnificent manner, and on his head he wears a gilt helmet, decorated with red and white feathers. He is attended alſo by his guards, and proceeds from the ſeraglio to the throne, which is placed in an angle of the court to the eaſt of the palace, and is called, The Court of the Coronation.

The throne conſiſts of a large gilt arm-chair a little elevated, with a velvet cuſhion richly laced with gold, on which the king ſits, having another of the ſame quality at his feet. On the left hand of the king are placed his 40 favourite women; on the right his principal grandees; and on a line with them the chief Europeans of the Engliſh factories. One of the grandees holds in his hand an umbrella, which is more for ornament than uſe, as the ceremony is performed at night. It is made of the richeſt cloth of gold, the lining embroidered with gold, and the edges adorned with gold fringes and taſſels. On the top of it is the figure of a cock as large as the life, and the pole that ſupports it is about ſix feet long, and gilt. Another grandee kneels before the king, and keeps fanning him during the whole ceremony. Oppoſite to his majeſty are two of his dwarfs, who alternately repreſent to him the good qualities of his predeceſſor, extol his juſtice, liberality, and clemency, and exhort the king not only to imitate, but ſurpaſs him; and conclude their harangue with wiſhes for the king's happineſs, and that his reign may be long and proſperous.

After theſe preparations, the grandee of Ardrah is conducted to the Court of Coronation, and ſome forms having paſſed, and a general ſilence enſuing, the grandee pronounces diſtinctly theſe words three times: "Here is your king; be loyal to him, and your prayers ſhall be heard by the king of Ardrah, my maſter;" after which he makes a low bow, and retreats. The cannon and ſmall-arms are immediately fired, the muſic ſtrikes up, and the acclamations are renewed. The grandee of Ardrah is then conducted in great ſtate to his apartments; after which the king, attended by his wives, his guards, and the Europeans, return to the ſeraglio, where the latter make their compliments to him as he enters the gate. The next day the king ſends a handſome preſent to the Ardrah grandee; after which he muſt return home, not being ſuffered to remain three days longer in the kingdom.

Rejoicings continue for fifteen days, and the whole is cloſed with a grand proceſſion to the houſe or temple of the great ſerpent.

The King's Houſehold Eſtabliſhment, Palace, Revenues, &c.

THE king of Whidah may be ſaid to lead a life of luxury and indolence, his attention to public affairs being merely occaſional. The greateſt part of his time is ſpent in the receſſes of the ſeraglio, attended by his wives. Theſe are exceeding numerous. She who bears the firſt ſon is the chief, and is diſtinguiſhed from the reſt by the name of queen, or, as they term it, the king's great wife. She poſſeſſes very great privileges.

If a man meets one of the king's wives in the ſtreet, and ſhould accidentally happen to touch her, ſhe is never permitted to enter the ſeraglio again, for both ſhe and the man are immediately ſold as ſlaves. If it appears there was any premeditated deſign in their touching each other, the woman is ſold, but the man is put to death, and all his effects confiſcated to the king. For this reaſon, ſuch as have occaſion to go to the palace, on their entrance immediately call out, *ago*, which ſignifies, "Make way, retire, or take care;" when the women place themſelves in a range on one ſide, and the men walk as cloſe as they can on the other. In like manner, when the king's wives go to walk in the fields, whoever meets them muſt immediately fall on their knees, and continue in that poſition till they have paſſed.

Notwithſtanding this deference from the people, his majeſty has very little reſpect for his wives himſelf. They attend him on all occaſions like ſervants; and, inſtead of his ſhewing any affection, he generally treats them with the moſt haughty contempt. Conſidering them only as ſlaves, on the moſt trifling occaſions he will ſell a number of them to the Europeans; and even ſometimes, when ſhips are waiting on the coaſt for ſlaves, he will ſupply them with whatever number they want to complete their complement. Theſe deficiencies are ſupplied by the aſſiduity of his captains, or governors of the ſeraglio, who go about the ſtreets, and ſeize ſuch girls as they think will be pleaſing to the king, nor dare any of his ſubjects make the leaſt objection or reſiſtance. Theſe officers immediately preſent them to the king; and as they are the moſt handſome they can ſelect, his majeſty is ſometimes particularly attracted by their beauties. When this happens to be the caſe, the object that moſt ſtrikes his fancy is honoured with his company for two or three nights, after which ſhe is diſcarded, and obliged to paſs the remainder of her life in a ſtate of obſcurity; for which reaſon the women are ſo little deſirous of becoming wives to the king, that they would rather prefer a life of celibacy.

The king's palace is magnificently furniſhed, and abounds with all the elegancies and luxuries of Europe. He obſerves great ſtate on all public occaſions. No ſubject is permitted to ſee him, unleſs his buſineſs be of a peculiar nature, and he has obtained the royal permiſſion; in which caſe he is uſhered in by the high prieſt, before whom he muſt proſtrate himſelf, as well as to the king. Even his grandees (except when a general council is called) find ſome difficulty in obtaining an audience; and when they do, muſt appear before him in the moſt humiliating form. They advance creeping to a certain diſtance, till the king, by clapping his hands ſoftly, gives them leave to ſpeak, which they do in a low tone, with their face almoſt to the ground; after which they retire in the ſame manner they advanced. The captain of the ſeraglio and the grand ſacrificer, or high prieſt, are the only perſons that are permitted to enter the ſeraglio without permiſſion firſt obtained from the king; but if they want to ſpeak to him, they muſt pay the ſame homage as any other ſubject. The Europeans, however, are exempted from theſe ſlaviſh ceremonials, being granted an audience whenever they deſire it, and treated with every token of reſpect.

The king's revenues ariſe from his lands, and a duty upon all commodities ſold in the markets, imported or exported. They are under the inſpection of governors, who execute their truſt without any emolument whatever. He alſo receives a moiety of all the tolls and fines in his vice-royalties. The revenues ariſing from the ſlave trade are very conſiderable, the king receiving three rix-dollars for every ſlave ſold in his dominions. Every European veſſel alſo pays him a pecuniary duty, excluſive of preſents, which they make to the king for his protection, and the liberty of trading in his dominions.

Trade of Whidah in general.

THE chief articles of trade are ſlaves, elephants teeth, wax, and honey. Markets are eſtabliſhed, and regulations formed, for carrying on commerce. The women, in many inſtances, are the chief agents, and deemed the beſt accomptants.

Slaves are paid for in gold duſt; but the payments for other commodities are made in ſtrings of cowries, each of which contains forty in number. Five of theſe ſtrings make what the natives call a *fore*; and fifty fores make an *alkove*, which generally weighs about ſixty pounds.

The various productions of theſe markets, and the regular manner in which the reſpective articles are diſpoſed, would afford a pleaſing ſight, were not ſlaves included; but to behold a number of men, women, and children linked together, and arranged like beaſts, is really ſhocking.

The kingdom of Whidah was greatly reduced in point of the number of its inhabitants, as well as the ſtructure of its buildings, through the conqueſt obtained over it in the year 1726, by the king of Dahamoy, a neighbouring prince. He or his ſucceſſors have preſerved the authority he then attained ever ſince. It is at this time conſidered only as a province, and its king as a tributary prince; though the inhabitants are under the ſame laws and government, and poſſeſs the ſame indulgences in their religious maxims, as before it was conquered.

The city of Sabi is very ſmall in compariſon to what it was before its being reduced to aſhes. At that time it was at leaſt four miles in circumference. The houſes were neatly built, and the ſtreets long, ſpacious, and uniformly diſpoſed. The houſes belonging to the factors were built in the European taſte, and contained many neat and commodious apartments: on the firſt floor of each was a ſpacious hall, with an elegant balcony in front; and beneath, on the ground floor, were warehouſes for the accommodation of their goods. The town was ſo exceeding populous, that, notwithſtanding the breadth of the ſtreets, it was ſometimes attended with difficulty to paſs them.

Markets were daily held in different parts of the city, where various ſorts of European as well as African commodities were expoſed to public ſale, as alſo abundance of all kinds of proviſions. Near the European factories was a ſpacious place ornamented with lofty and beautiful trees, under which the merchants and governors of the city every day aſſembled to tranſact buſineſs. But all theſe fine places were deſtroyed, nor is there a ſingle remnant left of the magnificence and ſplendor that once graced this populous city.

KINGDOM OF ARDRAH.

THIS kingdom, which is populous, and contains many good towns and villages, is bounded on the eaſt by the kingdom of Benin, on the weſt by that of Whidah, and on the ſouth by the Gulph of Guinea. It is very narrow towards the ſea, but widens conſiderably, and is divided into two parts, diſtinguiſhed by the names of Great and Little Ardrah.

The country in general is flat, and being well watered by ſeveral ſmall rivers in different parts of it, the ſoil is fertile, and produces great quantities of Indian wheat, milſet, yams, potatoes; as alſo ſeveral kinds of fruits, particularly oranges, lemons, cocoa-nuts, bananas, and pine-apples.

In manners, cuſtoms, dreſs, religion, &c. the inhabitants of this kingdom differ but little from thoſe of Whidah. They are cleanly in their perſons, waſhing themſelves every morning and evening in pure water, and anointing themſelves with civet, or ſome aromatic perfume.

Rice, pulſe, herbs, and roots, with beef, mutton, and dog's fleſh, conſtitute their common food. Their ordinary drink is the beer called pito, which they generally mix with water; but the better ſort drink palm-wine.

Thoſe who live near the ſea-ſide are employed in fiſhing, boiling of ſalt, and trading; but the inland inhabitants dedicate their time ſolely to the cultivation of their lands, and breeding cattle.

Like the natives of the ſeclimes, they are in general illiterate; for which reaſon, in buying and ſelling goods, they make uſe of cords tied in knots, each of which has a particular ſignification known only to themſelves, and thoſe who are accuſtomed to deal with them. Some few of the better ſort underſtand the Portugueſe tongue, which they not only ſpeak fluently, but alſo read and write with great accuracy.

Polygamy being allowed here, every man takes as many wives as he thinks proper. As no deference is paid to birth or fortune, the pooreſt man has liberty to pay his addreſſes to a woman of the greateſt quality; but if ſhe rejects him on the firſt viſit, he is not allowed to make a ſecond. Little ceremony is uſed in their marriages, the chief thing conſiſting in the mutual conſent of the parties and their reſpective parents: when this is obtained, the bridegroom preſents his bride with a calico paan, and invites all her relations, and his own likewiſe, to an entertainment, when he declares to the company that he takes the woman for his wife, and this public acknowledgment concludes the ceremony.

Men of ſuperior rank marry girls at ten or twelve years of age; but they do not conſummate till they have kept them ſeveral years in the character of ſervants. When the time is fixed for cohabiting, they preſent their brides with a piece of cloth, or ſhort frock; and an elegant entertainment is provided for the relations of both parties.

They generally bury their dead in a vault under the houſe they inhabited in their life-time. The king is the chief perſon exempted from this cuſtom: he is buried in ſome remote place from the palace; and many unhappy ſlaves fall victims on the occaſion.

Their religious maxims are alſo much the ſame as thoſe in Whidah, only they do not worſhip the ſerpent; on the contrary, they not only kill them, but are exceeding fond of their fleſh. They are greatly alarmed at ſickneſs, and tremble at the very name of death.

A perſon taken ſick ſends for a prieſt, who immediately goes to him, and ſacrifices ſome animal for the recovery of his health. The prieſt rubs the patient's fetiſh with the blood, but the fleſh of the animal is thrown away.

The fetiſhes belonging to the king and court are appointed by the high prieſt, and are birds of a black colour, not unlike the crows in England. Prodigious numbers of theſe are kept in the gardens of the palace; and it is equally criminal to pay diſreſpect to them here, as it is to the grand ſerpent at Whidah. The fetiſhes of the common people conſiſt of a particular ſtone, a piece of wood, or ſome inanimate ſubſtance, which they always keep hid in their houſe underneath an earthen pot. Every ſix months they make a public offering to the prieſt in honour of their fetiſh, at the ſame time aſking the idol ſeveral queſtions relative to their future welfare.

Such are the laws of Ardrah, that whoever diſobeys the king's commands is beheaded, and his wives and children become the king's ſlaves. Inſolvent debtors are left to the mercy of their creditors, who have liberty to pay themſelves by ſelling them for ſlaves. The ſame puniſhment is alſo inflicted on him who has debauched another man's wife. The puniſhments for adultery committed by the women, and other crimes, are the ſame as at Whidah.

Aſſem, ſo called by the natives, but by the Europeans Great Ardrah, the capital of the kingdom, is ſituated about 16 leagues inland to the north-weſt from Little Ardrah, a ſpacious road leading from one to the other. The king's palace is a ſpacious edifice, though greatly inferior to the original building, which was deſtroyed

ſtroyed in the year 1726. The court is kept with great ſplendor.

The king ſeldom goes abroad; when he does, it is in ſo private a manner, that few of his ſubjects ſee him. He keeps a great number of women, with whom his time is chiefly employed. The principal of theſe has the title of queen, with this prerogative, that in caſe his majeſty denies her any thing ſhe has occaſion for, ſhe may ſell ſome of his other wives to ſupply her wants.

The king always eats alone; and when he drinks, an officer makes a ſignal, by ſtriking two ſmall rods of iron together, in order that all who are within ſight may turn away, and not look at his majeſty; for to ſee him drink is a capital offence, and the puniſhment for it is death. An inſtance of this was once manifeſted in an infant, who being aſleep by the king was awakened with the noiſe of the rods; and his majeſty obſerving that the child caſt its eyes on him while the cup was at his mouth, he immediately ordered it to be put to death.

Whoever preſents any thing to the king offers it on his knee; and the like reſpect is ſhewn even to the proviſions ſet on the table. Thoſe who happen to be in the way of the officers when they carry them, proſtrate themſelves with their faces to the earth, and dare not riſe till the diſhes are out of ſight.

Europeans are treated by the king and grandees of Ardrah with the ſame reſpect as at Whidah.

The chief commodity purchaſed here by the Europeans is ſlaves; and the articles they ſell the natives conſiſt of cowries (which are the current coin of the kingdom), flat iron bars, gilt leather, white and red damaſk, red cloth, copper bowls or cups, braſs rings, beads or bugles of ſeveral colours, looking-glaſſes, fire-locks, muſkets, gun-powder, &c.

Little Ardrah, as it is called by the Europeans, and by the natives Offra, is a large and populous town, and, like the capital, incloſed with walls.

The country of Dahamoy, whoſe powerful king conquered the kingdoms of Ardrah and Whidah, is ſituated to the north of the Slave Coaſt, and extends a conſiderable way inland. This country is very wholeſome, as it lies high, and is daily refreſhed by fine cooling breezes; and from it, though at a conſiderable diſtance, may be ſeen the kingdom of Great Popo.

The king's palace is at a town called Abomay, ſituated 200 miles up in the inland country. He is a very powerful prince, and always keeps a conſiderable ſtanding army; but it conſiſts only of foot ſoldiers. He has for his enemies a nation called Joes, who live a great way to the north towards Nubia, and all fight on horſeback.

SECTION II.

THE GOLD COAST.

Boundaries. Diviſions. Climate. Manner of gathering Gold.

THE Gold Coaſt is bounded on the eaſt by the Slave Coaſt, on the weſt by the Tooth or Ivory Coaſt, on the north by Negroland, and on the ſouth by the Ocean. It includes ſeveral diſtricts. Theſe diſtricts contain ſome one, two, or more towns or villages, lying on the ſea-ſhore, either under or between the European forts or caſtles. However, theſe villages are only for the convenience of trade and fiſhing, for the principal towns lie within land, and are very populous.

This coaſt being ſituated within the 5th degree of north latitude, the heat is exceſſive from October to March; but in the other ſix months the climate is tolerably temperate. The coaſt is very unhealthy, owing to the extreme heat of the day, and the coolneſs of the nights; to which may be added the damp ſulphurous miſts that ariſe every morning from the mountains. Tornados are alſo frequent here, particularly in the months of April, May, and June. Theſe are violent ſtorms of wind riſing ſuddenly from the eaſt and ſouth-eaſt, and ſometimes from the north, with a few points to the weſt. They are generally attended with repeated claps of violent thunder and dreadful lightning, with prodigious ſhowers of rain falling like a flood, and an uncommon darkneſs. They ſometimes laſt an hour, and ſometimes two or more; but as ſoon as they are over, the weather immediately becomes clear and fine. If they happen in the ſummer ſeaſon, which is ſometimes the caſe, they are not ſo violent as in the winter, but they are more incommodious both to land and ſea-faring people, being uſually followed by cold rains, ſo heavy and conſtant for ſeveral days together, that they ſeem to threaten a deluge.

The inland countries throughout abound with mines. Gold is alſo gathered on the ſea-ſhore by the following method. In the morning ſucceeding a rainy night numbers of the natives go to the ſea-ſhore, each being furniſhed with two calabaſhes, one of which they fill with earth and ſand. This they waſh with many waters by turning the calabaſh round; the water with the lighteſt of the mud waſhing over the brim, while the gold, if there be any, ſinks by its own weight to the bottom. Thus they continue till two or three ſpoonfuls are only left, and this they put into the other calabaſh; then fill the other again, and continue waſhing till about noon, when the calabaſh that receives the ſettlings, being pretty well filled, is taken home and minutely ſearched. They ſometimes find as much gold as is worth half-a-guinea, ſometimes the value of a ſhilling, and ſometimes none at all.

Vegetable and Animal Productions.

THE Gold Coaſt abounds with a variety of trees. One of the moſt remarkable, and which grows in great abundance, is the papay tree. The fruit at firſt is produced at the top of the trunk without any branches; but as the tree grows older it ſhoots out branches towards the top, which reſemble young ſtocks, whereon likewiſe fruit grows.

The inland countries on the Coaſt of Guinea are in general fertile, and produce ſeveral ſorts of grain, particularly maize and millet, which grow in great abundance. They have alſo ſeveral kinds of vegetables and roots.

Palm trees grow here in abundance, and are of infinite ſervice to the natives, not only from the wine that flows from the trunk, but the oils which they extract from their nuts. They have alſo plenty of various kinds of fruits, as plumbs, pears, oranges, citrons, cocoa-nuts, and figs; to which may be added ananas, water-melons, and the kormantin apple. The laſt fruit is more peculiar to this country than any other: it is about the ſize of a walnut, and has a green huſk; but the outer rind is of a yelloviſh caſt, ſomewhat inclining to red. In the core are four large flat kernels ſeparated by the pulp, which is red and white, of a ſweetiſh tart taſte, but moſt inclining to the latter. It is a very agreeable and refreſhing fruit, and of infinite ſervice to thoſe afflicted with the bloody-flux; for it is very aſtringent, and, when boiled with wine and ſugar, is not only more uſeful, but more pleaſant than tamarinds.

The tame animals of this country are bulls, oxen, cows, ſheep, goats, and hogs; but the paſture is ſo indifferent, that they are, in general, exceeding poor and ſmall. The cows yield but little milk; and one of the beſt, when full grown, is ſo light, that it will not weigh above 250lb. The ſheep are not above half the ſize of thoſe of Europe; and, inſtead of wool, their bodies are covered with long ſhaggy hair. The goats are very plentiful, but ſmall in proportion to thoſe of Europe. However, the fleſh is very fat and ſweet, and greatly preferred to that of ſheep.

Their chief domeſtic animals are dogs and cats. The Negroes frequently eat the former, and are very fond of them, inſomuch that they will not only give a ſheep for one of them, but alſo ſomething to boot. They prefer dog's fleſh to any other, and conſider it in the

ſame light as the Europeans do veniſon. The dogs here are much like our foxes, and have long, upright ears. Their tails are long, but taper, and without hair: the ſkin is alſo naked; and they never bark, but only howl. They are very diſagreeable to the ſight, but much more ſo to the touch. The blacks call them *Cabra de Matto*, which, in the Portugueſe, ſignifies a *wild goat*; and ſo univerſally are they admired in this country, that in ſome places they breed them for ſale, and carry them to the markets, where they fetch a much better price than the ſheep.

Cats are alſo greatly eſteemed by the Negroes, but they do not eat them, unleſs out of neceſſity. If they are good mouſers they value them much, as they are prodigiouſly peſtered with various ſorts of vermin. They are in general very handſome, and are called by the natives *ambaio*.

The wild beaſts, both on the coaſt and in the inland parts, are of various ſorts. Among theſe none are more diſtinguiſhed than the elephants; for though in other parts theſe animals are rendered docile and uſeful, yet here they are never tamed. Notwithſtanding this they ſeldom hurt any one, nor is it an eaſy matter to provoke them.

A celebrated traveller, in his deſcription of Guinea, relates the following ſtory of one of theſe animals. "One morning an elephant came to El Mina, walking eaſily along the ſhore under the hill of St. Jago. Some Negroes were ſo bold as to go to him without any thing in their hands: he ſuffered them to encompaſs him, and went quietly along with them under mount St. Jago, where one of our officers ſhot him above the eye: but this, and the following ſhot which ſome Negroes now poured on him, did not even make him mend his pace, and he only ſeemed between whiles to threaten the Negroes, by pricking up his ears, which were of a prodigious ſize. He, however, went on, and ſoon entered our garden. This drew ſeveral people together. He had broke down four or five cocoa-trees, and, in our preſence, he broke down five or ſix more; when the ſtrength he ſeemed to uſe in breaking down a tree might be fitly compared to the force exerted by a man in knocking down a child of three or four years of age. While he ſtood here above an hundred ſhot were fired at him, which made him bleed as if an ox had been killed. But this did not make him ſtir; he only ſet up his ears, and made the men apprehend that he would follow them. At length a Negro, going ſoftly behind him, wantonly got hold of his tail, and was going to cut off a piece of it: but the elephant giving the Negro a blow with his trunk, and drawing him to him, trod upon him two or three times, and, as if that was not ſufficient, gored two holes in his body with his teeth, large enough for a man's double fiſt to enter. He then let him lie, and even ſtood ſtill while two Negroes ventured to fetch away the body, without offering to hurt them. At length the elephant, after he had been about an hour in the garden, wheeled about as if he intended to fall on us, on which we all flew to the fore door, in order to make our eſcape; but he followed none of us, but going to the back door threw it to a great diſtance; then turning from it, walked through the garden hedge, and, proceeding ſlowly to the river by mount St. Jago, bathed himſelf. Having thus refreſhed himſelf a little, he came out of the river, and ſtood under ſome trees by ſome of our water-tubs, where he alſo cooled himſelf, and then broke the tubs in pieces, as he did alſo a canoe that lay by them. The firing here renewed, till the elephant at laſt fell; after which they cut off his trunk, which was ſo hard and tough, that it coſt the Negroes thirty ſtrokes before they could ſeparate it, which muſt have been very painful to the elephant, ſince it made him roar, which was the only noiſe I heard him make. He was no ſooner dead than the Negroes fell on him in crowds, each cutting off as much as he could; ſo that he furniſhed great numbers with food. Thoſe who pretended to underſtand elephant ſhooting, afterwards told us, that we ought to have ſhot iron bullets: indeed, ours were not only of lead, but too ſmall, and therefore moſt of them had rebounded from his hide, and very few penetrated his ſkull."

Elephants here are very numerous, as are likewiſe tigers, jackalls, apes, and monkies. There are alſo wild boars, but not ſo rapacious as in moſt other countries, and their fleſh is very good.

Beſides the wild beaſts of a voracious nature, there are others, as harts, antelopes, and hares. The former of theſe are of various ſorts.

Here are alſo ſeveral ſorts of wild cats, ſome of which are ſpotted like tigers, and are very fierce and miſchievous. Among theſe is the civet-cat, called by the Negroes *kankan*, and by the Portugueſe *gatos de algalia*. They generally vex and teaze them before they take out the muſk from the bag; for the more the animal is enraged previous to this operation, the better will be the civet. The bag which contains the civet is largeſt in the male. The liquor of which the civet conſiſts, appears to be excreted from certain glands that lie between the coats that compoſe the bag from which the civet is taken.

Here are ſome porcupines, which are, in general, about two feet in height, and their teeth are remarkably ſharp. They are very daring, inſomuch that they will attack the largeſt and moſt dangerous ſnakes. When irritated they ſhoot their quills at the enemy, and with ſuch violence that they oftentimes prove fatal. The Negroes eſteem their fleſh as a great delicacy.

There are ſeveral other animals on this part of the coaſt of Guinea, and, among the reſt, that remarkable one called by the natives *potto*, but more generally known by the name of the ſloth, and is ſaid to be the moſt ugly creature in the univerſe. This animal is ſo ſlow in its motion, that it cannot travel above twenty yards in a day. The head is ſtrangely diſproportioned, and the fore feet greatly reſemble hands. The hair of the young ones is of a pale mouſe colour, but that of the old is red, and looks more like wool than hair. The female, when big with young, climbs the trunk of ſome old tree, in which there is an hollow from ſome accidental decay, at a diſtance from the ground. Here ſhe depoſits her young, which are generally two in number. During the time ſhe ſuckles her young ſhe continues in the ſame hole, and though that period is very ſhort, before it is expired ſhe becomes almoſt emaciated. When the young are able to crawl after her, ſhe leads them to the neareſt branches of the tree, where they devour the leaves firſt of one and then another. When the tree is quite ſtripped, they are obliged to ſeek a new place of abode. The journey, however, to the next tree takes up no ſmall time in performing; and though the creature is fat and in good condition at the time he leaves his former habitation, yet, before he has reached his new one, he becomes as poor and lean as poſſible; and if the tree is high, or at any diſtance, and he meets with nothing on his journey, he inevitably dies with hunger. While it is thus travelling ſlowly on the ground, any beaſt may kill and devour it, for it is entirely defenceleſs, and, when attacked, only makes a noiſe like the crying of a kitten. The characteriſtics of this animal are its ſlow pace, and its having the fore feet longer than thoſe behind, with three claws on each foot.

In the woods is another four-footed animal called by the Negroes *quoggelo*. They knock them on the head, ſell their ſkins to the Europeans, and eat their fleſh, which they ſay is exceeding white and palatable. It is a very inoffenſive creature, and will not hurt any thing. It lives on piſmires, catching them with its tongue, which is extremely long and glutinous.

The guano is an amphibious creature, and greatly reſembles a crocodile, but is very inoffenſive.

The poultry here conſiſts of cocks and hens, geeſe, ducks, turkies, and pigeons. The wild ſort are mallards, pheaſants, and partridges: beſides which they have peacocks, fieldfares, cranes, ring-doves, &c. There are alſo great numbers of parrots, parroquets, eagles,

eagles, kites, green birds, and ſeveral others peculiar to this country.

The beſt birds here for uſe are the wild ducks, which are very plentiful, and little inferior to thoſe of Europe. There are alſo various kinds of ſmall birds, ſome of which are exceeding beautiful.

The crown bird found on this coaſt is more beautiful than thoſe in the other parts of Guinea. They are about the ſize of a ſtork, and receive their name from a large tuft that grows on their heads, ſome of which are red, others blue, and ſome of a ſhining gold. Their bodies are chiefly covered with black feathers; the ſides of their heads are beautified with purple ſpots; and the feathers of their wings and tails are of different colours, as red, yellow, white, and black. Their tails are very long, and the Negroes pluck their feathers to ornament their heads.

The Gold Coaſt abounds with reptiles and inſects. They have many ſnakes, ſome of which are large and venomous: alſo large ſcorpions, ſome of which are as big as ſmall lobſters, having a bladder full of poiſon at the end of their tails, which they diſcharge at their enemies with pleaſure.

Locuſts are very numerous here, and ſometimes make great deſtruction among the corn and vegetables.

The millepedes, or hog-lice, are very numerous; and though their ſting is not ſo dangerous as that of the ſcorpions, yet it occaſions a very ſharp pain for ſome time.

Among the inſects here the moſt remarkable are the large ants, which differ from thoſe in other parts of the world. Theſe are of various ſorts and colours: ſome are white, others black, and ſome red. They are very rapacious, and will ſometimes attack a living ſheep, which, in a night's time, they will reduce to a perfect ſkeleton, leaving not the leaſt thing except the bones. Fowls and chickens frequently ſhare the ſame fate; and even rats, though ſuch active animals, are not able to eſcape. As ſoon as one of theſe animals is attacked by the ants, his deſtruction is at hand; for they gather in ſuch prodigious numbers that they ſoon overpower him; nor will they quit him till they are ſufficiently formidable to carry him off to ſome convenient place, when they immediately fall to work, and, in a ſhort time, reduce it to a mere ſkeleton. A late writer ſays, "If theſe little animals have not a language (as many believe they have), yet they certainly have ſome method of communicating their thoughts, as I experienced in the following manner: when I ſaw two or three ſtraggling ants on the hunt, I would kill a cock-roach, and throw it in their way. As ſoon as they found what it was, they ſent away for help, while the other one ſtaid and watched the dead body, till their comrade returned at the head of a large poſſe, who, if they found themſelves too few to carry off the prize, detached a ſecond meſſenger for a reinforcement."

The gnats are another plague on this coaſt, eſpecially near woods and marſhy grounds. They ſting very ſharp, and raiſe prodigious ſwellings, attended with violent pain. They are moſt troubleſome in the night, and frequently oblige the inhabitants to deſert their habitations.

Perſons, Diſpoſitions, Buildings, Furniture, Diet, Employment, Marriage Ceremonies, Mechanical Skill, Diverſions, Diſeaſes, Funeral and Religious Solemnities, Claſſes, Government, Weapons, Mode of engaging with an Enemy, &c. &c. of the Natives of the Gold Coaſt.

THE natives of the Gold Coaſt are, in general, of a middling ſtature, and well proportioned. They have ſparkling eyes, ſmall ears, and lofty eye-brows. Their teeth are very white, and tolerably well ranged. Their lips are red, and not ſo thick as thoſe of the inhabitants in the other parts of Guinea. They are broad-ſhouldered, have large arms, thick hands, and long fingers. They anoint their bodies every morning with palm-oil, ſo that their ſkin is very ſmooth and ſleek: but excluſive of this, they conſider that practice as very wholeſome, and a preſervative from vermin, which they are naturally apt to breed.

In ſtature the women are rather ſhorter than the men, but very ſtraight and well-proportioned: they have fine ſparkling eyes, ſmall mouths, and beautiful teeth: their noſes are in general high, and a little crooked; and they have all long curling hair. They are good houſewives, very cleanly in their perſons, and have excellent conſtitutions. They are naturally ſober and induſtrious, but proud, artful, and covetous.

The men in general have excellent memories, and are very quick of apprehenſion, but are naturally ſlothful and indolent, ſo that they are only induſtrious from neceſſity. Thoſe of conſequence walk with their eyes fixed on the ground, ſeldom looking about, or taking notice of any one, except it be a perſon of higher rank; but to their inferiors they ſhew ſuch contempt, that they will not even deign to ſpeak to them.

They are generally very complaiſant to ſtrangers, pay great reſpect to the Europeans in particular, and are highly pleaſed with their accuſtomed civilities.

There is a diſtinction in their dreſs according to rank; but that of the women is far ſuperior to that of the men. The lower claſs wear only a piece of cloth round the waiſt, and another between the thighs, faſtened with a girdle. The garments of the better ſort are compoſed of linen, ſilk, or ſtuff; they are made two or three ells long, folded round the waiſt, with the ends hanging down to their ancles. They dreſs their hair in a variety of forms, decorate it with different trinkets, and wear ornaments in their ears, round their necks, and on their arms and legs.

Their habitations in the inland parts are much better, and more uniform, than thoſe on the coaſt. Some of their villages are ſo conſtructed as to form narrow lanes, in the center of which is an open place, adapted not only as a market for the ſale of proviſions and other commodities, but alſo as a place of diverſion for the inhabitants.

The dwellings of the better ſort are built of the ſame materials as thoſe of the common people, but are more lofty and ſpacious.

The houſes in general have ſmall huts adjoining to them, moſt of which are divided into different apartments, by partitions made of ruſhes, bound cloſe together: theſe apartments are adapted for their wives, each woman having one to herſelf.

Each family has a granary or ſtore-houſe without the town, where they keep their wheat, millet, and other grain.

A few ſtools, ſome earthen pots to hold water and dreſs victuals, and a few ſmall wooden cups, are the whole of their furniture. The poorer ſort have only a mat to lie on, which they ſpread on the ground, and ſome of them cover themſelves with the ſkins of beaſts. The better ſort uſe quilts made of ruſhes, on which they lay a fine mat with a bolſter, and by it keep a large kettle with water to waſh them. They all keep a good fire in their bed-room, to preſerve them againſt the damp of the rainy ſeaſon, and always lay with their feet towards it.

As to their diet, they prefer either fleſh or fiſh that ſtinks, to that which is ſweet and wholeſome. Their common food is a pot full of millet boiled to the conſiſtence of bread; or, inſtead of that, yams and potatoes, over which they pour a little palm oil, and mix with it ſome herbs, and a ſmall quantity of ſtinking fiſh. They take up their victuals with their fingers, and eat it very greedily. They lay it on a mat on the ground, and ſit croſs-legged, leaning on one ſide, or elſe with both their legs under ſquatting on their heels. The huſband generally eats alone in his own hut, and his wives ſeparately in theirs, except by chance, when he invites his chief wife, or pays a viſit to that which is his greateſt favourite.

The

The occupations of the men are trading, fiſhing, or making palm wine, great quantities of which are every day ſold at the markets; and the profits they get from their labour they give to their wives, who diſpoſe of it with great frugality.

The women are chiefly employed in providing for the family, under the direction of the principal wife. The firſt thing they attend to, in the article of diet, is to make bread.

The ceremonies of their marriages are, in general, the ſame as thoſe all along the whole Guinea Coaſt. Thoſe attendant on their daughters when they are too young to conſummate, are as follow. On the day appointed for the wedding, all the kindred on both ſides meet at the houſe of the bride's father, where an elegant entertainment is provided. In the evening the bride is taken to the bridegroom's houſe, and put into her huſband's bed between two women, where ſhe remains all night. This ceremony is repeated three ſucceſſive nights, after which the bride is ſent back to her father's houſe, and there kept till ſhe is of age to conſummate.

Some of the men here have from twenty to thirty wives; for the greater the number the more they are reſpected: but the common ſort have ſeldom more than ten.

Their children are naturally of ſo ſtrong a conſtitution, that little care is required in nurſing them. The poorer ſort of women faſten them to their backs when they go to their daily labour, and ſuckle them at different times, by raiſing them up to their ſhoulders, and turning their breaſts over to them. They take great pains in waſhing them every night and morning, when they rub them well with palm-oil, which makes their joints flexible, and greatly facilitates their growth. They go quite naked till they are ten or twelve years of age, when they wear a kind of clout faſtened round the middle. When they arrive at that age, the father takes the boys under his care, and brings them up to his own buſineſs. The girls are taught to weave baſkets, mats, caps, purſes, and other things; as alſo to grind corn, bake bread, and carry it to market for ſale.

The boys are chiefly brought up to fiſhing or agriculture; but ſome of them are put to trades, the principal of which are ſmiths, carpenters, and goldſmiths.

Some of them are good potters, having learnt that art from the Portugueſe. Though their earthen-ware is thin, yet it is very ſubſtantial, and equally good for uſe as any made in Europe.

The natives are fond of dancing, and have a great variety of muſical inſtruments, all which they make themſelves.

Dancing is a diverſion ſo univerſally admired by both ſexes, that it is the cuſtom for them to aſſemble every evening at the market-place for that purpoſe. On theſe occaſions they dreſs themſelves in their beſt attire. The women have a number of ſmall bells hanging at their feet and legs, and the men carry ſmall fans in their hands, made of the tails of elephants or horſes. Thoſe who compoſe the dance divide into couples oppoſite to each other, and the dance commences by their throwing themſelves into many wild ridiculous poſtures, advancing and retreating, leaping, ſtamping on the ground, bowing their heads to each other as they paſs, and muttering ſome ſtrange noiſe. The men then ſtrike each other alternately with their fans, and the women lay large circles of ſtraw on the ground, into which they firſt jump, and dance round them, then throw them up into the air, and catch them with their hands. Thus they divert themſelves for about an hour, when they break up the dance, and return to their reſpective habitations. In ſome towns they have public dances, inſtituted by order of their kings, which are held annually for eight ſucceſſive days, when people of both ſexes reſort to it from all parts of the country. This is called the dancing ſeaſon, and the greateſt mirth and feſtivity is preſerved during the whole of its continuance.

Unwholeſome as is the climate here, the natives are troubled with few diſeaſes. That with which they are moſt afflicted is the canker, or fleſh-worm, already deſcribed. The other diſtempers are the lues venerea, the head ach, and fevers: but theſe laſt they think little of, as they are in general very eaſily cured by compoſitions made of herbs and other ſimples.

As they never keep any account of time, their age cannot be aſcertained. When they begin to decline, their colour fades, and loſes a great part of its blackneſs: the hair turns grey and the ſkin wrinkled. The women, in particular, have the moſt diſagreeable aſpects.

On the death of any one, the relations and friends immediately aſſemble, and, ſurrounding the corpſe, expreſs the moſt hideous lamentations. They then wrap the body in an old cotton cloth, and put it into a coffin made of the bark of a tree, covering the face over with the ſkin of a goat. In this manner they expoſe it in the open air for half a day, the favourite wife ſitting by it all the time, and rubbing the face with a wiſp of ſtraw. If the deceaſed is a woman, the huſband uſes the ſame ceremonies. During this time the neareſt relations appointed on the occaſion ſing mournfully, and beat their braſs baſons, till the bearers come to remove the body, and every thing is ready for the proceſſion. In the interim, however, an old woman goes from houſe to houſe, and collects ſomething for the funeral charges, towards which every perſon in the town or village is obliged to contribute in proportion to their circumſtances. With the money thus collected they purchaſe a cow or an ox, which they preſent to the prieſt for performing the functions of his office. This beaſt the prieſt ſacrifices, and ſprinkles the fetiſh of the deceaſed with its blood, which with them is conſidered as a propitiatory offering for the dead. The previous ceremonies finiſhed, the corpſe is laid on a board, and the company ſing and dance round it for a ſhort time; after which it is carried to the grave by men; but only women are ſuffered to attend as mourners. The chief or favourite wife walks immediately after the corpſe; and if the deceaſed be a woman, the huſband only follows it, no other man being permitted to attend. When they come to the place of interment, the body is immediately laid in the grave, which is generally made about four feet deep: it is incloſed with ſtakes, and over it they raiſe a ſhed or covering, ſo that neither rain nor beaſts can come near it. When the body is depoſited, the women creep beneath this ſhed, and renew their lamentations by way of a concluſive farewel. They then raiſe a ſquare heap of earth over the body, on which they lay the principal tools and inſtruments uſed by the deceaſed in his lifetime, as alſo his clothes and weapons. The friends of the defunct alſo bring their gifts, which they either lay in the grave, or place over it, as tokens of their affection.

On the death of a king, all his ſubjects expreſs the moſt exceſſive lamentation; and as his condition and dignity requires great attendance, he is provided with ſervants, not only to accompany him in his journey, but alſo to wait on him in the other world. To effect this each of his grandees, or chief men, preſents him with a ſlave; others give him one of their wives, and ſome one of their children; ſo that there is always a conſiderable number, who are all ſacrificed previous to the interment of the royal corpſe. The perſons thus deſigned for victims are enſnared by ſtratagem; for, on the day appointed for the funeral, they are ſent on a pretended errand to ſome remote place, where people choſen for the purpoſe lie in wait, and eaſily diſpatch them. Their bodies are brought to the palace and publicly expoſed, as a teſtimony of the great reſpect in which the king was held by his ſubjects. After this they are beſmeared with blood, and carried with the royal corpſe in great ſolemnity to the grave, which is previouſly made in a wood, or ſome other place equally private. Their bodies only, however, are interred; for their heads are ſevered off, and fixed on poles round the grave, which is conſidered as a very honourable ornament.

ornament. Beſides theſe, the king's favourite wives requeſt to be ſacrificed, that they may be laid with him in the ſame grave, in order to accompany him in the other world. They bury alſo with him his clothes and weapons, with ſuch other things as he eſteemed moſt valuable; and near the grave they place veſſels containing victuals and drink, which they change as often as they find them empty.

The negroes on the Gold Coaſt are in general idolaters. Every one has a fetiſh or charm, to which they pay the greateſt reverence. Theſe fetiſhes are formed of different things, according to each perſon's fancy: ſome have the tooth of a dog, tyger, elephant, or civet-cat; others have an egg, the bone of ſome bird, the head of a fowl, ox or goat; and others again, the bone of a fiſh, the end of a ram's horn, or a bunch of cords made of the bark of trees: their regard for them is ſo great, that whatever they promiſe them they perform in the ſtricteſt manner, and that in every inſtance of abſtinence and mortification.

There are fetiſhes common to each kingdom: theſe are generally ſome large mountain or remarkable tree, which if any perſon ſhould be ſo indiſcreet as to cut or diſfigure, they would be put to the moſt cruel death. Each village has alſo its guardian fetiſh, dreſſed at the common expence, to which they pray for general benefits; and for this patron they erect, in the moſt public place, a kind of altar made with reeds, and covered with a roof of palm leaves. In a word, they are, in general, from the higheſt to the loweſt claſs, moſt inviolably and unreſervedly attached to the particular objects of their adoration.

The negroes tremble at the idea of the devil, to whom they aſcribe all their misfortunes; and are even terrified at his name. Such are their notions of the injuries they receive from this fiend, that they have an annual cuſtom of baniſhing him from every town and village throughout the reſpective diſtricts.

The two grand days of worſhip in the week are what they call the boſſum day and the fetiſh day: but the latter is always obſerved with the greateſt ceremony and devoutneſs.

The natives of the Gold Coaſt are divided into five degrees or claſſes. The firſt are their kings. The ſecond their nobility. The third may be called civil magiſtrates, their province being only to take care of the welfare of the city or village, and to appeaſe ſuch tumults as may ariſe among the inhabitants. The fourth are the common people, employed in agriculture, fiſhing, &c. And the fifth and laſt are, the ſlaves, who are either ſold by their relations, taken in war, or become ſo by poverty.

The different kingdoms are governed either in form of monarchies or republics. The kings are, in general, hereditary, but ſome few of them elective.

Their chief juſtices or judges, as well in kingdoms as republics, are commonly choſen from among the moſt wealthy, and particularly the governors of towns and villages. Theſe take cognizance of all civil and criminal caſes, but their deciſion is not abſolutely ultimate, as the parties can appeal to the king.

Offences of a criminal nature are puniſhed by fine. A murderer, indeed, is ſentenced to death; but it is ſeldom any one is executed, for if he has either effects himſelf, or friends to pay the fine, he eſcapes; if not he ſuffers. In the latter caſe, as ſoon as ſentence is paſſed he is delivered to the executioner, who blinds him, and ties his hands behind him; after which he leads him to ſome field without the town, where he makes him kneel down, bending his head forward, when he thruſts a ſpear through his body. This done he cuts off his head with a hatchet, and dividing the body into four parts leaves it expoſed to the birds of the air.

Robbery is uſually puniſhed by a reſtoration of the goods, and paying a fine, which is levied in proportion to the value of the goods ſtolen, and the circumſtances of the perſon who commits the fact.

On this part of the coaſt the crime of adultery is puniſhed only by fine; for which reaſon many women, by conſent of their huſbands, beſtow their favours merely to take advantage of thoſe who have been captivated by their charms. A late traveller, ſpeaking of this circumſtance, ſays, "Theſe men are truly contented cuckolds, who give their wives full orders to entice other men into their embraces; which done, thoſe ſhe devils immediately tell their huſbands, who know very well how to fleece the amorous ſpark."

It is impoſſible to conceive what ſubtilties they uſe to draw men, but eſpecially ſtrangers, into the net. To the latter they will pretend that they have no huſbands, and are yet unmarried and free; but the fact is no ſooner over, than the huſband appears, and gives them cogent reaſons to repent their credulity.

In caſes of adultery the inland negroes are more rigid in exacting the penalty than thoſe of the coaſt. Nothing leſs, in general, than life will ſatisfy the party offended; though the puniſhment is ſometimes mitigated by virtue of an enormous pecuniary conſideration.

In caſes of damage the negroes are reſponſible not only for their children, but alſo their relations, who in ſuch caſes help one another by a mutual contribution, each giving ſomething towards the fine, according to his circumſtances, otherwiſe the offender would be condemned either to ſlavery or death. In like manner every man is obliged to make good the injury done by his ſlave; for whatever crime he commits his maſter muſt pay the fine impoſed. In general the fine is proportioned to the circumſtances of the criminal.

Contentions frequently break out among the different princes of this coaſt, on which occaſions war is formally declared, and the kings, by their governors, appoint a day for their ſubjects to aſſemble in arms. This being done, a herald is ſent to denounce it to the enemy, at the ſame time fixing the day, place, and hour of battle. The grandees, or nobles, then repair to court, and after complimenting the king proceed to the war, taking with them their wives and families; and if the motives of the quarrel be great, before they ſet out they deſtroy their houſes and towns, that the enemy, if victorious, may gain the leſs advantage of their conqueſt.

The kings have a great number of guards, who conſtantly attend their perſons either at home or in the field. Theſe are well furniſhed with arms, and make a moſt formidable appearance.

They are very dexterous in the uſe of their warlike implements, whether muſquets, ſabres, lances, or ſhields, or bows and arrows, and act either on the offenſive or defenſive in a very powerful manner.

In battle they engage their enemy without paying the leaſt attention to order: each commander has his men cloſe together in a crowd, himſelf being hid in the midſt of them, and in this manner they engage one heap of men againſt another. In caſe a few are killed the reſt immediately run away, unleſs ſurrounded by the enemy; and ſo natural is cowardice to them, that when one officer ſees another enthralled, inſtead of advancing to aſſiſt him, he conſults only his own ſafety by a ſpeedy flight. They do not ſtand upright in battle, but ſtoop that the bullets may fly over their heads: as ſoon as they have diſcharged their guns they immediately run back to load them, and then return and reſume the fire.

The victorious party make as many priſoners as they can, which is the chief end of all their wars. Thoſe who cannot raiſe their ranſom are either kept or ſold as ſlaves: if a perſon of rank is taken he is well ſecured, and his ranſom is fixed very high; but if the perſon who occaſioned the war falls into their hands, they will not admit of any ranſom, for he is put to death, as the moſt effectual means of preventing his raiſing any future ruptures.

When a treaty of peace is agreed on, the contending princes engage to meet each other on a certain day,

to proclaim their determinations. The place is generally a large open plain, and each party appears as if armed for battle, bringing with them their fetiſhes. The prieſts, who are always the principal people in all theſe ceremonies, make the chiefs ſwear reciprocally to ceaſe hoſtilities, to forget what has paſſed, and, as a ſecurity for their promiſes, to give mutual hoſtages. As ſoon as theſe oaths are taken, the drums and trumpets begin to ſound, the parties throw down their arms, and embrace each other with the greateſt cordiality: after which they paſs the remainder of the day in ſinging and dancing, and commerce is renewed as if no quarrel had happened.

Provinces and Kingdoms of the Gold Coaſt. Settlements of the Europeans.

AXIM is a kingdom very fertile, and particularly abounds in rice, which is the ſtaple commodity. Near the chief village, called Ackombone, is the Dutch Fort of St. Anthony. The dreſs, cuſtoms, manners, religion, &c. of the natives, are the ſame as on the Gold Coaſt in general.

Frederickſburg, about ſeven leagues diſtant from Axim, is a large and handſome fort, likewiſe belonging to the Dutch. A conſiderable traffic is carried on here in gold, ivory, and ſlaves. This fort is well known by the name of Conny's Caſtle, which it obtained from the following circumſtances. When the Pruſſians, who were firſt poſſeſſed of it, left the Coaſt of Guinea, they committed the care of the fort to one John Conny, a black, with ſtrict orders not to deliver it up to any nation but the Pruſſians. Soon after their arrival in Europe, the king of Pruſſia ſold all his intereſt on the Coaſt of Guinea to the Dutch India Company, there being another fort belonging to him ſituated upon Cape Three Points.

When the Dutch came to demand this fort, John Conny refuſed to deliver it up to them, which produced a war that continued for ſome years, and coſt the Dutch much money, and a great deal of bloodſhed. On the other hand, Conny, flushed with his repeated victories over the Dutch, became a mortal enemy to them, and conſidered them in the moſt obnoxious light; to ſhew which he had a ſmall path, that led from the outer gate to the inner apartment of his caſtle, paved with the ſkulls of Dutchmen who were ſlain in battle; and, as a farther mark of contempt, he had one ſkull tipped with ſilver, which he uſed as a punch-bowl. However, in 1724 he was completely conquered, when he fled into the country, and the Dutch took poſſeſſion of the fort, in whoſe hands it has ever ſince continued.

A few leagues from Cape Three Points, or Cape Puntas, ſo called from its conſiſting of three little heads or hills lying contiguous to each other, is a ſmall fort called Dorothea, taken from the Pruſſians by the Dutch, who ſtill retain it.

In the mountainous parts of Anta, a country extending near twenty miles from eaſt to weſt, there are great numbers of elephants and tigers, which often infeſt the European forts, and not only terrify the inhabitants, but deſtroy their cattle. Boſman, who was chief factor of a ſettlement the French once had at Sakkundi, gives a ſingular relation of the audacity of one of theſe animals, which, as a matter of curioſity, we ſhall preſerve in his own words: "Some of my ſheep (ſays he), as well as thoſe of my neighbour the Engliſh factor, were ſeveral nights devoured by a tiger, which at laſt grew ſo bold, that he came at three in the afternoon to the lodge, and killed a couple of ſheep. Perceiving him in time, I went accompanied by my gunner, two Engliſhmen, and a party of Negroes, all armed with muſquets, in purſuit of him, and ſoon overtook him, tho' not before he had got into a ſmall thicket of underwood, which we beſet. The gunner went into the thicket to ſee where he lurked, but in a few minutes came running back frightened almoſt out of his wits, having left his hat and ſlippers behind. The tiger had even bitten him, and was ready to ſeize him, when, to the man's good fortune, the beaſt happening to be affrighted by ſome falling branches, he retreated, and gave the gunner time to eſcape.

"One of the Engliſhmen, impatient at waiting ſo long, reſolved to march into the wood with his muſket, if poſſible, to diſlodge him. The tiger ſuffered him to approach cloſe, and then fell upon him with extreme fury, ſeized him with his feet by the ſhoulder-blade, and fixing his teeth in his ſide, would, doubtleſs, immediately have torn him to pieces, if, by crying out, he had not drawn us to his aſſiſtance, which obliged the tiger to quit his prey: yet the man was ſo miſerably handled, that he lay ſenſeleſs about half a day, partly by the venom of the bite, and partly by the fright.

"The negroes were ſo terrified at this, that each quitted his poſt, and gave the tiger room to eſcape, which he ſoon attempted, but in his flight out of the thicket, ſomething happened truly tragi-comical. The underfactor of the Engliſh fort, near which the adventure happened, had promiſed to come to our aſſiſtance; and accordingly, the very moment the tiger quitted the wood, he advanced with his muſket in his hand, attended by ſeveral of his own people; but ſeeing the tiger making up to him, he ran as faſt back as his legs would carry him. This putting him out of breath, and being grievouſly affrighted, about a muſket-ſhot from the fort, he fell over a ſtone, where the tiger had already overtaken him. The company ſtood trembling at a diſtance, looking when he would be torn in pieces; but the beaſt, to their ſurpriſe, inſtead of attacking him turned off and fled. This I attributed to the cry which he and his followers made; for they durſt not ſhoot, he ſtood ſo near the factory.

"The ſame tiger, however, was not deterred from coming again in a few days after, and killing ſome ſheep, which put me upon another way of trying to catch him. I made a ſort of cage of ſtrong pales, twelve feet long and four broad, laying 1000 weight of ſtone on it, to prevent his breaking out above. I furniſhed it with a double plank floor, and in one of the corners I put a leſſer cage, which took up one quarter of the whole, with a couple of ſmall hogs in it. After this I ſet the door like that of a rat-trap, ſo that the tiger could not come in to ſeize the hogs without ſhutting himſelf in, while the little cage ſecured the hogs from his fury.

"The ſtratagem ſucceeded ſo well, that three nights after the tiger was caught at midnight. Inſtead of roaring, as was expected, he immediately ſet his teeth to work, and had certainly eat his way out of limbo, could he have had but one half hour's time; for he had ſoon rent the inner from the outer door, and eaten the palliſades half through: in ſhort, I came ſeaſonably to prevent his breaking jail. Not to dally with fruitleſs firing, I clapped the muzzle of my muſket, laden with three balls, between the pales, which the beaſt furiouſly catched at, and ſo furniſhed me with a fine opportunity of diſpatching him at one ſhot. He was about the ſize of a common calf, well provided with large teeth and claws.

"This ſucceſs furniſhed the company with a feaſt of eight days; for by the cuſtom of the country of Anta, he who catches a tiger is privileged for eight days to ſeize all the palm-wine brought to market, without paying any thing. This was accordingly done, and the whole eight days were ſpent by the Negroes in ſhouting, dancing, leaping, and all manner of public jollity."

In divers parts of the Gold Coaſt there are forts belonging to different European powers, ſome of which are in a great degree abandoned, and many of them in a ruinous ſtate. There are likewiſe many villages, concerning which there is nothing worthy of mention.

The kingdom of Fetu is repreſented as a fertile place, and the inhabitants as deriving conſiderable advantages from agriculture, and ſeveral articles of trade. In the town of Elmina in this kingdom, is the Caſtle of St. George,

George, a very considerable and strong fort in the possession of the Dutch.

The most important fortress belonging to the English on the coast of Guinea is called Cape Coast Castle. It stands on a large rock that projects into the sea. It was taken by the Dutch from the Portuguese, who built it, and afterwards fell into the hands of the English. The African Company, having obtained a charter for it, took upon them to enlarge and improve it. On this coast there are other forts of less note belonging to the English.

The town of Anamaboe is remarkable for the following circumstance: An English captain, in the year 1749, went up this part of the country, with some of his people, to traffic, where he was introduced to a negro king, who had 40,000 men. This prince, being captivated with the polite behaviour of the English, entertained them with the greatest civility, and at last reposed so much confidence in the captain as to entrust him with his son, about 18 years of age, with another sprightly youth, to be brought to England, and educated in the European manner. The captain received them with great joy, but they were no sooner safe in his possession than he basely sold them for slaves. In a short time after he died, and the ship coming to England, the officers related the whole affair; on which the government sent to pay their ransom, and they were brought to England, and put under the care of the earl of Hallifax, who gave orders for cloathing and educating them in a very genteel manner. They were afterwards introduced to his majesty, richly dressed in the European manner. They appeared several times at the theatres, and one night in particular at Covent-Garden, to see the tragedy of Oroonoko. They were received with great applause, which they acknowledged by a genteel bow, and then took their seats in a box. The sight of persons of their own colour on the stage, apparently in the same distress from which they had been so lately delivered; the tender interview between Imoinda and Oroonoko, who was betrayed by the treachery of a captain; his account of his sufferings, and the repeated abuse of his placability and confidence, strongly affected them with that generous grief which pure nature always feels, and which art had not yet taught them to suppress: in short, the young prince was so far overcome, that he was obliged to retire at the end of the fourth act. His companion remained, but wept the whole time; a circumstance which affected the audience yet more than the whole play, and doubled the tears that were shed for Oroonoko and Imoinda.

These young Africans were baptized by the reverend Mr. Terrett, then reader of the Temple, who took great pains to instruct them in the Christian faith. They appeared perfectly satisfied during their stay in England; but the young prince being desirous of seeing his royal father, he, with his companion, politely took their leave, and arrived safe at Anamaboe in the month of December 1750.

The singular circumstances that occasioned the African prince to pay a visit to England, gave rise to several publications during his stay here. Among these was an admirable poem, intitled, "The African "Prince now in England, to Zara at his Father's "Court;" of which the following is an abstract:

Princes, my fair, unfortunately great,
Born to the pompous vassalage of state,
Whene'er the public calls, are doom'd to fly
Domestic bliss, and break the private tye,
Fame pays with empty breath the toils they bear,
And love's soft joys are chang'd to glorious care;
Yet conscious virtue, in the silent hour,
Rewards the hero with a noble dower.
For this alone I dar'd the roaring sea,
Yet more—for this I dar'd to part with thee.
Fix'd the dread voyage, and the day decreed,
When, duty's victim, love was doom'd to bleed;
Too well my mem'ry can those scenes renew,
We met to sigh, to weep our last adieu.
"If in some distant land my prince should find
"Some nymph more fair," you cry'd, "as Zara kind"—
Mysterious doubt! which could at once impart
Relief to mine, and anguish to thy heart.
Still let me triumph in the fear express'd,
The voice of love that whisper'd in thy breast;
Nor call me cruel, for my truth shall prove
'Twas but the vain anxiety of love.
How vainly proud the arrogantly great
Presume to boast a monarch's godlike state!
Subject alike, the peasant and the king,
To life's dark ills, and care's corroding sting.
From guilt and fraud, that strikes in silence sure,
No shield can guard us, and no arms secure.
By these, my fair, subdu'd, thy prince was lost,
A naked captive on a barb'rous coast.
What dreadful change! abandon'd and alone,
The shouted prince is now a slave unknown;
To watch his eyes no bending courtiers wait,
No hailing crowds proclaim his regal state;
A slave, condemn'd, with unrewarded toil,
To turn, from morn to eve, a burning soil;
At night I mingled with a wretched crew,
Who by long use with woe familiar grew;
Of manners brutish, merciless and rude,
They mock'd my suff'rings, and my pangs renew'd;
In groans, not sleep, I pass'd the weary night,
And rose to labour with the morning light.
But from this dreadful scene with joy I turn;
To trust in Heav'n, of me let Zara learn.
The wretch, the sordid hypocrite, that sold
His charge, an unsuspecting prince, for gold,
That justice mark'd, whose eyes can never sleep,
And death, commission'd, smote him on the deep;
The gen'rous crew their port in safety gain,
And tell my mournful tale, nor tell in vain;
The king, with horror of th' atrocious deed,
In haste commanded, and the slave was freed.
No more Britannia's cheek, the blush of shame
Burns for my wrongs, her king restores her fame:
Propitious gales, to Freedom's happy shore,
Waft me triumphant, and the priest restore;
Whate'er is great and gay around me shine,
And all the splendor of a court is mine:
And knowledge here, by piety refin'd,
Sheds a bless'd radiance o'er my bright'ning mind;
From earth I travel upward to the sky;
I learn to live, to reign, yet more, to die.
Oh! I have tales to tell, of love divine—
Such blissful tidings! they shall soon be thine.
I long to tell thee, what, amaz'd, I see,
What habits, buildings, trades, and polity!
How art and nature vie to entertain,
In public shews, and mix delight with pain.
Oh! Zara, here, a story, like my own,
With mimic skill, in borrow'd names was shewn;
An Indian chief, like me, by fraud betray'd,
And partner in his woes an Indian maid.
I can't recall the scenes, 'tis pain too great,
And if recall'd, should shudder to relate.
To write the wonders here, I strive in vain.
Each word wou'd ask a thousand to explain.
The time will come, O speed the ling'ring hour!
When Zara's charms shall lend description pow'r.
Farewell; thy prince still lives, and still is free;
Farewell; hope all things, and remember me.

The negro sovereign, penetrated with gratitude for the paternal attention shewn to his son by the earl of Halifax, sent presents of a considerable value to that nobleman, among which were two negro boys of the same age as the prince and his companion. These his lordship took particular care of, and provided for them in a very decent manner: the one being very fond of, and properly initiated in the culinary art, became his lordship's cook; the other attended him to Ireland

land at the time he was lord lieutenant of that kingdom, when the office of ſerjeant-trumpet (a place for life) becoming vacant, his lordſhip preſented it to his black. The former fell a martyr to exceſſive drinking. The latter was univerſally eſteemed for his affability and politeneſs, and well known in London by the appellation of *The Gentleman Black*. He married a white woman of a conſiderable family, and ſome fortune, who broke her heart for the loſs of him, and was buried in the ſame grave a few weeks after his interment. This perſon's name was Frederick Cudjoe. He attended his patron, Lord Halifax, in his dying moments.

The kingdom of Agonna is remarkable for being always governed by a woman, who, to preſerve the ſovereignty in her own hands, lives unmarried: but that ſhe may not want a proper companion, ſhe generally purchaſes one of the moſt handſome ſlaves ſhe can meet with, who is prohibited, on pain of death, from ever intriguing with any other woman. Her eldeſt daughter is next heir to the crown, her ſons being all ſold as ſlaves, or otherwiſe diſpoſed of, ſo as not to interrupt the ſucceſſion in the female line. The daughter is taught the ſame political maxims practiſed by her mother, and, when of a proper age, is allowed the ſame indulgencies in having a male companion.

Aquamboe is ſituated chiefly within land, and is of conſiderable extent. The maritime part of it is called Acra, and was formerly a kingdom of itſelf; but it was conquered by the inhabitants of Aquamboe, to whom it has ever ſince been tributary.

Aquamboe is a good ſporting country, and abounds with hares, rabbits, ſquirrels, red and fallow deer, wild goats, pintado hens, and other fowl. The hares are ſo plentiful, that the blacks kill them with ſticks as they paſs along on their ordinary occaſions. Among the deer is one ſpecies that is exceeding beautiful, and, perhaps, the moſt delicate animal to be met with in the univerſe, it is about eight or nine inches in height, and the legs ſo ſmall, as not to exceed the circumference of a gooſe's quill. The males have horns turning back on their heads, about three inches long, without branches or antlers; they are crooked, and of a ſhining black colour. They are very tame and familiar, but of ſo tender a nature, that they cannot bear the ſea; for notwithſtanding the attempt has been made ſeveral times, and every means made uſe of that could be thought of, no one was ever brought alive to Europe.

At Acra are two forts, one belonging to the Engliſh, the other to the Dutch. The former is called Fort James; the latter Fort Crevecœur.

At a ſmall diſtance from the Dutch fort is another called Chriſtianburg, which belongs to the Danes, and is the only one they have on this coaſt.

The country of Acra is pleaſant, but not fertile, owing to its being almoſt depopulated by the frequent wars with the Aquamboes. The European forts are chiefly ſupplied with proviſions brought from Cape Coaſt, Anamaboe, and Cormantin. The trade carried on here conſiſts chiefly of gold and ſlaves, which are more plentiful than in any other part of the Gold Coaſt. The goods the natives take in return for the ſlaves conſiſt of cowries, woollen cloth, Sileſia linen, red and yellow bugles, knives, fire arms, powder, chintz, &c.

SECTION III.

THE IVORY OR TOOTH COAST.

THIS coaſt, called by the natives Quaqua (that word in their language ſignifying a tooth), is bounded on the eaſt by the Gold Coaſt, on the weſt by the Grain Coaſt, on the north by Negroland, and on the ſouth by the Atlantic Ocean. Behind Cape Palmas, ſituated in 4 deg. 27 min. north lat. and 5 deg. 55 min. eaſt long. is a bay where ſhips ride ſafely at anchor, being ſheltered from the ſoutherly winds.

The town of St. Andrew, ſituated on a river of that name, is a place of conſiderable trade. Its ſoil is fertile, and produces grain of different kinds, as well as variety of fruits.

The places moſt worthy of deſcription on the Ivory Coaſt are the following:

Cape la Hou, or Laho, which produces elephants teeth of the largeſt ſize, and in the greateſt abundance. The town is extenſive, the ſoil fertile, and the natives are tolerably civil. Between two villages, called Jackla-How and Corbi la How, is a track of the ſea called by ſome the Bottomleſs Pit, many efforts having been made in vain by the natives to fathom it. At length, however, the bottom was found by the Europeans, and the depth appeared to be no more than ſixteen fathom. Near Cape Apollonia, at the Eaſtern extremity of the coaſt, are three villages, inhabited by ſome Negro natives, who carry on an occaſional traffic with the Europeans.

Soil and Productions of the Country. Perſons. Language. Religion. Manufactures. Trade of the Natives.

THE country of that part of Guinea called the Ivory Coaſt, is pleaſant to the view, and fertile in ſoil, producing grain and vegetables in abundance. The natives are not ſenſible of the value of ſugar-canes, and therefore only apply them to the purpoſe of feeding elephants, which are here very numerous. Indigo and cotton are ſaid to grow without cultivation; and tobacco, under proper cultivation, would prove a profitable and uſeful article.

Oxen, goats, hogs, ſheep, &c. abound here. A good ox is ſeldom ſold for more than a few dozen of knives, and the inferior ones in proportion.

They have alſo great plenty of poultry, and variety of fiſh. Among the latter are frequently found three remarkable creatures, namely, the ſea-ox, the zingana or hammer fiſh, and the ſea-devil.

The ſea-ox, or horned fiſh, is very long and thick. The ſkin is hard, rough, and without ſcales, and of variegated colours. The head reſembles that of a hog, and it has a trunk like that of an elephant, which in the ſame manner receives its food. It has many peculiarities in its form; but the moſt ſingular is the extreme part of the tail, which is compoſed of a ſtrong, thick fin, which ſerves as a defence. It has alſo other fins, which ſubſerve the ſame purpoſe.

The zingana, or hammer fiſh, is a voracious creature, and likewiſe armed with fins, which greatly facilitate the ſeizure of its prey.

The ſea-devil (ſo called from the uglineſs of its form) ſurpaſſes all other creatures found in the ſeas. It has four eyes, and is about 25 feet in length, and 18 in breadth: on each ſide of it is an angular ſubſtance as hard as a horn, and very ſharp: the tail is long and taper, and terminates with a dangerous point; the back is covered with ſmall lumps about two inches high, and ſharp at the ends: the head is large, but there is no appearance of any neck, and the mouth is furniſhed with a great number of ſharp-pointed teeth; two of the eyes are near the throat, and are round and large, but the other two are placed above them, and much ſmaller: on each ſide the throat are three horns of an equal length, the middlemoſt of which is three feet long, and an inch and a half in diameter, but they are flexible, and therefore can do but little harm: the fleſh of this creature is hard and ill-taſted, but the negroes catch them for the ſake of the liver, from which they extract large quantities of oil.

The Quaqua blacks, or natives of the Ivory Coaſt, are tall, luſty, and well featured, and very honeſt in their dealings, particularly with the Europeans that viſit this coaſt. When they go to trade with any ſhip, they take ſome water in their hands, and let a few drops of it fall into their eyes: this is a kind of oath, by which they intimate, that they would rather looſe their eyeſight than cheat thoſe they trade with. They are no

leſs

leſs averſe to drunkenneſs than fraud; and though their country produces a prodigious number of palm-trees, yet they will not drink any palm-wine, but only a certain liquor called bordon, or tombo-wine, which is much weaker, and rendered ſtill more ſo by being mixed with water.

Their dreſs is much the ſame as the inhabitants of the coaſts in general. They file their teeth very ſharp, but they are, in general, irregularly placed, and very crooked. They are fond of having long nails, and take particular pride in the length of their hair, which they plait and twiſt in different forms, and greaſe it it with palm-oil mixed with red earth. With this compoſition they every day anoint their bodies, and continually chew betel, the juice of which they rub about their mouths and chins. They ornament their legs with a great number of iron rings, and in theſe conſiſt their chief dignity, for the greater a man's quality is, the more rings he wears.

Their language is altogether unintelligible, and they ſpeak haſtily and by ſtarts. When they meet each other they uſe the word *quaqua*, at the ſame time each laying one hand on the other's ſhoulder, and taking hold of the fore-finger, pull it till it ſnaps, when they again, in a low voice, repeat the word quaqua, which cloſes the ſalutation.

In religion they are all idolaters: and though there are ſeveral petty princes in different parts of the coaſt, yet the whole are ſubject to a king, called Soccoo, whom they not only reſpect but dread.

By the fundamental laws of this country every one is obliged to continue all his life in the condition in which he was born; ſo that, for inſtance, one whoſe father was a fiſherman can never become any thing elſe but a fiſherman; and ſo of all other trades and profeſſions.

In ſome parts of the coaſt, particularly at Laho, they manufacture a pretty ſort of cotton ſtuffs, ſtriped blue and white, about three quarters broad, and three or four ells long. Theſe are much valued, and ſell for a good price in moſt parts of Guinea.

The natives are very fond of trade; but they are cautious in going on board European ſhips, leſt they ſhould be trepanned. In negociation all is done by ſigns and geſtures of the hands or fingers, and by ſetting a quantity of goods againſt the teeth they offer to diſpoſe of.

Beſides the articles of ivory, gold, and ſlaves, the Negroes here carry on a great trade in ſalt, which they ſell to their neighbours, who carry it further into the inland countries, and diſpoſe of it to great advantage, it being in thoſe parts exceeding ſcarce.

The inland parts of this coaſt produce the largeſt and beſt elephants teeth to be found in the univerſe. The country is ſo full of elephants, that the inhabitants of the hilly parts are obliged to dig their houſes in the backs of the mountains, and to make their doors and windows narrow and low, and are forced to uſe all kinds of artifices to drive them from their plantations, or lay ſnares for them, and kill them. The reaſon of ivory being ſo plentiful here is, becauſe the elephants caſt their teeth every three years; ſo that they find more looſe teeth in the foreſts than they get from thoſe they kill.

SECTION IV.

THE GRAIN COAST.

THE Grain Coaſt, which extends from Cape Tagrin upwards of 400 miles ſouth-eaſt of Cape Palmas, produces great quantity of pepper; but the chief articles of trade are ſlaves and ivory.

Though the climate of the Grain Coaſt is very unhealthy, owing to the periodical rains and winds, the ſoil is tolerably good, and, beſides pepper, produces plenty of vegetables and roots, as alſo various kinds of fruits, particularly oranges, lemons, cocoa-nuts, bananas, and dates. Their cattle conſiſts of cows, ſheep, hogs, and goats; and they have a few horſes, but they are very ſmall, and of little uſe. There are alſo ſeveral kinds of wild beaſts, as elephants, buffalos, tigers, apes of various ſorts, and a great plenty of hares and deer. Their poultry conſiſts of geeſe, turkies, and ducks, with plenty of cocks and hens, the latter of which are eſteemed as good in quality as thoſe of Europe.

The natives of this coaſt, in perſon, are, in general, tall and well featured, and are ſaid to be more liberal and honeſt in diſpoſition than thoſe of the adjacent coaſts. Their dreſs, in point of diſtinction and form, is much the ſame; and they are equally fond of trinkets, and all ſorts of ornaments. They are moſtly abſtemious in their diet, intemperance, in drinking eſpecially, being ſeverely puniſhed by royal mandate.

Their ſovereign is deſpotic, and he is never ſeen abroad, unleſs on particular occaſions, and then he appears with the greateſt pomp and magnificence.

The natives are Pagans; but ſome of them ſeem to entertain notions of a future ſtate.

Their chief employment is huſbandry; but there are ſome tolerable artificers among them. They purchaſe fire-arms, gunpowder, and bullets, of the Europeans; but darts, arrows, lances, and broad-ſwords, they make themſelves. The carpenters make the canoes of various ſizes with great neatneſs; and they alſo build their houſes or huts, which are made of wood and clay, and thatched with reeds, or branches of the palmetto-tree.

Here are ſome of a mixed breed, called Mulattoes, who are an abandoned ſet of people, and have proceeded from the intermixture of Negroes and Europeans.

As the Europeans have no ſettlement on this part of Guinea, the trade here is carried on by ſignals from the ſhips, on the appearance of which the natives immediately go in their ſhips, carrying with them their pepper, ivory, &c.

Large ſhips go up the river Sherbro for about ſeven leagues from its mouth; but farther up it grows ſhallow, and is only navigable for canoes. The country round it is very mountainous, and the river has many turnings and windings, but the ſtream is not rapid, except at two or three cataracts or water-falls, one of which is exceeding large, and makes a prodigious noiſe, the water falling from the rocks upwards of twenty feet perpendicular. The Negroes that ſail up this river, before they reach the cataract, are obliged to go aſhore, and land their goods, which, with their canoes, they drag along the mountains till they have paſſed the cataract. The other two water-falls are trifling; notwithſtanding which, they frequently have their canoes overſet, eſpecially when they are heavy laden: but as the camwood with which they are generally loaded, is very heavy, it ſinks, and in the dry ſeaſon they go and take it up, there being, at that time, hardly any water in the river. Their times of going up the river are in the latter end of the rainy ſeaſons, which generally continue five months out of the twelve, when they cut the camwood, and ſearch for elephants teeth.

Near the mouth of the river is a ſmall iſland, called by the Engliſh Sherbro, and by the Dutch Maſſacoy. It is ſurrounded by rocks, and before it lies a large ſand-bank, ſo lofty as to be diſcovered at a conſiderable diſtance from ſea.

At York Iſland the Engliſh had once a factory, and a good fort, but they abandoned it about the year 1727.

In different parts of the coaſt are many pretty villages, among which is that where the king reſides, called by the Dutch Konings-Dorps, ſituated about 12 miles up the river.

There is a large mountainous rock about eight miles below the river Seſtos, on which grows a remarkable lofty tree. This place is called Seſtre, or Seſtos; and about four miles from it, farther to the eaſt, a point juts out into the ſea, near which, on the land, appears a great rock, white at the top, which at ſea looks like a ſhip under ſail: it is ſurrounded by large ſand-banks, and is called by the Portugueſe Cabo Baixos.

The inhabitants of this country are, in general, very courteous to ſtrangers; but they are idolaters, and practiſe ſome of the moſt ſuperſtitious maxims. Both ſexes go almoſt naked, having only a ſmall piece of cloth faſtened round the waiſt. They live chiefly on fiſh, pulſe, and fruits, and their uſual drink is water. Many of them are employed in fiſhing, and the king has a certain duty out of what they catch. They alſo breed great numbers of cattle and poultry, which they turn to great advantage, by ſelling them to ſhips that frequent the coaſt.

Their method of ſalutation is by taking the fore-finger and thumb into their hands, putting them into a certain poſture, and pulling them till they ſnap, when they ſay *aquio*, which ſignifies *your ſervant*.

They have but few ceremonies in their marriages. The wife who is firſt delivered of a boy is diſtinguiſhed as the favourite or chief; but this diſtinction is ſometimes attended with fatal conſequences; for if the huſband dies firſt, ſhe is obliged to follow him, and be buried alive in the ſame grave.

A French traveller, who was once an high-witneſs of this melancholy ceremony, has given the following particular deſcription of it. "The captain (ſays he) or chief of the village, dying of a hard drinking-bout of brandy, the cries of his wives immediately ſpread the news through the town. All the women ran there, and howled like furies. The favourite wife diſtinguiſhed herſelf by her grief, and not without cauſe. However, as ſeveral women in the ſame caſe have prudently thought fit to make their eſcape, the reſt of the women, under pretence of comforting her, took care to watch her ſo cloſely, that there was no means of eſcaping. The relations of the deceaſed all came to pay their compliments, and take their farewel. After the marubut had examined the body, and declared he died a natural death, he, with his brethren, took the corpſe, waſhed, dried, and rubbed it with fat from head to foot. After this they ſtretched it on a mat in the middle of the houſe. His wives was placed round it, and his favourite at the head, as the poſt of honour. Several other women made a circle round them. All theſe endeavoured to outroar each other, tearing their hair, and ſcratching themſelves methodically, like people who knew perfectly the part they acted. Sometimes they left off, and kept ſilent; at others they repeated the praiſe and great actions of the deceaſed, and then began their lamentations afreſh. This mock muſic laſted near two hours, when four luſty Negroes entered the houſe, took the dead body and tied it on a hand barrow made of branches of trees, then lifting it on their ſhoulders, they carried it through the town, running as faſt as they could, and reeling from time to time as if they had been drunk, with a thouſand ridiculous geſtures, very ſuitable to the exclamations of the wives of the deceaſed, and the other women who attended the proceſſion. In ſhort, the noiſe was ſo great as nearly to equal thunder. The parade being over, the body was taken from the hand-barrow, and depoſited in its place; after which the ſongs, and cries, and extravagancies of the women began again. During this the marabut made a grave, deep and large enough to hold two bodies: he alſo ſtripped and ſkined a goat: the pluck ſerved to make a ragout, of which he and the aſſiſtants eat: he alſo cauſed the favourite wife to eat ſome, who had no great inclination to taſte it, knowing it was to be her laſt. She ate ſome, however, and, during this repaſt, the body of the goat was divided into ſmall pieces, broiled and eaten. The lamentations began again; and when the marabut thought it was time to end the ceremony, he took the favourite wife by the arms, and delivered her to two luſty Negroes. Theſe ſeizing her roughly, tied her hands and feet behind her, and laying her on her back, placed a piece of wood on her breaſt; then holding each other with their hands on their ſhoulders, they ſtamped with their feet on the piece of wood till they had broken the woman's breaſt. Having thus, at laſt, half diſpatched her, they threw her into the grave, with the remainder of the goat, caſting her huſband's body over her, and filling up the grave with earth and ſtones. Immediately the cries ceaſing, a quick ſilence ſucceeded the noiſe, and every one retired home as quietly as if nothing had happened."

Cape Monte, ſituated about 25 leagues from the mouth of the river Sherbro, is called by the natives Waſh Kingo, and, when firſt diſcovered at ſea, appears like a lofty iſland.

The chief cattle here are ſheep, and they have ſome fowls that are exceeding large and good. They have likewiſe a great plenty of various ſorts of fiſh, the catching of which is the chief employment of many of the inhabitants. There are alſo great numbers of wild beaſts, as elephants, tigers, buffalos, harts, &c.

The men wear a white garment reſembling a ſurplice; but the women have only a narrow piece of cloth faſtened round the waiſt. Both ſexes take great pains with their hair, or wool, which they twiſt into ringlets, and ornament the top of it with gold or precious ſtones. They alſo wear necklaces of ſeveral rows; and on their arms and wriſts they have bracelets, as alſo above the ancles, where ſome hang bells of ſilver, the noiſe of which they are fond of when they divert themſelves by dancing.

Their houſes in general are mean buildings, but they are kept exceeding clean. Thoſe belonging to the king and principal men are built long. Some of them are two ſtories high, with a vaulted roof of reeds or palm-leaves, ſo thick laid as to render rain, or the heat of the ſun, abſolutely impenetrable. At the entrance is the hall of audience, which is alſo their place of eating: here is a kind of ſopha, made of earth or clay, about ſix feet in breadth, and raiſed about twelve inches from the ground: it is covered with fine mats made of graſs or palm-leaves, and dyed of various colours. In this place the principal people ſpend the chief part of the day with their wives, and amuſe themſelves with ſmoking, talking and drinking palm-wine. Adjoining to the audience-room is the bed-chamber, where they have an eſtrade or ſopha, conſiſting of a number of mats laid one on the other, and ſurrounded with pagnes ſewed together, or printed linen like curtains. Their kitchens are very neat, and ſituated at ſome diſtance from the dwelling-houſe.

The inhabitants in general of this place are more cleanly in eating their victuals than their neighbours. They uſe bowls made of hard wood, and baſons of pewter or copper tinned, which they keep exceeding neat. When they roaſt their meat, they faſten it on a wooden ſpit; but as they have not the means of making it turn round, they firſt roaſt one ſide and then the other. A man may marry as many wives as he can keep; for which reaſon ſome of them have a great number; for the expence is very trifling, as they make them work ſo hard that each nearly earns her own maintenance. They ſeldom quarrel; but, in general, live very happy; and ſo little jealous are the men, that if their wives beſtow favours on others, it does not give them the leaſt concern. Their religion conſiſts chiefly in reverencing and obeying their king: and they have ſuch little notions of ambition, that each live happy in their own way, neither conſulting at the downfal of the poor, or envying the proſperity of the rich.

He that from duſt of worldly tumult flies,
May boldly open his undazzled eyes
To read wiſe nature's book, and, with delight,
Survey the plants by day, the ſtars by night.
We need not travel, ſeeking ways of bliſs;
He that deſires contentment cannot miſs:
No garden walls this precious flow'r embrace,
It common grows in ev'ry deſert place."

The Europeans that trade here buy many of their mats, which are of a bright yellow, and very beautiful; alſo great quantities of ivory. They likewiſe purchaſe the ſkins of lions, panthers, tigers, and other wild beaſts;

beasts; as also a great number of slaves, which are brought here by the Mundingo merchants, from the inland parts of Africa. The forests yield plenty of woods fit for dying, particularly camwood, which the natives cut, and bring it to the shore in blocks of four or five feet in length. The Europeans, who buy a great deal of it, prefer it to Brasil-wood, thinking it much more solid and beautiful.

On the banks of a river called Rio Novo, near Cape Monte, are several villages, and the soil is very fertile, producing great quantities of rice and other grain, with various kinds kinds of fruits, as oranges, lemons, citrons, pomegranates, &c.

About ten leagues from Cape Monte, towards the south-east, is a prodigious hill called Cape Mensurado, though not quite so high as Cape Monte. It is round and very large, and almost surrounded with water. That part next the sea is steep and high, but that to the land is more gentle and accessible.

To the west of Cape Mensurado are three villages, containing about twenty houses each. These houses are low, and divided into three apartments: they are built with sticks and clay, and are covered with straw, in one of them are generally lodged at least forty people, consisting of men, women, and children, of different families, all confusedly intermixed together. The people here are very civil and good natured, and the women remarkably handsome. The men are naturally very indolent, and leave the principal part of business to be executed by their wives. They live very peaceably with their neighbours, and are not apprehensive of any enemy except the English, their fears of whom arose from two large vessels that once stopped there, the crews belonging to which revaged the country, destroyed all their canoes, plundered their houses, and carried off some of their people for slaves; since which time they have ever been fearful of, and have retained an enmity to, most Europeans, but particularly the English.

Their chief articles of trade are palm-wine and rice, of which they have great quantities, and exceeding good in quality; in exchange for which they purchase cowries and small bars of iron.

The king's town is situated about eight miles up the river, and about a quarter of a mile from the side of it. It is surrounded with woods, and the entrance to it from the river is through a beautiful walk, shaded with lofty trees.

Besides their houses, they have buildings for holding their provisions, as rice, millet, palm-oil, brandy, and other necessaries. These buildings are made round, with a cornice, and are secured by padlocks, of which the husband keeps the keys, and distributes daily or weekly, such provisions as he thinks necessary for his family. This does not give the least offence to his wives, who live amicably together, and spend their time in working abroad, or taking care of the children and other necessary business at home. The buildings belonging to each family are enclosed with a wall of earth, seven or eight feet high, and covered with reeds or palm-leaves, to secure them from the inclemency of the weather.

To the west of Cape Mensurado is a river called St. Paul, the entrance of which is about six feet deep, and is navigable, in calm weather, for vessels of a tolerable burthen.

To the south-east of the river St. Paul in a place called Sestre Cro, or Sestre Crue, where there is a large and beautiful village, inhabited by people remarkable for being honest in all their dealings, and preserving a more regular and prudent conduct than their neighbours.

About three miles beyond Sestre Cro is a small village called Wappo, in which there is a piece of fresh water that is exceeding good and wholesome. This place is known at sea by several high trees that appear upon a hill behind the shore, the tops of which, at a distance, seem of a red colour. Before this place is a large rock, which, though actually on the shore, seems as it were, separated from it.

Between this village and Cape Sestos are several others, the most considerable of which is Great Sestre, where there is a large bason of fresh water situated among a number of rocks. It does not, however, contain any thing else that is remarkable; and the rest of the villages are too inconsiderable to admit of any notice.

Countries adjoining to the Grain Coast. Description of the Hippotamus, or Sea Horse.

THESE countries are divided into several territories or kingdoms; the principal of which are Quilliga, Quoja, Hondo, Folgia, and the great empire of Manow.

Quilliga lies near a river called by the Portuguese Galinhas, and is a large territory subject to the king of Quoja

Quoja is also a large kingdom, and inhabited by two distinct people, namely the Vey-Berkoma and Quoja-Berkoma, the former of which are the descendants of the ancient inhabitants of Cape Monte, who were once a populous and warlike people, but being conquered by the Quojas, and reduced to subjection, are now very insignificant, and few in number. In this kingdom are many handsome towns and villages, the chief of which are situated on the river Maguiba, which plentifully waters the whole country.

The most remarkable production of this country is the water elephant, of which great numbers are found in this river, and on its banks. When the natives catch them they present them to the king, who claims them as his particular property, but usually compliments the persons who bring them with a handsome present. This creature is properly called the hippotamus, or sea-horse. It is an animal that feeds upon grass, but frequently hides himself under water, where he continues for some time. When he raises his head from the water, he looks about to see if any danger is near, and can smell a man at a considerable distance. If any thing frightens him, he will immediately hide himself in the water, where he will continue for a considerable time before he again raises his head. As soon, however, as he appears, the hunter, who has patiently waited for the opportunity, levels his gun at his head, and, if the animal happens not to see him, it seldom misses doing the wished for execution. If he is killed, the colour of the water will discover where he lies, when they go with a boat, hooks, and cords, and drag him ashore. They then skin him, take out his bowels, and convey him away on a carriage; for his weight is very considerable, being, when full grown, from 2500 to 3000 lb.

This animal, in colour and shape greatly resembles a rhinoceros, except the legs being somewhat shorter. The head is much like that of a common horse, but the mouth and nostrils are much larger. His ears and eyes are small, and his hoof is cloven like that of an ox; but his pastern being too weak to support the weight of the body, nature has taken care to supply this defect by placing too little hoofs above it; on which he rests in walking, and they leave on the ground the impression of four points. The body is very smooth, but the tail has hair on it, and is short like that of an elephant. The udder of the females hang between the hind legs like a cow, but it is very small in proportion to the bulk of the beast. The hide is about an inch thick, and so hard that it can scarcely be penetrated with a musket-ball, which is the reason that those who endeavour to catch them generally aim at the head. The most remarkable things about this animal are its tusks, which are four in number; they proceed from the lower jaw, and rise out of the mouth to a considerable length. They are as thick as the horn of an ox, and weigh about 10lb. each. They are very white, and always retain their colour; for which reason they are much used by mathematical instrument-makers for scales, sectors, &c.

Besides

Beſides theſe, he has in all forty-four teeth, viz. eight inciſors, four in each jaw; four dog teeth, two on each ſide, which are all cylindrical; and thirty-two grinders, of which there are ſixteen above, and the ſame number below. The fleſh of this animal is exceeding good, and in ſome parts is ſold at 6d. per pound. The fat is of equal value with the lean, being exceeding wholeſome, and generally uſed inſtead of butter.

The ſea horſe delights in rivers where the water is good, and chooſes thoſe parts whoſe banks are well furniſhed with graſs. They feed chiefly on fiſh, in purſuit of which they go ſeveral of them in a body. Their method is to plant themſelves at the mouths of large rivers, by which they intercept all the fiſh that come down it. The Negroes, who have huts near the rivers, are obliged to guard their fields day and night, otherwiſe theſe creatures would do conſiderable damage to their rice and corn, not only by eating it, but trampling it down with their feet.

There is another animal ſometimes found in this river that greatly reſembles the above. It is much of the ſame ſize, of a brown colour, with white ſtreaks, a long neck, ſhort body, ſmall legs, and has horns like a bullock. They are only caught in the water; for though they are ſometimes ſeen on the ſhore, yet they are ſo nimble that it is impoſſible for any beaſt to overtake them.

The territory of Hondo is divided into four principalities, the chiefs of which are appointed by the king of Quoja, to whom they pay annual tribute in preſents of braſs kettles, red cloth and ſalt.

The kingdom of Folgia, and empire of Manow are both very extenſive, but the latter is the moſt conſiderable: and the Folgias are in the ſame manner ſubject to the emperor of Manow, as the Quojas are to the Folgias.

Among the birds found here is one called kloſi-ſow-kegboſſi, which is reckoned an ominous bird by the blacks. When they are on a journey, and happen to ſee one of theſe birds, or hear it ſing, they immediately return home, and if any one dies ſoon after, they ſay kegboſſi killed him. This bird is about the ſize of a ſparrow-hawk, and black feathered; and its uſual food is piſmires.

The inhabitants of theſe nations, particularly the Quogas, are in general good-tempered and very obliging to ſtrangers; they are exceeding fond of ſpirituous liquors, particularly brandy; but they are ſo penurious that they will not purchaſe it, and therefore ſeldom have it unleſs given to them.

The fortified villages are called San Siah, and have a ſort of baſtions, through which they paſs in and out of the villages by a gate ſo low and narrow as to admit only one perſon at a time. Theſe villages are encloſed with pales faſtened to the ſurrounding trees, ſo that nothing can be ſeen through the encloſure. At each of the gates is a hut, where a centinel is conſtantly kept on guard; and when any danger is apprehended from an enemy, the people promiſcuouſly retire to theſe villages, as a ſecurity both to their perſons and property.

The Quoja blacks, between their harveſts, employ themſelves in fiſhing and hunting; but they muſt not follow the latter without permiſſion from the king, who receives a moiety out of every thing they kill.

Both men and women are here ſubject to many diſeaſes; but the moſt fatal is the bloody flux, which often carries off prodigious numbers in a very ſhort time; and they attribute this affliction to the Sovah Monow, or ſorcerers. The beaſts are alſo ſubject to ſeveral ſorts of diſorders not known in Europe. The chief of theſe is called the Ibatheba, which kills a great number of elephants, buffalos, wild boars and dogs.

Polygamy is here allowed, as in moſt other negro countries; and the firſt wife has always the pre-eminence. The huſband maintains the boys, and the girls are taken care of by the wives.

Their ceremony of marriage conſiſts chiefly in preſents made by the parents of the parties to each other; but the ceremony of naming their children is very particular.

When a boy is to be named the father walks through the village armed with bows and arrows: he keeps continually ſinging, and as he paſſes along the inhabitants join him with inſtruments of muſic. As ſoon as the people are properly aſſembled they form a ring, when the perſon appointed to perform the ceremony taking the child from the mother lays it on a ſhield, and puts a bow into one hand and a quiver in the other. He then makes a long harangue to the people, after which he addreſſes himſelf to the infant, wiſhing he may be like his father, induſtrious, hoſpitable, and a good huſbandman. He then names the child, and returns it to the mother, after which the company retire. The men go to hunt for game, and to gather palm-wine, which they bring to the houſe of the perſon belonging to the child, when the mother dreſſes the game with rice, and the evening is concluded with feſtivity and diverſion.

When a girl is named, it is brought by the mother or nurſe through the village, in the ſame manner as the boy is by the father, and when the people are aſſembled it is laid on a mat on the ground, with a ſmall ſhaft in one hand. The perſon who is to name it then makes a long harangue, exhorting it to be a good houſe-wife and a good cook; to be cleanly, chaſte, and a dutiful wife: that her huſband may love her above all his other wives, and ſhe attend him at hunting. Such wiſhes being concluded, he names the child, and then delivers it to the mother; after which the whole company diſperſe, except a few ſelect friends, for whom an elegant entertainment is provided.

The king of Quoja is an abſolute monarch, but his government is mild, and his councils are formed of the wiſeſt and moſt experienced perſons in the nation: however, he is jealous of his authority and prerogatives, and keeps a great number of concubines, moſt of whom are brought from the neighbouring countries.

When the king appears in public he ſits or ſtands on a ſhield, to denote that he is the defender of the country, and the protector of his people.

In criminal caſes, offenders ſentenced to death are executed in ſome wood at a conſiderable diſtance from the village in which they reſided. Here the criminal kneeling, with his head bent, the executioner thruſts a lance through his body, after which he cuts off his head with an axe or knife, and quarters him, delivering the limbs to his reſpective wives.

If a man is charged with theft, or perjury, and the evidence is not ſufficiently clear, he takes the trial by belli, a compoſition made by the belli-mo, or prieſt, with the bark of a tree and herbs, which is laid on the perſon's hand: if it does not hurt him, he is ſuppoſed innocent; if otherwiſe, he is deemed guilty; in which caſe he is ſentenced to death, and executed in the manner before-mentioned.

Many ſtrange maxims prevail among the Negroes of theſe nations; and to their ſuperſtitious notions may be added, the great faith they have in magicians and ſorcerers, as alſo a ſort of men whom they call Munuſin: theſe they believe can ſuck the blood from the body of either man or beaſt; at leaſt they imagine that they can corrupt it in ſuch a manner as to occaſion lingering and painful diſeaſes. There are alſo other enchanters called Pilli, whom they believe can prevent the growth of their rice.

CHAP.

CHAP. XI.

LOWER GUINEA, or CONGO.

THIS large track, ſituate between the equinoctial line and 18 deg. ſouth latitude, is bounded on the north by the kingdom of Benin; on the eaſt by the inland parts of Africa; on the ſouth by the kingdom of Mataman; and on the weſt by the Atlantic Ocean. As it contains four kingdoms, viz. Benguela, Angola, Congo Proper, and Loango, and each of theſe has its reſpective particulars, we ſhall treat of them diſtinctly.

SECTION I.

BENGUELA.

Situation. Extent. Rivers. Climate. Brief deſcription of Benguela, the capital.

THIS kingdom is bounded on the north by Angola, on the ſouth by Mataman, on the eaſt by the Country of the Jaggas, and on the weſt by the Ocean. Its extent is about 430 miles from eaſt to weſt, and 180 from north to ſouth. The climate is ſo unwholeſome, that the very proviſions are affected by the noxious quality of the air, and the Europeans who reſide here are ſtriking ſpectacles of mortality.

The chief rivers of Benguela are, the Longo, the Nica, the Saint Franciſco, which runs through the middle of it, and the great river Cuneni, which runs from eaſt to weſt.

Benguela, the capital of the kingdom, lies in 10 deg. 35 min. ſouth lat. and gives its name to a province that extends about thirty miles along the coaſt. In this city the Portugueſe have built a fort encompaſſed with palliſadoes and a ditch: the whole is ſurrounded with houſes and ſhaded with orange, lemon, banana, and other trees.

The bay of Benguela, which lies to the ſouth of the town, is about two leagues broad at the entrance, and deep enough for ſhips of burden to anchor in.

Near the capital are ſeveral villages, the principal of which, called Manikaſomba, is extenſive and well inhabited.

At a village called Manikicongo, about 20 miles from the mouth of the Bay, the Portugueſe have a ſtore-houſe for divers articles, which they ſell to the natives: the chief of theſe are linens, cottons, fire-arms and gunpowder.

To the northward of a river called Caton-belle is another bay, which, from its convenience for anchorage, the Dutch call the Good Bay. The land here is low and fertile, and the natives breed great numbers of black cattle and hogs.

The inland parts abound in wild beaſts, as lions, tygers, elephants, rhinoceroſes and wild mules.

The greateſt curioſity here is a remarkable animal peculiar to the country, called by the natives Abada. It is of the ſize of an half grown calf, very ſhy and ſwift of foot. It has two horns, one on the forehead, the other on the nape of the neck. When the animal is young the front horn is ſtrait, but as it advances in age the horn bends gradually up like the tuſk of an elephant. The natives hunt it for the take of the front horn, which they eſteem as an excellent antidote againſt poiſon. They look on the virtue of it to be greater or leſs according to the age of an animal when killed. The Portugueſe, in order to know the goodneſs of it, make uſe of the following expedient. They ſet the horn upright on the ground, and ſuſpend a naked ſword over it point to point. If the horn be good and hard the point of the ſword will not penetrate it, whereas, when the horn is ſoft and young the ſword immediately ſinks into it, which ſhews that it is not arrived at its full perfection, and of courſe leſſens its value. They alſo make a poultice of the pulverized bones of this creature mixed with water, which they ſay is a ſovereign remedy againſt all aches and pains of the body, by drawing away the peccant humours not only from the part affected, but the whole maſs of blood.

SECTION II.

ANGOLA.

THE Portugueſe gave the name of Angola to this country in compliment to a prince of that name, who firſt uſurped it from the king of Congo. It was called originally by the natives Dongo. It is bounded on the north by Congo Proper, on the ſouth by Benguela, on the eaſt by Matamba, and on the weſt by the Ocean.

The country is in general mountainous, and watered by ſeveral rivers, the chief of which are the Danda and Coanza. Theſe rivers are ſtored with moſt kinds of fiſh, but it is dangerous to catch them on account of the crocodiles. The Portugueſe have a fort at a place called Cambamba, upon the river Canza. The provinces of which this kingdom is compoſed we ſhall deſcribe in the following order:

Chiſſama is divided into three parts, each of which is under the direction of a governor deputed by the king. The country is mountainous and poorly cultivated: it is famous, however, for producing a peculiar ſalt made by the natives from a briny kind of water which they dig for, and being formed into a maſs they make cakes of it, which they exchange with the Portugueſe for meal, oil and other commodities. The merchants derive conſiderable advantages from exporting this ſalt to moſt parts of Ethiopia, as it is not only excellent for food, but alſo in phyſic, being a very pleaſant diuretic.

The province of Sumbi is, for the moſt part, flat. The natives, though tall and ſtrong, are, in general, indolent, and, of courſe, neglect the cultivation of the land, which, wherever induſtry prevails, proves fruitful, and produces ſeveral ſorts of excellent grain.

The province of Rimba is divided into many diſtricts under as many governors. The land is fertile, and the rivers abound with fiſh. The inhabitants are idolaters, but of a tractable and induſtrious diſpoſition.

Scetta is one of the moſt rocky and mountainous provinces in all the kingdom, particularly on one ſide of it, where a ridge of perpendicular rocks covers a ſpace of thirty miles in length without interruption. The ſurface of theſe rocks, however, is well inhabited and cultivated, enjoys a ſerene and wholeſome air, and is plentifully ſupplied with freſh water. The low lands are well watered, and produce excellent paſture for cattle, great numbers of which are bred by the inhabitants; but they often ſuſtain conſiderable loſs from the number of wild beaſts that infeſt this part of the country. The torrents that flow from the hills bring with them great quantities of iron ore, which the inhabitants gather carefully by laying ſtraw and other ſuch materials acroſs the ſtreams to receive it; and afterwards, by dint of fire, convert it into excellent iron. In this country are alſo found great quantities of a kind of tranſparent ore, which the natives call Tare, and when wrought is, in appearance, much ſuperior to iron.

Bembea extends itſelf on one ſide along the ſea, and on the other divides the kingdom of Angola from other nations on the ſouth. The country is populous, and abounds with ſmall cattle, with the hides of which the

natives make their garments, and they anoint their heads and bodies with the fat. Theſe people are much more ſavage than their neighbours, are almoſt all idolaters, and have a language peculiar to themſelves. They are very artful, and uſe a ſingular ſtratagem in war, which is to drive great numbers of cattle towards that ſide on which the enemy is expected, whilſt they ſecrete themſelves at a ſmall diſtance, either by laying flat on their bellies in the high graſs, or among the heath or copſes. The cattle ſeldom fail of exciting the enemy to advance in order to make a capture, when they ſuddenly riſe, and furiouſly fall on them with their armed clubs. This ſcheme is generally attended with ſucceſs, the enemy ſoon ſurrendering, when their conquerors ſell them for ſlaves to the Europeans.

The province of Temba is divided into twelve lordſhips, whoſe chiefs, though under the protection of the Portugueſe, live free and independent, being only obliged to furniſh them with a certain number of militia in caſes of emergency. The whole country abounds with wild cows and mules, which the inhabitants hunt and kill for food. It alſo produces ſeveral excellent roots, among which one in particular reſembles parſnips, but is much finer in taſte, and is ſaid not only to attenuate phlem, but to be almoſt an admirable purifier of the blood.

Oacco is beautifully variegated with hills and plains, and ſo well watered with rivers and ſprings, that it is one of the moſt delightful provinces in the kingdom. Theſe advantages, however, are of little uſe to the natives, as they are reſtrained by the lords from cultivating any more of the land than what is abſolute neceſſary to produce proviſions for their families. The chief governor of this province has twenty others under him, whoſe principal buſineſs is to diſcipline and exerciſe the militia; for which reaſon this is one of the moſt formidable provinces in the whole kingdom.

A diſtemper peculiar to the climate of this part of the country prevails here; it generally begins with a violent head-ach and vertigo, and is followed by convulſions, which ſoon reduce the patient to a mere ſkeleton. The medicine for this diſeaſe is made from a plant ſomething like our hyſſop, which they pulverize, and drink the infuſion: they alſo extract an oil from it, with which they anoint the parts convulſed.

They are likewiſe ſubject to a kind of ſwelling, that begins at the mouth, and ſpreads itſelf all over the neck, which often ſwells to the bigneſs of the head, cauſes exceſſive pain, and is frequently attended with ſuffocation. It is generally cured by anointing the parts with the oil extracted from the above-mentioned plant.

There is a very ſingular inſect in this province, ſometimes like our horſe-flies, whoſe ſting is ſo dangerous, that if a quantity of blood be not immediately drawn from the parts affected, the perſon is thrown into a violent fever, attended with exceſſive tortures, that commonly end in a total delirium, and, if not ſpeedily relieved, in convulſive death. The moſt remarkable circumſtance attending this is, that when the perſon is cured, he ſeldom fails of a relapſe, owing merely to the bare remembrance of what he ſuffered during the time he was affected: and ſome of them undergo ſuch exceſſive torture, that they cloſe their miſeries by putting an end to their exiſtence.

When the poor idolaters happen to be ſtung by theſe inſects, they have recourſe to their prieſts, who ſeek out for an inſect of the ſame kind, which having found they dig a hole in the earth and put it in, adding ſundry fumigations, exorciſms, and ſuperſtitious, known only to themſelves; after which they fill the hole with water, and repleniſh it as that ſinks, ſtirring it, and letting the earth ſettle again ſeveral times: at length, without ſtaying till it is quite clear, and diveſted of its diſagreeable earthly taſte, they give the patient plenty of it to drink: this occaſions a violent fit of vomiting, by which ſo great a part of the poiſon is thrown out, that the natural ſtrength of the patient enables him to get rid of what is left behind. Many, however, who are cured by this ſtrange method, are ſome time after ſeized with pains and convulſions in their nerves, which frequently end in a ſettled lameneſs, and ſometimes in a dead palſy. Though this method is altogether ſuperſtitious, yet, from its being ſometimes effectual, the Europeans, unable to bear the exceſſive pain ariſing from the ſting, have recourſe to it.

The province of Cabezzo is very populous and fertile, producing not only abundance of cattle, but alſo moſt kinds of proviſions. In one part of this is a high hill called the Iron Mountain, from its yielding great quantities of that metal, which the Portugueſe have taught the natives to purify, and work into various kinds of inſtruments. In this province are many large and lofty trees, particularly palm and cocoa trees. There is alſo one ſort that greatly reſembles our apple trees, the back of which being cut with a knife, yields an odoriferous juice, of the colour and conſiſtency of honey. It is very uſeful in medicine, but being of a hot nature, it muſt be firſt qualified by ſome cooling drug.

The Portugueſe have taken great pains to propagate the Roman Catholic religion in this province, and not without ſucceſs, for there are leſs idolaters in it than in any other in the kingdom.

Lubolo is ſituated on the ſouthern banks of the river Coanza. Its climate is very wholeſome, and its ſoil remarkable fertile, producing great plenty of all ſorts of proviſions. It is chiefly noted for its excellent palm trees, which produce better wine, oil, and timber, than is to be met with in all the other parts of the kingdom. The greater part of the people of this province are Chriſtians, and tributary to the Portugueſe.

The province of Loanda is ſituated 8 deg. 30 min. ſouth lat. and 31 deg. 6 min. eaſt longitude. It is one of the moſt conſiderable places belonging to the Portugueſe ſettlements on this ſide Africa, and remarkable for having in it the capital of the whole kingdom of Angola. It is a large city, pleaſantly ſituated on the declivity of a hill near the ſea coaſt, and ſtrongly defended by a ſpacious fortreſs, in which is a church dedicated to St. Amaro, and a convent of Seſſertians, beſides ſeveral bulwarks that ſerve to guard the entrance of the port. It is very populous, and greatly reſorted to, not only on account of its being the reſidence of the Portugueſe governor, but alſo for its containing the chief courts of judicature for the whole kingdom. The churches and other public buildings are ſumptuous, as are all thoſe of the merchants and officers, both ſpiritual and temporal. The ſtreets are ſtrait, wide, and regular, and are always kept exceeding clean. The houſes belonging to the Portugueſe are built of ſtone, and moſt of them very elegantly furniſhed; but thoſe of the natives are very mean, being built only of earth, and thatched with ſtraw.

In the center of the city is a large convent belonging to the jeſuits, who are here held in the higheſt eſteem. It is a ſtately edifice, and endowed with a conſiderable revenue. On one ſide of it is an hoſpital, called the Miſericordia, which has twenty-four wards or rooms for patients, beſides convenient apartments for the directors, phyſician, ſurgeon, apothecary, and other attendants. On the other ſide of the convent is a church belonging to the fraternity of St. John the Baptiſt. At a ſmall diſtance from theſe three buildings is the cathedral, which is a large, ſtately ſtructure, dedicated to Our Lady of the Conception, under which is another dedicated to the Holy Sacrament. There are alſo many monaſteries and chapels belonging to the capuchins, carmelites, and friars, which with other parochial churches, ſo ſurround the city, as to anſwer the end of walls and fortifications.

In the city are kept prodigious number of ſlaves, who are employed in tilling the ground, carrying of burthens, and fetching water from ſprings in an adjacent iſland called Loanda, the city not having the convenience of being watered by any kind of river. The country round it, however, is very fertile, well cultivated,

vated, and beautifully variegated with villas, gardens, and a variety of fruit-trees.

The iſland of Loanda is ſituated about half a mile from the city; it is very diſproportionate in its form, being fifteen miles long, and only one broad. The Portugueſe have many houſes on it, as alſo a great number of gardens, which they keep well ſtocked with moſt ſorts of fruit-trees and vegetables. They have alſo on this iſland ſeveral handſome churches; beſides which there is a ſpacious convent belonging to the jeſuits.

The city is well ſupplied with moſt kinds of proviſions, particularly mutton and pork, the latter of which is greatly eſteemed by the Europeans. They have alſo plenty of fiſh, which are caught on the coaſts of the iſland of Loanda. The bread uſed by the Europeans is made of millet and Indian wheat; but that uſed by the natives is made from the meal of the manioc root. The latter alſo prefer dogs fleſh to any other, for which reaſon numbers of thoſe animals are fattened up, ſlaughtered, and expoſed at the public ſhambles.

Small payments here are made either in zimbis (the ſhells of a ſmall fiſh) or elſe beads, the latter of which are of various ſizes, colours, and faſhions, and are worn by ſome of the natives as ornaments to their arms, necks, and wriſts. Larger payments are made with pieces of cloth of their own manufacture, of a ſtated length and breadth: and where the ſum is conſiderable it is uſually paid in ſlaves.

Benga, or Bengo, is ſituated on a river of the ſame name, It is a fertile country, and produces great plenty of maize and millet, as alſo a prodigious number of banana and bacova trees. The province is divided into many diſtricts, the chiefs of which are natives, though tributary to the Portugueſe. Here are eight churches, three of which are called pariſhes, and one of them belongs to the jeſuits, who celebrate their feſtivals in it with the greateſt pomp and magnificence.

The province of Dunda is ſituated to the north of Bengo. This province is well watered, very fertile, and produces plenty of grain, with various kinds of fruits; but it is greatly infeſted with crocodiles and large ſerpents, which harbour in the river Bengo. The inhabitants are moſtly Chriſtians, for which reaſon here are ſeveral churches regularly ſerved by ſecular prieſts. The chief of theſe are ſituated at the mouth of the Danda; and at ſome diſtance from it is another, as alſo ſeveral chapels and oratories, all of which belong to the jeſuits, who take great pains in endeavouring to bring over the unconverted to a ſenſe of Chriſtianity.

Moſeche is ſituated on the northern banks of the river Coanza. The ſoil is very fertile, and, beſides grain, is remarkable for producing the manioc root, which is ſo plentiful, that large quantities of it are annually ſent to the city of Loanda.

In this province are mines of ſeveral metals, particularly the government of Cambamba. What is very remarkable, each mine tinges the complexion of the inhabitants who live in that territory; for though they are all naturally black, yet thoſe near the ſilver mines differ in their complexion from thoſe that live near the mines of gold and lead, which cannot be otherwiſe accounted for than from the effluvia that exhales from the different metals.

Illamba is divided into two parts, diſtinguiſhed by the names of Higher and Lower. The former is ſituated between the rivers Bengo and Calucata; and the latter between the Danda on the north, and the Bengo on the ſouth. They are both very fertile; and the natives who are chiefly Chriſtians, pay a tribute to the Portugueſe.

The Higher Illamba has mines of excellent iron, and is almoſt covered with ſmall hills. In the center of it is a large mountain, from the ſummits and ſides of which flow a prodigious number of ſprings and rivulets of clear and wholeſome water, which is not only exceeding good to drink, but of infinite ſervice in contributing to fertilize that part of the country. This province pays a conſiderable tribute to the king of Portugal, and the governor of it is obliged to maintain a numerous militia for his ſervice.

Oarii is ſituated on the northern banks of the river Coanza, and adjoins to the province of Moſeche. It is watered by a great number of ſmall rivers that fall into the Coanza, but which, in the time of the great rains, became large, rapid and dangerous. In this province are two fortreſſes belonging to the Portugueſe, at each of which they keep a ſtrong garriſon.

Embacca, or Membacca, is ſituated on the north ſide of the river Lucala, and between that and the Higher Illamba. It is wholly ſubject to the Portugueſe; for though the lord who governs it aſſumes a claim to a kind of independency, yet it is granted him only on condition that he ſhall maintain, at his own expence, a numerous militia for their ſervice. Theſe troops, though idolaters, are ſtout, warlike and well diſciplined, and never betray any fear of death when they engage an enemy: for which reaſon the Portugueſe value them above all the reſt in the kingdom.

The trade carried on in this kingdom, by the Portugueſe and other Europeans, conſiſts chiefly in purchaſing ſlaves; and, indeed, it was this inhuman commerce that firſt invited the Portugueſe to this part of Africa. The commodities brought in exchange are broad cloths, crimſon and other ſilks, velvets, cambrics, Hollands of all ſorts, gold and ſilver lace, broad and narrow ſtriped tickings, black ſerges, Turkey carpets, threads and ſilks of all ſorts and colours, Canary and other wines, brandy and other ſpirituous liquors, oil, ſpices of all ſorts, loaf ſugar, knives, fiſhing-hooks, pins, needles, ſmall bells, variety of other trinkets and baubles, glaſs beads of all ſizes and colours, rings of the ſame, or other materials, fire-arms. ſwords, cutlaſſes, and other weapons.

The people of each of theſe provinces are divided into four different claſſes. The firſt is that of Macotas, who are a kind of noblemen. The ſecond conſiſts of thoſe ſtiled the Children of the Dominion, who are the original natives of the country, of either ſex, whether merchants artificers, or huſbandmen. The third is that of the Quiſicos, or ſlaves, who are the property and inheritance of the lords of that province, which devolves, like all other real eſtates, to their heirs and ſucceſſors. And the laſt is the Mabicas, who are the ſlaves either taken in war, purchaſed, or condemned to forfeit their freedom for ſome crime or miſdemeanor.

The king of Angola acknowledges no ſubjection to the king of Congo: he is entirely independent, and, from the protection he receives from the Portugueſe, preſerves an abſolute authority. When his troops engage an enemy. They divide themſelves into three bodies, at certain diſtances from each other. In the center one is the general, who directs all their motions by the ſound of ſeveral warlike inſtruments. They then move forwards, retire, or wheel about, as thoſe direct, and fall on the enemy with great fury, making at the ſame time a moſt hideous noiſe. If they find themſelves likely to be diſconcerted, they take flight, (for they are great cowards,) nor is it poſſible for their general to rally them; ſo that the fate of a battle depends on the ſucceſs of the firſt onſet.

Their muſical inſtruments uſed in war are of ſeveral kinds and ſizes. One of the loudeſt of them ſomewhat reſembles a Drum. Another an inverted phyramid, with the point fixed on the ground. The third ſort is made of elephants teeth: they are of various ſizes, and, in their form, ſomewhat reſembles our German flutes.

The dreſs of the military officers is very grand, and they appear much taller than they really are, as well as more terrible, by the length and variety of oſtrich, peacock, and other feathers with which they ornament their caps. About their necks they wear ſeveral links of iron chain, to which are faſtened great quantities of rings, that make a long jingle at every motion. For the ſame purpoſe alſo they hang a great number of bells about their middle, the noiſe of which they ſuppoſe animates the

ſoldiers

ſoldiers to fight with more ardour, and at the ſame time gives them a greater air of pomp and grandeur. They wear buſkins on their legs after the manner of the Portugueſe. Their weapons are the bow, ſword, target, and dagger. Thoſe, however, who carry the bow are not allowed to wear the target, but only the ſword and dagger.

The common ſoldiers, who go naked from the waiſt upwards, fight with bow and dagger, and in their girdles they wear large crooked knives. Some of them uſe broad ſwords, muſkets and piſtols, which they purchaſe of the Portugueſe.

The language of the people of Angola and Congo is radically the ſame; but the dialects of the different provinces differ ſo eſſentially in pronounciation, that it is difficult for thoſe born in places remote from each other to converſe together.

The remaining particulars we have to mention of this kingdom are relative to the mountains, of which there is a remarkable ridge extending itſelf north-eaſt from Cape Negro. Some of theſe, on account of their prodigious height and coldneſs, are called by the Portugueſe Monti Freddi; and ſome others, which are ſtill higher, they call Monti Nevoſi, on account of their ſnowy tops, the waters of which, falling in great plenty during the ſummer ſeaſon, form a conſiderable lake below. But the moſt conſiderable one of all is that called Cambambo, on which there is a mine that produces excellent ſilver. The Portugueſe have long ſince made themſelves maſters of this place, and, in order to ſecure it, have built a very ſtrong fortreſs.

SECTION III.

CONGO PROPER.

Situation. Extent. Boundaries. Rivers. Climate. Productions in general.

CONGO Proper is ſituated between the 2d and 11th degree of ſouth latitude, and between the 32d and 41ſt degree of eaſt longitude, extending in length, from north to ſouth, 540 miles, and in breadth, from eaſt to weſt, about 420 miles. It is bounded on the eaſt by the kingdoms of Makoko and Matamba, on the weſt by the Atlantic Ocean, on the north by the river Zaire, and on the ſouth by Angola, from which it is ſeparated by the river Dande.

It is watered by many rivers, the chief of which is the Zaire, navigable for ſhips of burthen about 70 miles up the country. From this river run ſeveral ſmall ones, which not only water the country, but are alſo very convenient for the merchants and other inhabitants, who can go in canoes from one village to another. In the courſe of this river are ſeveral ſmall iſlands, the inhabitants of which are under the government of lords appointed by the king of Congo. The principal of theſe are two, ſituated near the mouth of the river, and called Bommo and Quintella, the firſt of which is remarkable for having many mines of iron. Though theſe iſlands are all inhabited, yet there is not a houſe to be ſeen, the ground being ſo low and marſhy, that it is almoſt conſtantly under water; for which reaſon the Negroes live chiefly in their canoes, or under trees, round which they build their huts, raiſed ſeveral feet above the ground. Theſe iſlanders are a ſtrong and reſolute people, but they are very unpoliſhed in their manners. They have no marriage, or betrothing, but from their youth form ſuch alliances as their inclinations direct, without any ceremony. They are under the government of particular chiefs and officers, who are choſen by a majority of voices.

The Iſland of Quintella is remarkable for having an idol which no one dare approach but the perſons appointed to attend, and ſecure the way to it from being diſcovered. To effect this they are themſelves obliged, as often as they go thither, to take ſuch a path as they think no other perſon can find out. Many perſons, particularly in caſes of ſickneſs, make rich offerings to this idol, all which are totally deſtroyed; for as ſoon as they are dedicated, the perſon attending conveys them to the idol, which is placed on a large plain, ſurrounded with a wall made of Elephants teeth, where they are hung on poles, and there left till time has entirely deſtroyed them.

The river Zaire receives its water from three lakes; the firſt of which is the Zambre: the ſecond the Zaire, and the third a great lake from whence the Nile is ſuppoſed to have its ſource. The Zambre, however, is the moſt conſiderable, being, as it were, the center from whence proceeds all the rivers in this part of Africa. The other rivers in this kingdom are inconſiderable.

The kingdom of Congo is divided into ſix provinces, the ſituations of which, together with their names and titles, are as follow. Along the coaſt, the country or earldom of Songo, and the great duchy of Bamba. To the north-eaſt, the duchy of Sundi, and the marquiſate of Pango. Eaſtward, the duchy of Bala. In the middle, the marquiſate of Pemba. To theſe provinces muſt be added the territories or lordſhips of Amalaca, Dambi Ambuila, Dembo Quingengo, Dembo Angona, the little duchy of Ovando, and the territory of Sova Cavanga. Theſe diſtricts, however, are ſo very trifling, that they do not merit any particular notice; and with reſpect to the provinces themſelves, which form the kingdom of Congo, we ſhall leave the particulars of them till we have taken a general view of the country.

The climate of Congo is much leſs ſultry than might naturally be expected for its ſituation, it being ſo near the equator. Their winter months are April, May, June, July, and Auguſt; during which they have almoſt continual rains, whereby the rivers are ſo ſwelled as to overflow the principal part of the country. The winds in winter blow from north to weſt, and from north to north-eaſt. Theſe winds drive the clouds towards the mountains, where being gathered and compreſſed, they at length condenſe into water. In the ſummer the winds blow from the ſouth to the ſouth-eaſt, and as they clear the ſouthern ſkies, ſo they drive the rain into the northern regions. Theſe winds are of infinite ſervice in cooling the air, the heat of which would otherwiſe be inſupportable.

There are mines of ſeveral metals, particularly iron and copper, in this kingdom. In the mountainous parts are large quarries, that produce not only excellent ſtone, but alſo porphyry, jaſper, and marble of various colours.

The ſoil of this country is fertile, and produces ſeveral ſorts of grain, particularly rice and maize. They have alſo great plenty of a grain called luko, which in its form reſembles muſtard-ſeed, but when ground, produces flour little inferior to that from wheat. The manioc root is likewiſe cultivated here, and much admired by the Portugueſe, who, inſtead of making it into bread, bruiſe it very ſmall, and either eat it raw, or elſe boil it in broth.

Various ſorts of vegetables are cultivated with very little labour. Among theſe are turnips, cabbages, potatoes, radiſhes, cauliflowers, carrots and ſpinage, beſides others not known in Europe. They have alſo ſeveral uſeful herbs, as hyſſop, thyme, ſweet marjoram, balm, ſage, mint, &c.

Here is great variety of fruits, among which are oranges, lemons, citrons, gnavas, ananas, bananas, pompions, melons, dates, and the kola fruit. The laſt of theſe is about the ſize of a pine-apple, and the fruit, which is incloſed within a thin huſk, taſtes much like cheſnuts. It is not only valued for being pleaſant to eat, but for its great efficacy in removing any diſorder that particularly effects the liver.

There are ſeveral ſorts of trees here that are diſtinguiſhed for having medicinal qualities; among theſe is one called Angaria, the root of which, boiled in water, is an infallible remedy for violent pains in the ſides.

The

The khifekka is another tree of a medicinal virtue, any part of which being reduced to powder, and mixed with water is good againſt fevers; and, in caſes of fainting, if applied either to the forehead or temples, is equally efficacious as hartſhorn.

The jakaſſa tree grows very tall, is of a red colour, and has the virtue of curing the tooth-ach and ſore gums; but it is very pernicious to birds, for if they once ſettle on its boughs, they ſoon fall dead to the ground.

There is likewiſe a tree which bears a fruit reſembling a lemon. This very ſingular production of nature, called mignamigna, poſſeſſes two oppoſite occult qualities in the moſt eminent degree, being at once a deadly poiſon and powerful antidote. If a perſon is infected by the fruit, the leaves are a certain cure; if by the leaves, the fruit has the ſame effect; and the wood is deemed both as pernicious and efficacious as either.

The wild animals are, elephants, lions tygers, leopards, buffaloes, bears, wolves, large wild cats, camelions, apes, monkies, &c. The tame animals are, oxen, cows, ſheep, goats and hogs; beſides which they have great plenty of ſtags; fallow deer, roebucks, hares and rabbits. Poultry is very plentiful, particularly cocks, hens, geeſe and ducks. They have alſo abundance of wild fowl, as partridges, pheaſants, woodcocks, pidgeons, doves, hens, &c.

There are great numbers of parrots, moſt of which are very large, and either of a grey or green colour; but there is one ſpecies exceeding ſmall, not being larger than ſparrows, and their feathers are beautifully variegated. The moſt admired among the ſmall birds are thoſe called Birds of Muſic; they are about the ſize of a canary bird, but they greatly differ in the colour of their feathers; ſome are all red, and others green, with their feet and bills only black; ſome again are all white, grey, dun or black. Theſe laſt have the moſt agreeable note, and are kept in cages by the better ſort of people, merely for the ſake of their ſong.

The reptiles here are ſcorpions, millipedes, vipers, ſnakes and ſerpents. Among the ſnakes there is one ſpecies ſo amazing large, that it is ſaid it will ſwallow a whole ſheep. It is called the Great Water Adder, from its being chiefly found in the rivers. It goes, however, on land in ſearch of prey, and climbs the trees, where it lies in wait for the cattle that come to paſture. As ſoon as a ſheep or hog arrives near the tree the ſnake immediately deſcends, and winding its tail round the hinder parts of the animal, ſecures it from moving, when he kills and devours it. When he has gorged his prey, he becomes for ſome time ſtupid, but as ſoon as he recovers, he immediately makes for the water, where he continues till neceſſity obliges him to ſeek for further ſubſiſtence.

The ſeas and rivers abound with great variety of fiſh; among others in the former are prodigious quantities of ſardinias and anchovies; and in the latter are plenty of ſturgeons, ſoles, barbel, trout, tench, and other excellent fiſh. They have alſo ſeveral kinds of ſhell-fiſh, as oyſters, muſcles, cockles, and large crabs, which are generally found at the mouths of the rivers.

Complexion. Form. Diſpoſitions. Dreſs. Divers modes of travelling. Buildings. Domeſtic utenſils. Food. Diverſions. Marriages. Abſtinence. Funeral ceremonies of the natives of Congo. Their religion, and the baptiſm of a king.

THE complexion of the original natives is generally black, but ſince they have intermixed with the Portugueſe, many are of an olive colour. Some are tall and robuſt, but they are moſtly of a middling ſtature. They have all black, curling hair, but their noſes are not ſo flat, neither are their lips ſo thick as thoſe of the negroes in general.

In their diſpoſitions they are proud and haughty among themſelves, but to ſtrangers they are very affable and courteous. They have a natural propenſity to theft, and whatever they get, either by ſtealing or otherwiſe, they ſpend in liquors, of which they are very fond, and frequently drink to the greateſt exceſs. They have naturally a ready turn of wit, and, when ſober, will converſe with great circumſpection. They are, however very revengeful, and whenever they think themſelves offended, nothing will ſatisfy them but deſtroying the object of their reſentment, which they generally effect by poiſon.

The dreſs of the common people conſiſts of a looſe garment, which reaches from the middle of the ancles, and ſome have the bottom ornamented with a fringe. It is faſtened round the waiſt with a kind of ſtring made of leaves. Some uſe girdles made of bulruſhes or palm leaves, which they plait together. They have a cap on their heads made to ſit cloſe, and generally carry ſome weapon in their hands. The upper part of the body is bare in both ſexes, and their arms and legs are ornamented with braſs, copper, or iron bracelets. The garments of the better ſort is made of cloth or ſerge, under which they have a white ſhirt. The garments of the women are much ſhorter than thoſe of the men.

When the great men travel they are carried in hammocks made either of net-work or ſtrong ſtuffs, the manner of which is thus; the hammock is faſtened to a long pole about a foot from each end; and when the perſon has got into the hammock, two men, one before and the other behind, take up the pole, and lay it on their ſhoulders, carrying the perſon in this manner a conſiderable way without reſting. When they go long journeys they have four men, who relieve each other, in doing which they are ſo expert that they never ſtop, but ſhift as they walk, at the ſame time keeping their uſual pace. This is a very eaſy method of travelling, the perſon ſitting or laying in the hammock as he thinks proper; and they have ſometimes a piece of callico thrown over the pole to ſhelter them from the heat of the ſun.

Another method of travelling uſed here is thus: inſtead of a hammock they faſten two ropes to the pole, one of which is much ſhorter than the other; they are each tied in two parts, and hang like ſwings; in the former the perſon ſits, and at the bottom of the latter is a ſquare piece of board, on which he reſts his feet. The perſon carried generally holds an umbrella in his hand to ſhelter him from the heat of the ſun, or the inclemency of the weather. The reaſon of their travelling in this manner is from their want of horſes, there not being any of thoſe animals in the whole kingdom.

They form little towns or villages by erecting ſeveral houſes together in the midſt of an incloſure. Theſe buildings are made of wood, and covered with the branches of trees: each houſe is divided into ſeveral apartments, the innermoſt of which is adapted for the women: they are all on the ground floor, and without windows, the only light they have being admitted at the door, which is ſo ſmall that they are obliged to ſtoop when they paſs it. The incloſures of the houſes are formed by trees, which grow ſo cloſe together that they not only ſerve as a fence, but alſo to keep off the violent heat of the ſun.

Their neceſſary utenſils are pots, kettles, calabaſhes to hold their proviſions, a mill to grind their corn, a hatchet to fell timber, and ſome inſtruments of agriculture. Some of them have beds made of coarſe cloth ſtuffed with ſtraw, or the leaves of trees, but the generality lie upon looſe ſtraw ſpread on the ground.

The food of the common people conſiſts principally of rice, fiſh, potatoes, and other roots: but the better ſort live chiefly on fleſh and fowl. Their common drink is water, and ſometimes they regale themſelves with palm wine, or brandy mixed with water.

The natives who reſide near towns live chiefly by trade: but in the country parts they are principally employed in agriculture, and keeping cattle, About

the river Zaire ſome of them ſubſiſt by fiſhing, ſome by drawing palm wine, and others by weaving.

Being very fond of feſtivity and diverſion, in moſt villages the people aſſemble every evening at ſome open place, where they form a ring, in the center of which is placed a large wooden platter full of proviſions. The eldeſt of the company, who is called Makuluntu, gives to each his portion, which he divides with ſuch exactneſs, that no perſon has the leaſt reaſon to complain. They do not make uſe either of cups or glaſſes, but only a large flaſk, which, when any one wants to drink, the makuluntu holds to the perſon's mouth; and when he thinks he has drank enough, he takes the flaſk away. It is remarkable, that if any ſtrangers happen to come by at the time of theſe feſtivities, they are equally welcome to participate with the reſt of the gueſts, and always take their place in the ring, without being aſked either who they are, or from whence they came.

They alſo make feaſts on ſeveral particular occaſions, ſuch as gaining a law-ſuit, a marriage, the birth of a child, or any ſingular advancement in life. At theſe feaſts they dance, and ſing love-ſongs, which are attended with a variety of muſical inſtruments, conſiſting of flutes, pipes, ivory trumpets, and drums, the latter of which are made of thin wood, and covered with the ſkin of a beaſt.

The marriages of the natives of Congo, who have been converted by the Portugueſe to the Romiſh religion, are celebrated according to the rites of that church; but the generality of them preſerve their antient idolatrous maxims, are married by their own prieſts, and have a number of wives, each taken as many as he thinks himſelf able to maintain.

A man who is detected in having a criminal intercourſe with another's wife, is obliged, as a compenſation for the injury, to give the value of a ſlave to the huſband: but the woman receives no other puniſhment than aſking pardon of the huſband for the offence ſhe has committed. Thoſe who are detected in cohabiting together without the ceremonies of marriage are puniſhed with a fine, which is levied in proportion to the circumſtances of the offenders.

The Pagan prieſts here lay certain injunctions on young people, ſuch as obliging them to abſtain from eating either ſome ſorts of poultry, the fleſh of certain beaſts, fruits of different kinds, roots either raw or boiled after this or that manner, with the like ridiculous obligations, which they call kejilla. Theſe rules are as inviolably kept as they are ſtrictly enjoined. They would ſooner faſt till they periſhed, than taſte the leaſt bit of what has been forbidden; for they think that if they commit the leaſt treſpaſs againſt the kejilla, they ſhall certainly die in a very ſhort time. The prepoſſeſſion of their minds on this head is evident from the following ſtory mentioned by Merolla in his voyage to Congo. "A young black (ſays he) upon his journey, who had received the kejilla, coming to a friend's houſe at night, his hoſt next morning had for breakfaſt a wild fowl, which is much better than a tame one. The gueſt hereupon demanded if it was a wild hen, and being anſwered in the negative, he ſet down and eat very heartily. Four years after, theſe two meeting together again, the country black aſked his friend, who was not yet married, if he would not eat a wild hen? The young man anſwered that he had received the kejilla, and therefore could not, the other laughed, and aſked what made him refuſe it now, when he had eaten it at his table ſo many years before? At hearing this the other began to tremble, and, by the effects of imagination, died in leſs than 24 hours."

When the corpſe of any great perſon is to be interred, they ſpread the way with leaves and branches of trees. He muſt likewiſe be carried in a ſtrait line to the grave; ſo that if any houſe or wall happens to interrupt the paſſage, it muſt be immediately pulled down. On theſe occaſions ſeveral ſlaves were formerly ſacrificed to ſerve their maſter in the other world; but ſince the Portugueſe have worked a reformation among the moſt diſtinguiſhed part of theſe deluded people, that practice has been entirely laid aſide, and only preſerved by thoſe who ſtill ſtrictly adhere to their original Pagan maxims. Theſe, however, are obliged to do it by ſtealth; for ſhould it be known, they would not only be rebuked, but ſeverely puniſhed by thoſe of ſuperior power, who are ſtrong advocates for the Romiſh perſuaſion.

The Portugueſe have taken great pains to introduce and eſtabliſh their religion in this country. The reformation was brought about in the reign of Don John the Fourth, by means of a naval commander of rank, called Diego Cam, who, deſirous of diſcovering the coaſt of Africa, in the courſe of his voyage came to anchor in the mouth of the river Zaire. Pleaſed with his reception by the natives, he took five of them home with him, and preſented them to his majeſty at the court of Liſbon. Having acquired ſome knowledge of the Portugueſe language during the voyage, they ingratiated themſelves ſo far with the king, by the patient anſwers they made to the queſtions he put to them, that he ordered Cam to take them back to their own country, and to uſe his utmoſt endeavours to make a convert of the African king to the Romiſh church. The attempt ſucceeded: the king became a convert, erected a magnificent church, and was himſelf baptized in the moſt public manner; as were his queen and court ſoon after.

Deſcription of the city of St Salvadore. The king's Splendor and Magnificence. Revenues. Armament. Civil Adminiſtration and Traffic.

THIS city is ſituated upon a very high hill, moſtly of ſolid rock, on the top of which is a plain about 10 miles in circumference, which commands a moſt extenſive and delightful proſpect, and is beautifully ſhaded with a great variety of fruit trees, as palm, tamarind, plantain, cola, lemon, and orange trees. The air is alſo exceeding wholeſome. The hill has ſome iron mines, which are of ſingular uſe to the inhabitants, who fabricate it into weapons and inſtruments of agriculture. From theſe, and other conveniencies, it is little to be wondered at that the Congo monarchs ſhould have made this ſpot their uſual place of reſidence. The king's palace is a very ſpacious and beautiful ſtructure.

The moſt conſiderable buildings in the city, excluſive of the palace, are 12 churches, of which one is the cathedral: a college belonging to the jeſuits, where four of them are conſtantly employed in teaching the Latin and Portugueſe, and in catechiſing the people; and, laſtly, the Portugueſe fort, which is a ſtrong and ſpacious edifice.

The churches and other public buildings, except the jeſuit's college, have ſtone foundations; but the roofs are very mean, being covered only with ſtraw; and they are indifferently provided with utenſils for the celebration of divine offices.

The city is well ſupplied with freſh water by two excellent fountains. The one is in a place called St. James's-ſtreet, and the other within the walls of the court. Beſides theſe there is, on the eaſt ſide, near the foot of the hill, a ſpring of excellent water, called the Veſe, which falls into the river Lelunda, and ſerves to water the adjacent country.

Before the great church is a ſpacious ſquare, on one ſide of which a large market is every day kept for the ſale of proviſions. The reſt of the ſquare is ſurrounded with elegant houſes, chiefly inhabited by noblemen. The city is very populous, the number of inhabitants being computed at 40,000.

The authority of the king of Congo is abſolute, the lives and property of his ſubjects being entirely at his diſpoſal. They approach him, on all occaſions, in the moſt ſubmiſſive manner; and whoever neglects paying proper reſpect and obedience to him, is puniſhed with perpetual ſlavery. He has a council, conſiſting of 12 perſons, who are his favourites, and with whom he adviſes in all matters relative to the affairs of ſtate. All orders

orders of a public nature are alſo made known by them, to which the people are obliged to pay the ſame obedience as if iſſued by the king himſelf. He is always attended by a number of the nobility, who dwell in and about the palace, beſides his domeſtics, and other officers of his houſehold. He has alſo a ſtrong guard, which he keeps not only for the dignity of his court, but for the ſecurity of his perſon. He gives public audience twice a week, but no one is permitted to ſpeak to him except his favourite nobles. His dreſs is very rich, being for the moſt part cloth of gold or ſilver, with a long velvet mantle. He generally wears a white cap on his head, as do all his favourites; but if any of the latter come under the diſpleaſure of the king, he orders the cap to be taken off, which is the higheſt mark of indignity they can receive; this white cap being conſidered here as a badge of nobility or knighthood, and of no leſs honour than the ſtar or garter in Europe.

When the king goes abroad he is attended by a numerous retinue; for not only his nobles accompany him, but likewiſe all the principal men of the city, ſome of whom go before, and others behind. He is alſo attended by a numerous guard, armed with ſabres, lances, or bows and arrows.

When he goes to the cathedral, the Portugueſe, both temporal and ſpiritual, as well as the grandees, muſt wait on him, and return with him to the palace: but the Portugueſe are not obliged to attend him on any other occaſion. At theſe times the king is dreſſed in his richeſt robes, which conſiſt of a long mantle or cloak of ſilk or velvet, ornamented in the moſt ſumptuous manner. On his head he wears a bordered cap, and round his neck are chains of gold, intermixed with the fineſt coral. He has a ſort of half boots on his legs, and his arms and wriſts are decorated with bracelets of gold.

There are other times alſo when his majeſty's pomp and grandeur are principally diſplayed, One of theſe is when he gives public audience to his nobles, or any foreign envoys, which is generally after dark. The courtiers paſs through a long gallery, between two ranks of Negroes, bearing waxen flambeaux. His majeſty is ſeated in a chair of ſtate, under a ſuperb canopy. He is elegantly habited in a robe of tiſſue, ornamented with brilliants of the firſt luſtre. On his right hand ſtands an officer, waving an handkerchief at a little diſtance, to cauſe an agreeable breeze. At his left hand another, bearing in his right hand a ſceptre, and in his left a bow. He is ſurrounded by attendants, each holding a flambeaux in his hand.

On theſe days he cauſes all the noblemen, then in the bounds of the palace, to be numbered, and a proviſion is made accordingly. The entertainment is prepared in the largeſt apartments in the palace, and the proviſions are brought in pots, ſome of which contain boiled beans, others fleſh and fiſh, and ſome are filled with millet, ſeaſoned only with ſalt and palm-oil. When every thing is ready, the king ſends to the greateſt lords each his meſs in a wooden platter, with a ſmall flaſk of palm-wine; but the others are called up by their names, ſix or ſeven together, and ſuch proviſions are given to them as the king thinks proper to direct, with which they retire to an adjoining apartments. As ſoon as they have done eating, they all come into the king's preſence, and, falling upon their knees, clap their hands, and bow their heads, in token of thanks and ſubmiſſion; after which they depart home, except the king's favourites, who ſmoke tobacco and drink wine with him during the remainder of the day.

The king has one lawful wife, who is called Mani-Mombada, that is, Queen. She lives with great ſplendor, having apartments in the palace particularly appropriated to her uſe. She has a great number of ladies, who attend on her alternatively, both day and night; and the king's concubines are obliged to pay her the greateſt homage; for ſhould they behave to her in the leaſt diſreſpectful, they would be puniſhed with perpetual ſlavery.

The king's revenue conſiſts chiefly in the tribute that is paid to him by ſeveral vaſſal princes, and which the mani, or governors of the ſix chief provinces, are obliged to gather for him. There are others that make him a kind of free-will offerings, ſome of cattle, others of grain, wine, palm-oil, and the like, as acknowledgements for the lands they hold under him. He is alſo proprietor of all the zimbis, or cockle-ſhells, (the current coin of this and other neighbouring kingdoms,) which brings him in exchange ſlaves, elephants teeth, ſanders, ſtuffs, cattle, millet, and other commodities. Fines and confiſcations likewiſe bring him a conſiderable income. To which may be added his power in levying taxes on his ſubjects as often as he pleaſes; but this he ſeldom does, except in caſes of neceſſity; the poverty of his ſubjects being ſo great, that if he were to repeat ſuch impoſitions often, it might ſubject them to revolt and conſequently produce ſome diſagreeable conſequences.

The king's forces are not very numerous, nor are they either well cloathed or diſciplined. The beſt of them are the muſketeers, who having been taught the uſe of fire arms by the Portugueſe, retain the art of handling them with ſurpriſing dexterity. All the king's ſubjects may be ſaid to be ſoldiers; for whenever there is occaſion, and he thinks proper to command, they muſt all attend.

Theſe ſoldiers are taught to fall on the foe with a dreadful kind of bravery, or rather fury, which they do accordingly upon all occaſions; but as their arms are of little uſe in ſuch violent and irregular onſets, for want of better diſcipline, they are ſometimes put to the rout, and when that happens they are ſeldom able to rally; ſo that the breaking of the very firſt body is moſtly attended with the loſs of the battle. The flight of an army generally animates the other to an obſtinate purſuit, the conſequences attending which are dreadful, and the carnage always great. When the conquerors think proper to relinquiſh the purſuit, they return and plunder the enemy's camp, ſeize all the men, women, and children they meet with, and ſell them to the Europeans for ſlaves. They look upon this as the moſt conſiderable part of the ſpoil, and therefore diſpatch them as ſoon as poſſible to the ſea-ſide, or to ſome inland market. Few of thoſe wounded in the battle ſurvive, their arrows and darts being infected with ſo deadly a poiſon, that if they draw blood, and the perſon is not provided with ſome extraordinary antidote, it is ſure to cauſe a ſpeedy and unavoidable death.

After a conqueſt, terms of peace are propoſed by the victor, which, though favourable on his own part, are generally accepted by the vanquiſhed; but they are no longer attended to by the latter, than while he becomes ſufficiently formidable to renew the war.

With reſpect to the ſucceſſion to the crown of Congo, no order is obſerved, neither legitimation or ſeniority taking place farther than the ruling nobles think proper, who eſteem all alike honourable, and chooſing him among the king's ſons for whom they have the greateſt reſpect, or think the moſt proper to govern. Sometimes they ſet aſide all the children, and give the crown to a brother, nephew, or ſome other diſtant relation.

In order that juſtice may be adminiſtered throughout his dominions, the king appoints a judge in every particular province, to hear and determine all cauſes, whether of a civil or criminal nature. Theſe are called Royal Judges; from whom, however, an appeal may be made to the king, who, for that purpoſe, preſides twice a week at the ſupreme court.

There are only two offences here that are deemed capital, namely, treaſon and murder; in both which caſes the puniſhment is ſolely inveſted in the king, who generally condemns them to the loſs of their heads and eſtates, the latter of which are confiſcated to his uſe.

In trifling matters the offenders are puniſhed various ways. If they are poor, they are either baſtinadoed or whipped; but if rich, they are puniſhed by having fines levied on them at the diſcretion of the judge.

There

There are many inſtances of cruelty and oppreſſion which the poorer ſort are ſubject to from their ſuperiors in this kingdom. Among theſe are the following. If a poor man happens to contract a debt with a rich one, he is not only liable to be ſtripped of all he hath, (not excepting his wife and family, who, in ſuch caſes, are often ſold for ſlaves,) but to be alſo baſtinadoed, dragged to a jail, and there inhumanly treated, in order to oblige ſome of his friends to procure him his liberty at an exhorbitant rate.

Another proceeding, equally cruel and oppreſſive, is, that if an inſolvent debtor ſecrets himſelf from his tyrannic creditor, or flies into ſome other country, either to avoid a jail, or being ſold for a ſlave, it is looked upon as a flagrant crime; in which caſe the creditor makes no heſitation to ſeize on ſome wealthy relation of his, and impriſon him in his ſtead, till he has extorted, by the moſt cruel uſage, a ſufficient ſum from his other friends to ſatisfy him for the debt.

This arbitrary power extends even ſo far as to debts contracted by gaming, a vice to which the people of Congo are greatly addicted.

The Portugueſe principally reſide at St. Salvador, where they carry on a conſiderable traffic with moſt other parts of the kingdom. The goods they ſell to the natives are various ſorts of grain, fruits, plants, and other proviſions, which they bring from Brazil. The articles from Europe are Engliſh cloth, and other ſtuffs, copper and braſs veſſels, ſeveral kinds of earthen ware, rings, and other ornaments; tobacco, wine, brandy, and other ſpirituous liquors; light ſtuffs made of cotton, linen, and woollen; with a great variety of tools and utenſils. In return for which they receive from the natives elephants teeth, furs, and other commodities of the country: but the chief article is ſlaves, prodigious numbers of which they annually export to the plantations in America. The beſt and moſt ſerviceable of theſe are brought from Angola, the country of the Jaggas, and other adjacent parts, where they are naturally very robuſt and ſtrong; whereas thoſe in the provinces of Congo being for the moſt part brought up in ſloth and indolence, either die in their paſſage, through miſery and ſickneſs, or ſoon after their arrival, through the change of climate, or the ſevere treatment they receive from thoſe to whom they are ſold.

Provinces of Congo.

THE province of Songo is bounded on the eaſt by Pango and Sundi, on the weſt by the Ethiopic Sea, on the north by the river Zaire, and on the ſouth by the Lelunda. The ſoil is dry and ſandy; and were it not for the great quantities of ſalt which are gathered on the ſea-coaſt, the governor or count's income would be very trifling. The chief produce of the iſland parts are palm-trees, on the fruit of which the inhabitants principally ſubſiſt.

The duchy of Bemba is one of the largeſt and richeſt provinces in the whole kingdom: its ſoil is naturally fertile, and would produce abundance of all the neceſſaries of life, were the natives induſtrious in cultivating and improving it. The ſea-coaſts produce likewiſe a prodigious quantity of ſalt, inſomuch that they have not only a ſufficiency for their own conſumption, but they alſo export it to foreign countries, which makes this article yield an extraordinary revenue to the crown. The inhabitants in general profeſs the Roman Catholic religion, and keep for their ſervice ſeveral jeſuits and other prieſts.

The capital of this country is called Banga, or Panga, and is ſituated about thirty miles from the ſea-coaſt. It is a large town, but the houſes, like thoſe of Songo, are built in a very ſtraggling and irregular manner. It ſtands in a hilly country, and is watered by two rivulets. Here are ſeveral churches, but they are all very mean buildings, the walls of them being made with clay, and the tops covered with thatch.

The lord of Bemba is the moſt powerful of all the king's vaſſals, and is paid the greateſt reſpect at court: being alſo captain-general of his majeſty's forces.

The province or duchy of Sundi is divided into ſeveral particular governments: moſt of which being far diſtant from the capital, and in places ſurrounded with mountains almoſt inacceſſible, the people pay obedience to the governor according to their own diſcretion. They are always armed, and keep the whole province in a conſtant ſtate of trouble and agitation; for as the Portugueſe have not been able to propagate their religion among them, they are more refractory than any other people in the whole kingdom.

The marquiſate of Pango was formerly called Panga Logos, at which time it had the title and prerogative dignity of kingdom; but has loſt both ever ſince the kings of Congo ſubdued and reduced it to the rank of a province.

The duchy of Bata, or Batta, is of conſiderable extent, and was formerly a kingdom of itſelf, till it voluntarily ſubmitted to the kings of Congo, for which reaſon it enjoys more privileges than any other province in the kingdom, the government being always conferred on a perſon deſcended from the ancient kings of that country.

The marquiſate of Pemba, which, though ſmaller in extent than any of the reſt, has always had this ſingular advantage, that its capital hath ever been the native country, ſeat, and burial-place of all the kings of Congo, whether Idolaters or Chriſtians. This province is well watered, not only by the Lelanda, which runs quite through it from eaſt to weſt, but alſo by the river Ambriſi, and ſome others, which equally contribute to its fertility, and the riches and happineſs of its inhabitants. The conſtant reſidence of the king and his court, which is very numerous, emulates the people to induſtry, whilſt the great conſumption of proviſions, and other merchandizes, improves their commerce, encourages their diligence, and increaſes their wealth; the fruits of which they quietly enjoy, without being expoſed to the extortions of foreign viceroys, or the incurſions of barbarous neighbours, by being ſo happily ſituated in the heart of the country.

SECTION IV

LOANGO.

Situation. Extent. Boundaries. Diviſion. Climate. Soil. Productions. Natives. Ceremonies. Religion.

THE kingdom of Loango extends along the African coaſt from two to five degrees ſouth latitude, and is upwards of 400 miles in length, and 300 in breadth. It is bounded on the north by the kingdom of Benin, on the ſouth by Congo Proper, on the eaſt by Makoko, and on the weſt by the Atlantic Ocean. This country, as well as Angola, was formerly a part of the kingdom of Congo; but has long been diſmembered from it. It is watered by ſeveral ſmall rivers, and divided into four principal provinces, called Loangiri, Loango-mongo, Chylongo, and Piri.

Though Loango is ſituated almoſt in the middle of the torrid zone, the climate is by no means unwholeſome, while the ſoil is capable of improvement, though greatly neglected through the indolence of the natives. They have, however, ſeveral ſorts of peas and beans, with large and ſmall millet, of all which the ground yields annually three crops. They have fruits of various kinds, as oranges, lemons, bananas, pompions, cocoa-nuts, &c.

Of wild animals they have tigers, leopards, elephants, civet cats, and a variety of monkies. The only tame animals are goats and hogs; and poultry is ſo plentiful that ſixpenny-worth of beads will purchaſe twenty good fowls. Wild fowl are as numerous, and ſeveral uncommon birds peculiar to the country. The moſt remarkable of theſe is the pelican, a bird larger than a ſwan, which in ſhape reſembles a heron. Its feathers

are black and white, and it has a bare place on the breaſt. The natives catch great quantities of fiſh on the coaſt.

The natives who are called Bramas are tall, well ſhaped, and of a ſhining black colour. In diſpoſition they are civil, jealous and much addicted to drinking.

In dreſs, food, and ſeveral ceremonies relative to marriages, &c. they reſemble the natives of Congo Proper. Some of them have ten or twelve wives, but the common people in general have but two or three.

It is affirmed by ſeveral writers, that the children of the natives are born of much the ſame colour as thoſe of the Europeans, but in two days become as black as their parents. This often deceived the Portugueſe at their firſt ſettling in theſe parts, for having commerce with the negro woman, they vainly imagined, till convinced to the contrary, that the children were theirs.

One circumſtance here relative to the birth of children is very remarkable. Though both parties are negroes, yet ſometimes it happens that the offſpring is very different in colour to that of its parents. Theſe at a diſtance greatly reſemble Europeans: they have grey eyes, and red or yellow hair; but when you are cloſe to them their colour is like the corpſe of an European, and their eyes appear, as it were, fixed in their heads. Their ſight is very imperfect in the day, but at night they ſee clear, eſpecially if it be moon-light. It is ſuppoſed that the birth of theſe is occaſioned by the effects of imagination in the woman in ſeeing a white man, in the ſame manner as hiſtory informs us, that a white woman, by viewing the picture of a negro, was delivered of a black child.

They are called Dondos by the negroes, and Albinos, or Whites, by the Portugueſe. They are always preſented to the king a few days after they are born, brought up in the court, attend his perſon, and are held in ſuch high eſteem by him that no perſon whatever dare offend them: if they go to the markets they have the liberty of taking ſuch articles as they think proper without controul.

When any one dies, the relations immediately make it known by running about the town or village, and ſhrieking in the moſt hideous manner; after which they bring the corpſe into the ſtreet, and waſh and clean it. When the grave is dug they carry ſeveral of their houſhold goods, and lay by the ſide of it, as alſo the moſt valuable things uſed by the deceaſed in his life-time. They then haſtily take up the corpſe, and carry it with all expedition to the grave, in which it is immediately depoſited: ſome of the goods are thrown into the grave, and after they have ſhewed their lamentations by howling and the moſt ſtrange geſticulations, it is filled up with earth. The remaining goods are ſet over the graves on poles, being firſt cut to prevent their being ſtolen. The relations of the deceaſed bewail his loſs by attending the grave, morning and evening, for ſix ſucceſſive weeks.

They will not ſuffer any foreigner to be buried in their country. When it happens that an Europeans dies here his body is carried in a boat two miles from the ſhore, and thrown into the ſea. This cuſtom took its riſe from a Portugueſe gentleman being buried here ſome years ago, ſoon after which the whole country was afflicted with a famine. The prieſts thought proper to attribute the cauſe of a general calamity to the interment of the foreigner, whoſe body, in conſequence of their opinions, was taken up and thrown into the ſea; and from this circumſtance they have never ſince permitted a ſtranger to be interred in their country.

With reſpect to the religion of theſe people, they are all idolaters, and worſhip idols which they call mokiſſos.

If a man has got a fooliſh child he muſt not eat of the breaſt or udder of a buffalo; but if he afterwards gets another more ſenſible he becomes free from that reſtraint. Theſe, and ſuch like idle maxims, they obſerve with the greateſt exactneſs, firmly believing that if the command enjoined by the mokiſſo, or the promiſes made to him, are not fully performed, he hath power to kill, or otherwiſe puniſh them.

All circumſtances that happen to them, whether good or evil, they ſuppoſe to ariſe from the power of the mokiſſo. If a man preſerves a good conſtitution by living chaſte and temperate, he aſcribes his health to the mokiſſo, and not to thoſe virtues themſelves. If a ſick man recovers, they never impute it either to the force of nature, or the application of the medicines, but the mokiſſo gets the credit of the cure which they performed; and if the patient happens to die of old age, or by any accident, they believe he was killed by ſorcery, for having violated the injunctions laid on him by the mokiſſo.

Beſides their private mokiſſos, they have many public ones, that are kept in temples or huts, to which they daily repair to their devotions. One of theſe is at a village called Thiriko, and in figure reſembles a man. The ganga, or high-prieſt, who is lord of the village, performs the ſervice every morning, the manner of which is thus: As ſoon as the people are aſſembled he ſits down upon a mat, and with a leathern bag ſtrikes his knee ſeveral times, having ſmall iron bells faſtened to his fingers. After this he ſtrikes the bag ſeveral times on his breaſt, and then uſes many ſtrange motions and poſtures of his body, hands, head and eyes; ſometimes he raiſes his voice, and then depreſſes it, frequently repeating the word Mariomena, to which the aſſembly anſwer, Ka. When this has continued for ſome time, the ganga appears as if diſtracted, and his rage becomes ſo violent that he is obliged to be held; but by virtue of a ſour liquor drawn from cane, with which they ſprinkle him, he recovers, and then declares what he has received from the mokiſſo, and what muſt be done in caſes of ſickneſs and the like. After this he recommends to the mokiſſo the health of the king, the welfare of the country, flouriſhing of the ſeed, ſucceſs to the merchants, and full nets for fiſhermen. At the mention of the king's name the whole company clap their hands in token of affection, and then the ceremony of concluded.

Deſcription of Loango the capital. Power and ſtate of the king. Conciſe account of their laws. Funeral ceremonies of the king. His revenues. Articles of commerce.

LOANGO, the capital of the kingdom, is ſituated in four deg. and a half of ſouth latitude, and is about four miles from the ſea coaſt. It is a large and populous city, and the ſtreets are long and ſpacious.

Near the center of the city is a ſpacious ſquare, ſurrounded with lofty trees, where a daily market is held for the ſale of all kinds of proviſions, as meat, fiſh, poultry, wine, corn and oil; alſo palm cloths of various ſorts, and great quantities of elephants teeth.

The royal palace conſiſts of a number of detached buildings. The king's apartments are in front, and behind are thoſe belonging to his women. The whole is ſurrounded with lofty palm-trees, and is at leaſt a mile and a half in circumference.

At a ſmall diſtance from the eaſt end of the city is a place called the Broad Way, where ſuch as have been found guilty of any crime by the imbonda drink are dragged and executed.

When any perſon is ſuſpected of a crime, and it cannot be clearly proved againſt him, he is ſworn by drinking a certain quantity of this liquor. It is made from the root of a ſmall tree or ſhrub, called imbonda, which is about ſix inches long, and much reſembles a carrot. The root is ſcraped into water, which is boiled in gourds. The liquor is as bitter as gall, and ſo ſtrong that one root would ſerve to try an hundred people. When the perſon drinks the liquor, if it be too much infuſed it occaſions a ſuppreſſion of urine, and ſtrikes up into the head, inebriating to ſuch a degree that he falls down as if dead, in which caſe he is pronounced

guilty, and is accordingly dragged to the Broad Way and executed; but if he can ſtand upright, and make water, he is deemed innocent. The determination of this matter reſts entirely in the imbonda-giver, or perſon appointed to adminiſter the potion: for however innocent he may be that is ſuſpected, yet if the imbonda giver has any diſlike to him, or his accuſer is a perſon of importance, he is ſure to give him the liquor ſo ſtrongly infuſed that its operation proves fatal, though he does it ſo artfully that it cannot be diſcovered. This ceremony is performed at Loango almoſt every week, ſo that in the courſe of a year many people are deſtroyed by it.

The king hath a great number of wives, all of whom, except the principal one, are obliged to be very ſubſervient to him. He is a very powerful prince, and able to bring into the field a conſiderable army, for all his ſubjects are obliged to equip themſelves with arms, and immediately attend at his command. His dreſs is elegant and ſumptuous, and both he and his nobles wear, on their left arm, the ſkin of a wild cat ſewed together with one end ſtuffed. The king ſhuts the door of his apartment, and continues by himſelf during the whole time he is at dinner: for ſhould any perſon happen to ſee him either eat or drink, he would be immediately put to death.—So punctual is this law obſerved, that even animals are ſubject to the ſame fate, which happened to a fine dog preſented the king by a Portugueſe. The creature not being very well fed by thoſe who had the care of him, ſmelling the victuals one day when the king went to dinner, followed the ſcent, and his majeſty not faſtening the door properly, the dog, while he was at dinner, thruſt it open with his feet, and entered the room, when the king immediately quitted the apartment, and ordered him to be killed.

Every day after dinner the king goes in ſtate, accompanied by his nobles, and a great crowd of people, to the banquetting-houſe in order to refreſh himſelf by drinking palm-wine. As ſoon as he arrives there he ſeats himſelf on the throne, and on each ſide of him is a cup-bearer. He on the right hand reaches him the cup when he is inclined to drink, but at the time turns his head: notice of which is given to the company by him on the left, who ſtrikes two iron rods, pointed at the ends, one againſt the other. At this ſignal the people turn their backs to the king, and bend their faces to the ground, in which poſture they remain ſo long as the irons continue ringing; after which they riſe, turn their faces to the king, and wiſh him health by clapping their hands.

After ſun-ſet he goes a ſecond time to the apartment adapted for eating, where his proviſions are prepared for him as before; after which he again viſits the banquetting-houſe, where he remains till nine or ten o'clock, when he returns, and retires to reſt.

The king ſeldom appears abroad except on the before-mentioned occaſions, or when an ambaſſador arrives, or ſome ſtrange accident has happened; ſuch as when a leopard is taken in the country, or elſe lodged about the city ready for the chaſe (for he is very fond of that diverſion,) or, laſtly, when his land is to be tilled, and his chief nobility bring him tribute.

The king appears in public at the commencement of the ſeed-time, which is always on the 1ſt of January. He takes his ſeat at three o'clock in the afternoon, when the woman who till the ground appear before him with their inſtruments of huſbandry, and the men walk backwards and forwards armed and cloathed in their military habits. The king generally ſtays about an hour, when he returns to his palace amidſt the acclamations of the people, who ſpend the reſt of the day in mirth and feſtivity.

When any of the inhabitants have diſcovered a leopard in the woods adjoining to the capital, intimation of it is given to the king, who repairs to his public place of appearance, and a trumpet is ſounded to give notice to the people to attend him at the ſport. If the place where the leopard lies be too far for the king to walk, he is carried on mens ſhoulders in a kind of chair made of wicker, and curiouſly ornamented. As ſoon as they arrive at the ſpot where the leopard is ſecreted, the people ſurround it, armed with bows and arrows, lances and darts, leaving only a ſmall place open that the king may have a convenient opportunity of ſeeing the ſport. Before this opening nets are ſpread, that if the leopard ſhould happen to take his courſe that way he might be caught alive. When every thing is ready, the beaſt is roufed by the people making an univerſal ſhouting, with the blowing of horns and beating of drums. As ſoon as he finds himſelf ſurrounded he endeavours to make his eſcape, but is impeded by the vollies of darts and arrows that are diſcharged at him by the multitude, who follow him cloſe, and if he happens not to take the net, overpower and diſpatch him. When the leopard is killed the king retires to his palace, before which the hunters bring the carcaſe and triumph over it by dancing, ſinging, and exhibiting various kinds of diverſions. The king then orders the beaſt to be flayed, and the ſkin is brought to him; after which the body is buried very deep in the earth, except the gaul, which is taken out and thrown into the river, it being conſidered as a deadly poiſon; and thus end the ceremonies of hunting leopard.

By the laws of this kingdom theft is never puniſhed with death unleſs it be committed on the king: in common caſes, when a chief is detected either he or his friends muſt reſtore the goods ſtolen, or atone for the want of them by an adequate compenſation, beſides which the thief is tied to a poſt in the middle of the ſtreet, where he continues an hour as an object of ridicule and contempt to the ſpectators. If he is unable either to reſtore the goods or pay the value of them, his relations muſt work for the party robbed, till ſuch time as he thinks himſelf ſufficiently ſatisfied for the loſs he has ſuſtained.

When the king dies the ſucceſſion of the crown does not devolve to his children, but to his eldeſt brother, but for want of ſuch kindred, it falls to his ſiſter's children.

Thoſe who have pretenſions to the crown are five in number, and reſide in towns or villages at ſome diſtance from the court: they preſerve their titles agreeable to the names of the reſpective villages in which they live. The next heir to the crown is called Mani-Kay, who reſides at a large town of that name ſituated about five miles from Loango. The ſecond is called Mani-Bokke, and lives at a town called Bokke, ſituated about fourteen miles up the country. The third, called Mani-Salloga, lives at Salloga, a large town ſituated about 35 miles north of Loango. Mani-Kat, the fourth, lives at the village of Kat, about 50 miles from Loango. And Many-Inyami, the fifth and laſt, reſides at the hamlet of Inyami, which is ſituated on the ſouthern borders of the kingdom.

When the king dies, Mani-Kay ſucceeds him, Mani-Bokke removes to the reſidence of Mani-Kay, and the reſt all follow, a proper perſon being appointed to ſupply the place of the laſt. And thus by a regular rotation they ſucceed to each others villages, and after to the crown.

After the deceaſe of the king the Mani-Kay (or next heir to the crown) enters immediately upon the government, but he does not go to court till the funeral of the late king is over, the ceremonies attending which are as follow: They firſt make two vaults under ground adjoining to each other, in one of which they lay the royal corpſe, richly dreſſed, on a ſtool, and by it all manner of houſhold ſtuff, as pots, kettles, pans, cloths and garments. They then place round it little images made of wood and red earth repreſenting the houſhold ſervants of the deceaſed. After this they leave the royal corpſe, and go to the other vault, where they place the bodies of ſeveral ſlaves, who have been ſacrificed to ſerve the king in the other world,

world, and to make atteſtation in what manner he behaved during the courſe of his life. The two vaults are then cloſed, and over each is erected a covering to preſerve it from the inclemency of the weather.

The king of Loango's revenues principally ariſe from elephants teeth, copper, and ſlaves. The greateſt part of the copper is brought by ſtealth from an inland country, the inhabitants of which are always at variance with the king of Loango.

The goods ſold here by the natives conſiſt of ivory, tin, lead, copper, iron, red wood, and ſeveral ſorts of cloths, the manufacture of the country; in exchange for which they purchaſe of the Europeans ſalt, Sileſia ticking, cutlaſſes, looking-glaſſes, beads, and other articles.

Provinces of Loango.

LOANGIRI is a large and populous province, and is well watered by ſeveral brooks and rivers, which render the ſoil exceeding fertile. The inhabitants live chiefly on fiſh, and employ themſelves in making cloth and linen. They are in general a very courageous people, and more addicted to war than their neighbours.

Loango-Mongo is a large mountainous country, and particularly abounds with palm-trees. The inhabitants are merchants, and, like thoſe of Loangiri, employ themſelves chiefly in making cloth and linen. In this province is the city of Loango, the uſual reſidence of the ſovereign of the kingdom.

The province of Chilongo is more extenſive than either of the other three. Some parts of it are very mountainous; but in others there are large and extenſive plains, which are very fertile, and produce good grain, as alſo abundance of palm-trees. It is a very populous part of the country; and though the inhabitants are not ſo well poliſhed as their neighbours, yet they carry on a conſiderable trade, particularly in elephants teeth and cloth. The governor of this province is abſolute, at whoſe deceaſe the people have the liberty of chooſing a ſucceſſor, without the approbation of the king of Loango.

Piri is a very flat country, but it is well peopled, and produces great plenty of moſt ſorts of proviſions, particularly cattle and poultry. The woods are well ſtocked with timber; beſides which there are fruit-trees in abundance. The inhabitants live chiefly on milk, and beaſts which they kill in the woods. Some of them are great traders, and they are all diſtinguiſhed for being very quiet and affable in their diſpoſitions.

SECTION V.

ANSICO, AND THE COUNTRY OF THE JAGGAS.

THERE are bordering on Angola and Congo two countries called Anſiko and Matamba, concerning which ſome particulars are worthy of notice.

Anſiko is bounded on the north by ſome of the deſarts of Nubia, on the ſouth by Congo, on the eaſt by one of the ſmall rivers that runs into the Zaire, and on the weſt by the borders of Loango. Its Extent is 285 miles in length, and 180 in breadth.

There are many mines of copper in Anſiko, of which conſiderable advantages are made by the Portugueſe. It is in general a very barren country, and the inhabitants are mere ſavages. They have no lands or ſettled inheritance, but wander, like Arabs, from one place to another, regardleſs of life, and intrepid in their undertakings. They pay no attention to agriculture, or uſe any endeavours to preſerve their exiſtence, but by plundering all who happen to fall in their way, ſome of whom they kill, and others they keep as ſlaves. They are dreaded for their extreme brutality, and are ſo irrational, that few Europeans can trade with them. Their language is barbarous, and ſo unintelligible that it cannot be underſtood even by the inhabitants of Congo.

Both ſexes go naked from the waiſt upwards, but the better ſort diſtinguiſh themſelves by wearing red and black caps made of Portugueſe velvet; and, in order to preſerve their health, they all anoint their bodies with a compoſition made of white ſandal-wood pounded, and palm-oil.

They are abſolute cannibals, their chief food being human fleſh; and there are public markets where whole bodies are hung up and expoſed for ſale. They believe themſelves poſſeſſed of a right to diſpoſe arbitrarily of their ſlaves; and thoſe taken in war are fattened, killed, and either uſed by their conquerors, or ſold to the butchers: for the people of this country feed on each other with as much indifference as thoſe of other countries do on the reſpective animals appropriated by Providence for the ſuſtenance of mankind.

The arms uſed by thoſe people are battle axes and very ſtrong bows, ſtrengthened and adorned with the ſkins of ſerpents. The ſtrings are made of ſupple and ſlender ſhoots of trees; and the arrows are of a hard but very tight wood, pointed at the ends with iron. They ſhoot with ſuch ſurpriſing agility, that they will diſcharge near a dozen arrows from the bow, before the firſt falls to the ground. They manage the battle-axe with equal dexterity. One end of this inſtrument is very ſharp, and the other flat like a mallet, with a handle between about half the length of the iron, rounded at the end, and covered with the ſkin of a ſerpent: with the flat end they ſcreen their bodies, and ward off the darts of their enemies. They have daggers alſo in ſcabbards made of the ſkins of ſerpents, which they carry by their ſides, faſtened in leathern girdles.

Their religion, as may reaſonably be ſuppoſed, is groſs idolatry. They worſhip the ſun as their chief deity, whom they repreſent in the figure of a man, and the moon under that of a woman. They have alſo an infinite number of inferior deities, each keeping one peculiar idol, to whom he offers ſacrifices, and conſtantly invokes before he proceeds on any dangerous enterprize.

The current coin are zimbis, or ſmall ſhells, gathered on the coaſt of Angola; in exchange for which they give ſlaves, as alſo for ſalt, ſilk, glaſs, knives, and other merchandize.

There is a ſmall kingdom to the ſouthward of Anſiko called Matamba, inhabited by the Jaggas, a ſavage and cannibal people, whoſe origin is not known. It is ſuppoſed they firſt ſettled about the kingdom of Anſiko, and from thence ſpread themſelves along thoſe ſpacious waſtes that lie between Anſiko and Loango. From thence it is imagined they ſpread by degrees along the eaſtern frontiers of Loango, Congo, and Angola, and from thence eaſtward to the kingdom of Matamba, of the latter of which, with the territory adjoining, they made themſelves complete maſters, and have ever ſince preſerved, to the great injury of their more rational and peaceable neighbours.

The territories of theſe people extend from north-eaſt to ſouth-weſt, along Matamba and Benguela, about 900 miles; but they are very narrow in proportion, being in ſome parts 150, and in others not above 100 miles broad. They are encloſed between the kingdoms of Matamba and Benguela, from whence they are ſeparated by the great river Kunerio on one ſide, and by the empire of Moni Muji on the other. The only town throughout all theſe dominions is called Kuſurji, ſituated at the north part of them, near the frontiers of Matamba, where the Great Jagga, or King, occaſionally reſides.

Beſides this, they have neither towns or houſes, but roam from place to place with tents, removing as inclination directs, or neceſſity obliges them.

They never cultivate the ground, but ſeize every thing that comes in their way, and live entirely by plundering their neighbours. In their perſons they are tall, luſty, and ſtrong, yet nimble and ſwift of foot, climbing up the ſteep mountains and craggy rocks with moſt aſtoniſhing agility. Their women are ſtout, well ſhaped, fertile, warlike, and active; and both ſexes are ſo intrepid, that no enterprize is thought too hard or dange-

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rous for them to venture upon. Whenever they meet with an opportunity of plundering, they ruſh on their adverſaries at all hazards, and with a fearleſs unconcern for their own lives. They conſider it as the greateſt mark of bravery to attack the fierceſt and ſtrongeſt creatures, and a ſtill greater one to be more fierce and inhuman. This ſavageneſs not only extends to the people of the nations they invade, but to thoſe of their own, and even to their relations and children, whom they make no ſcruple to butcher and eat when they are in want of other food.

They build their kilombos, or camps, of ſuch materials, and on ſuch a conſtruction, that they are eaſily removed on the ſhorteſt notice. When they go on any capital expedition, they are always accompanied by the Great Jagga, or chief, and his court. He is a man of courage and reſolution; but never undertakes any thing without previous enchantments, and conſulting his mokiſſo, or idol, by ſacrifices, from whence he pretends to foreknow the event of his enterprize. On theſe occaſions he riſes before day-break, and ſets himſelf on a ſtool, attended by two of his conjurors, one on each ſide, and about fifty women ſtanding in a circle round him, waving the tails of beaſts, and ſinging. In the center is kindled a great fire, over which is placed an earthen pot, containing ſome white powder to paint, wherewith his conjurors beſmear his forehead, temples, breaſt, and belly, uſing at the ſame time many enchanting terms, and continuing their ridiculous ceremonies till ſun-ſet; at which time they bring him his caſengala, or hatchet, and put it into his hands, bidding him be ſtrong againſt his enemies, for the mokiſſo is with him. A male child is then brought to him, which he immediately kills: after which four men are brought to him, two of whom he ſlays, and orders the other two to be killed without the camp. He alſo orders ten crows to be killed, five within and five without the camp, with the ſame number of goats and dogs. The blood of theſe animals is ſprinkled on the fire, but the fleſh is eaten with great feſtivity and triumph. The ſame ceremonies are likewiſe uſed by the inferior officers of the army on the like account; but neither they or their chief make uſe of idols on theſe or any other occaſions, pretending that the mokiſſo frequently appears and ſpeaks to them.

The ſoldiers are neither well diſciplined, armed, or cloathed. Their offenſive weapons are bows and arrows, ſpears, darts, daggers, and clubs: but they are taught to uſe their defenſive weapons as well as their miſſive ones, being particularly inſtructed to cover their bodies, which are almoſt naked, with their large oval ſhields, made of thick hides; and this method is ſingularly ſerviceable in a retreat, as it preſerves them from being wounded by the arrows and lances of their purſuing enemy. Their chief excellency conſiſts in the ſtrength and activity of their bodies, in artfully covering themſelves, and throwing their miſſive weapons, by which they generally annoy the enemy, and make them ſpend their ſhot againſt their ſhields. After this they renew the onſet with ſuch vigour, as ſeldom fails of putting the enemy to flight, which is always followed by a general ſlaughter, no reſpect being paid either to perſons or ſex.

When they expect any conſiderable oppoſition upon an invaſion, they intrench themſelves very quietly for ſome time, and only alarm the inhabitants with frequent ſkirmiſhes, till they think they have ſufficiently harraſſed them. If theſe aſſault them, they ſtand on the defenſive for two or three days, till the others have ſpent their ſtrength and fury, when the commanding officer ſends out a large detachment in the night, to lie in ambuſh at ſome diſtance from the enemy's camp. On the following morning they begin the attack, when the poor natives being ſuddenly ſurprized, are eaſily put to the rout, and leave their country to the rapacity of their mercileſs invaders.

The Great Jagga, or king, preſerves a diſtinguiſhed dignity, no perſon being permitted to ſit before him, except the kalambo, or head general, who is ſupreme judge in all caſes, whether civil or criminal. This officer is allowed to ſit on a chair with a back to it; but the tendela, or next in rank, who likewiſe ſits as a judge, is only allowed a ſmall ſtool about a foot high. Thoſe of a certain rank are permitted to ſit in the king's preſence on a carpet, but they muſt ſpread it with their own hands. Thoſe who obtain audience of the king muſt ſpeak to him with their bodies bent almoſt double, and if of an inferior rank, muſt proſtrate themſelves on the ground. If the king happens to ſneeze, cough, or break wind, the whole aſſembly muſt wiſh him health and long life; and thoſe who are neareſt to his perſon muſt give notice to thoſe at a diſtance to do the ſame, on which they all expreſs their good wiſhes, by clapping their hands and bending their bodies.

The common people of both ſexes go almoſt naked, having only a piece of cloth faſtened round the waiſt, and ſo ſmall, that it barely covers half their thighs. Perſons of rank, indeed dreſs themſelves in gaudy apparel; but they do it rather from pride than any affectation of modeſty.

The beſt idea that can be given of the ſuperior claſs of theſe people will be from the account of an European who ſerved under the kalambo, or head general. "He wore (ſays he) long hair, ſet off with many knots of bamba ſhells. His neck was adorned with a collar of maſos, which are another kind of ſhells found along the Ethiopic coaſt, and ſold among them for about the value of 20s. His middle was covered with a girdle of lardes, or beads made of oſtrich eggs, and under it a palm cloth as fine as ſilk. His body was painted with various figures, and anointed every day with human fat. He wore across his noſe a piece of copper about two inches long, and two others of the ſame ſort in his ears." This writer, however, does not mention his wearing any thing either on his hands or feet, but adds, "That he had about thirty wives, who followed him when he went abroad, one of whom carried his bow and arrows, and four others his cups and drinking utenſils; and whenever he drank they all kneeled down and ſung. He kept his men under the ſtricteſt diſcipline, and if any one of them turned his back to the enemy, he was condemned to death, and his body eaten; and the more effectually to deter them from cowardice, he uſed to make an oration to them from a kind of ſcaffold every night in diſpraiſe of it, and in commendation of intrepidity."

The ſame writer has alſo furniſhed us with a deſcription of the method which they bring up their young ſoldiery. "Theſe (ſays he) are not their own offſpring but thoſe of ſuch captives as they make in their excurſions; for though they allow themſeves to have many women, and theſe are no leſs fertile than thoſe of other African nations, yet they ſuffer few of them to rear up their children, but order them to be buried alive as ſoon as born, and, in lieu of them, make choice of ſuch as are the moſt promiſing from among thoſe of their priſoners, to be trained up to arms, and to the plundering trade. Theſe they commonly chooſe at about the age of twelve or thirteen years; the females for procreation, and the males for war. The latter are no ſooner enrolled than they have a collar hung about their necks in token of ſlavery, which is to be worn by them till they bring home the head of an enemy, when it is publicly taken off, and they declared freemen of the cannibal commonwealth. The remainder of the captive train of both ſexes are inhumanly reſerved to be killed and eaten; not in time of ſcarcity of cattle and other proviſions, but out of cruel wantonneſs, and in preference to all other fleſh. This privilege of being accounted men, and freed from their badge of ſlavery, ſeldom fails of inſpiring the youths ſo choſen with an uncommon ambition to attain it at all hazards, and to face the greateſt dangers with an intrepid boldneſs for the ſake of it. It is by this method they keep up their number complete, and the fierce ſavage nature of the Jaggas from recoiling into humanity and compaſſion."

The women of rank only wear a cloth about their middle, but take great pride in adorning their hair, necks, arms, and legs, with ſhells and beads of various ſorts. They have a ſtrange cuſtom of pulling out four of their teeth, two above, and two below; and thoſe who refuſe to do this are ſo deſpiſed by the reſt, that they are not permitted to aſſociate with them.

The ſexes intermix according to inclination, without obſerving any ceremonies of marriage. They have ſome peculiar maxims in the interment of their dead, eſpecially thoſe of the male kind, and which evince farther tokens of their ſavage cruelty. The deceaſed is not only waſhed, anointed, and bedecked with all his moſt valuable finery, but accompanied by two of his moſt beloved women, who are conveyed with him to his grave, with their arms broken. The body is carried to the grave in a chair, between two men, and placed in it as if ſtill alive, and the two women, one on each ſide of it. As ſoon as they are thus depoſited, the grave, which is commonly very deep, is covered on the top with earth; and the relations, who are there preſent, ſprinkle it with the blood of ſlain goats and palm-wine: after which they make a funeral lamentation over it for ſeveral ſucceeding days. Thoſe of higher rank are interred with more pomp, and the ceremonies and libations reiterated a longer or ſhorter number of days, weeks, &c. according to their quality.

Succinct Account of the Depredations committed by the Jaggas on the adjacent Countries.

AS the ferocious diſpoſition of theſe people muſt naturally lead them to acts of cruelty and rapine, they have made the moſt daring attacks upon the lives and properties of the people of the different countries around them. The firſt and moſt reſolute adventurer was one Zimbo. This leader, abetted and aided by a woman named Tem-ban-dumba, who ſerved him in the two-fold capacity of concubine and counſellor, in the fifteenth century, made his firſt incurſions into the empire of Congo, where he committed the moſt horrid cruelties and lawleſs depredations. He purſued his rapacious deſigns at the head of a ſavage and numerous banditti for a conſiderable time, but was at length ſtopped in his career by the noble exertion of the king of Melinda, who, apprehended an invaſion from him, advanced with his army ſome diſtance from the capital, and not only repelled, but totally defeated his ſavages. Thinking it laudable to extirpate ſo diabolical a race, he ordered his men to purſue and ſlay all before them, which they moſt willingly performed.

Notwithſtanding this repulſe, Zimbo perſiſted in his rapacious deſigns, and advanced as far to the ſouthward as the Cape of Good Hope, and having greatly augmented his army, made all neceſſary preparations for a ſtroke of importance, when death put an end to all his projects, and ſoon after carried off his concubine and counſellor Tem-ban-dumba.

The ſurviving commanders diſſolved the union, and followed their fortunes at the head of their reſpective corps. One of theſe chiefs, called Dongis, had a daughter a ſecond Tem-ban-dumba, a monſter as inhuman as the firſt, who, putting herſelf at the head of a corps, purſued the ſame iniquitous plan, and filled the greateſt part of Ethiopia with terror, blood, and ſlaughter, till ſhe fell a victim to her abominable paſſions.

The firſt murderers and plunderers were followed by a ſucceſſion of others, who committed the ravages of their predeceſſors, and marked their way with blood and rapine. One, indeed, named Caluximbo, was an exception to the reſt; but as he had ſome humanity in his compoſition, he was deteſted by his ſavage countrymen.

At length the Portugueſe found means to conciliate the eſteem of one of their leaders, named Caſſange-Canguin-Gurij, by which he became humanized, embraced the Catholic religion, and was baptized by the name of Don Paſcall.

This prince, however, ſoon renounced his new religion, and returned to his former horrid practices. The different tribes of theſe people ſtill infeſt thoſe parts of Africa that are contiguous to their country, marking their way with blood and ſlaughter.

CHAP. XII.

KINGDOM OF BENIN.

Extent. Boundaries. Climate. Productions.

THIS kingdom is in extent, from eaſt to weſt, about 600 miles. It is bounded on the eaſt by the kingdoms of Mujac and Makoko; on the weſt by Ardrah, and part of the Gulph of Guinea; on the north by part of Gago and Biafara; and on the ſouth by Congo.

In general the country is very low and woody, but well watered by rivers, the moſt diſtinguiſhed of which is that called by the Engliſh and French the Benin, but by the Portugueſe Rio Formoſa, or the Beautiful River. Its banks are exceeding pleaſant, being ornamented with lofty trees, and many ſmall but neat villages. There are alſo ſeveral good towns for trade.

The climate of this kingdom is rather unwholeſome, through the noxious vapours exhaled from the low grounds by the heat of the ſun. The ſoil is tolerably fertile for the produce of millet and rice; but as the inhabitants are not fond of thoſe grains, little of them are cultivated. Their principal attention is directed to the produce of yams, which they uſe inſtead of bread. They have alſo great plenty of potatoes and other roots. The chief fruits here are oranges, lemons, and bananas. They have ſome cotton and pepper trees; the latter of which produce a tolerable commodity, but not in ſuch quantities as thoſe of the Eaſt Indies, neither are the corns ſo large.

The wild beaſts are elephants, tigers, leopards, bears, and monkies. The tame ones are horſes, cows, ſheep, dogs, and cats; the two latter of which the natives prefer to any other kind of fleſh whatever. They have alſo plenty of poultry; and the woods abound with game, as harts, hares, partridges, pheaſants, turtle doves, &c.

Diſpoſition, Claſſes, Dreſs, Habitations, Food, Cuſtoms, Funeral and other Religion Ceremonies, Puniſhments, Fines, &c.

THE kingdom of Benin is divided into a number of petty royalties, all of whom, except the king of Overri, are ſlaves or vaſſals to the king of Great Benin. The natives in general are good natured and obliging, particularly to Europeans. If the latter compliment them with preſents, their liberality is ſure to be doubly returned. Gentle meaſures is the only way to ſucceed in whatever is wanted; in that caſe it is their greateſt pleaſure to oblige: on the contrary, if treated with violence, no people in the world can be more refractory. Among themſelves they carry the appearance of civility and complaiſance, but in reality they are very cloſe and reſerved, eſpecially in their dealings, not caring to truſt

each other. The traders are very attentive to buſineſs, and remarkably tenacious to their old cuſtoms, with which, if a foreigner complies, he may eaſily deal with them.

The ſtate of Benin is divided into four claſſes, the firſt of which is compoſed only of three perſons, called Great Lords, or Great Men, who are always near the king's perſon. Whoever wants to obtain any favour from his majeſty muſt apply to them, in order to acquaint the king with their deſires, and return his anſwer. As there is no intermediate perſon between theſe, the king, and thoſe who ſolicite favours, they act on theſe occaſions in ſuch manner as beſt ſuits their own intereſts; ſo that in reality the whole government is entirely in their hands.

The ſecond rank or claſs is compoſed of thoſe called Ores-de-Roes, or Road Chiefs, who are of four ſorts: the meaneſt preſide over ſlaves; thoſe a degree higher over the low rabble; the third inſpect the conduct of thoſe concerned in huſbandry and agriculture; and the fourth, or ſuperior order, ſuperintend the military. Theſe are very numerous, and from them are choſen the viceroys and governors of thoſe countries ſubject to the king. They are all under the command of the three great men, and are reſponſible to them on all occaſions. They obtain their poſts by the recommendation of theſe three lords; and the king, as an enſign of their honour, preſents each of them with a ſtring of coral, which they are obliged continually to wear about their necks. They are made of a ſort of pale earth or ſtone, well glazed, and greatly reſemble variegated marble The poſſeſſors muſt be very careful of them, for if any one ſhould loſe his badge of honour, whether by accident or otherwiſe, the conſequence would be not only degradation, but the loſs of his life.

The third claſs are thoſe appointed by the government to treat with the Europeans on behalf of the traders of Benin. They are called Fiadors, or Brokers; and their buſineſs is to ſee that all matters of commerce are fairly tranſacted between the reſpective parties.

The laſt claſs conſiſts of the commonalty. The generalty of theſe are very indolent, nor will they go to work but when neceſſity obliges them. The laborious part of their buſineſs is executed by their wives, ſuch as tilling the ground, as ſpinning of cotton, weaving of cloth, and other handicrafts. The principal artificers among them are ſmiths, carpenters, and leather-dreſſers.

The dreſs of the better ſort conſiſts of white callico or cotton cloth faſtened round the waiſt, and neatly plaited in the middle; but the lower and upper parts of the body are entirely naked. The dreſs of the meaner ſort is of the ſame form, and only differs in the quality of the ſtuff with which it is made.

The wives of the grandees wear callico paans, wove in this country, which are very fine, and beautifully variegated with different colours. Theſe are faſtened round the waiſt, and the upper part of the body is covered with a piece of cloth about a yard long, which ſerves inſtead of a veil. They wear necklaces of coral agreeably diſpoſed; and their arms, legs, wriſts and fingers, are ornamented with copper or iron rings.

The men let their hair grow its natural form, except buckling it in two or three places, in order to hang a coral to it, but the womens hair is artificially formed into large and ſmall buckles, and divided on the crown of the head, ſo that the latter is placed with great uniformity. Some of them oil their hair, by which means it loſes its black colour, and in time turns to a ſort of green yellow, which they are very fond of, but it is far from being agreeable to the eyes of a ſtranger.

When a great man goes abroad he is attended by a number of ſervants, all of whom are armed, ſome with ſpears, others with long darts, and ſome with bows and arrows. He uſually rides on horſeback, and ſits on the beaſt ſideways, in the ſame manner as the women do in England. One of his attendants holds an umbrella over his head to ſhelter him from rain, or the violent heat of the ſun; and another goes before leading the horſe. They uſe neither ſaddle nor ſtirrups; and the only ſecurity of the rider conſiſts in his reſting the left hand on the ſhoulder of one of the attendants.

In moſt of the towns in this kingdom the buildings are very ſpacious and lofty, but they are indifferently conſtructed, ſome of them being ſquare, and others oblong. The doors are made high and narrow: the windows are few in number and ſmall. They are all made with a flat roof, on the top of which is a covering raiſed ſeveral feet, to keep off the heat of the ſun. Here they frequently regale themſelves, when they pay a viſit to each other.

The principal diet of the better ſort conſiſts of beef, mutton, or chickens. For bread they uſe yams, which, after being boiled, are beat fine, and made into cakes. Their common drink is water, with which they ſometimes mix brandy. The poorer ſort live on dried fiſh, yams, bartanas, and pulſe. Their drink is water, or a kind of beer ſomewhat reſembling that called pito on the Slave Coaſt.

Polygamy is alſo allowed here. Their marriage ceremonies conſiſt only in the conſent of the parents, a preſent to the bride, and an entertainment for the gueſts on both ſides. The men are exceeding jealous, for which reaſon the wives of the poorer people enjoy a pleaſure to which thoſe of the better ſort are entire ſtrangers; for while the former have their liberty, the wives of the great are cloſe confined, to obviate all opportunities of tranſgreſſion.

When a woman is delivered of a boy, it is preſented to the king as his property; for which reaſon all the males of this country are called the king's ſlaves; but the females are the property of the father, who has liberty to diſpoſe of them at his own diſcretion.

When a woman bears two children at a birth, immediate information is given to the king, who orders public rejoicings to be made on the occaſion. Such circumſtances are conſidered as happy omens in all the territories of Benin, except at a place called Arebo, where they are productive of the moſt horrid cruelties; for the people there generally ſacrifice both women and children to a certain demon, which they ſay inhabits a wood near the town. Sometimes, indeed, they will ſpare the wife by the huſband's offering a female ſlave in her ſtead; but the children are condemned without redemption. A French traveller ſays, that while he was at this town, he knew a merchants wife thus redeemed, but her children were deſtroyed, whoſe ſad fate ſhe often deplored with tears. The following year, ſays he, the like happened to the wife of a prieſt: ſhe was delivered of two children, whom, with a ſlave in his wife's ſtead, the father was, by virtue of his office, himſelf obliged to ſacrifice with his own hands. Of late years, thoſe that are unable to defray the expence, avoid the conſequences, by ſending their wives, when they approach near the time of their delivery, to a more humane part of the country.

They practiſe circumciſion on both ſexes, which is performed when the children are about a fortnight old: but for this cuſtom they give no reaſon, only ſaying that it was handed down to them by their anceſtors. They alſo make inciſions in different parts of their bodies in a ſort of regular order, leaving the marks of birds, beaſts, and other figures. The girls undergo the greateſt puniſhment in this particular, being much more marked than the boys; for as they are conſidered as the greateſt ornaments they can have, ſo their parents are very liberal in beſtowing them.

When a perſon falls ſick he immediately applies to the prieſt, who alſo acts in the capacity of phyſician, and furniſhes him with medicines; but if theſe prove ineffectual, he has recourſe to ſacrifices. If the patient recovers, the prieſt is rewarded for his aſſiſtance, but no further regard is paid to him; ſo that the prieſts here are generally poor, having little other dependence than what ariſes from their abilities as phyſicians; for each man offers his own ſacrifices to his idols, and think they ſufficiently

ſufficiently acquit themſelves of their religious duties without applying to the prieſt.

In caſes of death the corpſe is kept only one day before interment, except it happens at a diſtance from the general place of reſidence; then, in order to preſerve it for conveyance, it is dried over a gentle fire till all the moiſture is extracted; when it is put into a coffin, and publicly expoſed; after which it is carried on men's ſhoulders to the place of interment. When the funeral is over the neareſt relations go into mourning, and bewail their loſs by cries and lamentations. The ſhew of mourning conſiſts only in ſhaving their heads, ſome half way, and others all over; and the men ſhave off their beards.

At the funeral of a grandee many ſlaves are ſacrificed; but the greateſt number fall victims on the death of the king. The ceremonies attending a royal funeral in this country are very ſingular, and thus deſcribed by a writer, who was an eye-witneſs of them. "As ſoon (ſays he) as the king of Benin expires, they dig a large pit in the ground at the palace, which is ſo deep that the workmen are ſometimes in danger of being drowned by the quantity of water that ſprings from the earth. This pit they make wide at the bottom, and very narrow at the top. They firſt let down the royal corpſe into it, and then ſuch of his domeſtics, of both ſexes, as are ſelected for that honour, for which there is great intereſt made. Theſe being let down into the pit, they ſhut up the mouth with a large ſtone, in the preſence of a crowd of people who wait day and night. The next morning they remove the ſtone, and ſome proper officers aſk the perſons encloſed, if they have found the king? If they anſwer, the pit is ſhut up again, and the following day opened with the like ceremony, which continues till the perſons are dead, and no anſwer returned. After this the chief miniſters inform the ſucceſſor, who immediately repairs to the pit, and cauſing the ſtone to be removed, orders all ſorts of proviſions to be laid on it for the entertainment of the populace. After they have regaled themſelves, they run about the city in the night, committing the greateſt outrages, and killing all the men, women, and children. They chop off their heads, and leave them in the ſtreets, but they bring their bodies and throw them into the pit, with their garments, houſehold goods, &c. as preſents to the deceaſed king." This ſtrange cuſtom is ſtill preſerved in the ſtricteſt manner; and thoſe who are allotted to fall victims on the occaſion are ſo far from lamenting their fate, that they think it is the higheſt mark of honour that can be conferred on them.

The religion profeſſed by theſe people is ſtrangly abſurd and perplexed. They worſhip various kinds of idols, ſome of which are made of elephants teeth, claws, dead men's heads, ſkeletons, &c. Each is his own prieſt, and addreſſes himſelf to ſuch of his idols as he likes beſt.

They believe that the apparitions of their anceſtors appear to them, but it is only when they are aſleep. They call the ſhadow of a man paſſadoor or conductor, which they believe really to exiſt, and that it will ſome time or other give teſtimony whether they have lived well or ill. If the former, they are to be raiſed to great dignity; but if the latter, they are to periſh with hunger and poverty.

They make daily offerings to their idols, which conſiſt only of a few yams mixed with oil. Sometimes they offer a fowl, but they only ſprinkle the blood of it on the idol, for the fleſh they convert to their own uſe. The great men make annual ſacrifices, which are very expenſive, and celebrated with great pomp. They kill multitudes of cows, ſheep, and other kinds of cattle; and they provide an elegant entertainment for their friends, that laſts ſeveral days; beſides which they give handſome preſents to the poor.

The people of Benin divide time into years, months, weeks, and days, each of which are diſtinguiſhed by a particular name; but in their diviſion they make fourteen months to the year. They keep their ſabbath every fifth day, which is ſolemnly obſerved, particularly by the better ſort, who, on the occaſion, ſacrifice cows, ſheep, and goats; while the poorer ſort kill dogs, cats, chickens, or whatever they are able to purchaſe. Thoſe who are ſo diſtreſſed as not to be able to obtain any of theſe, are aſſiſted by the others, in order that the feſtival may be univerſally kept.

They have two annual feſtivals. The firſt of theſe is in commemoration of their anceſtors, when they not only ſacrifice a great number of beaſts, but alſo human beings; but the latter are generally malefactors ſentenced to death, and reſerved for theſe ſolemnities. If it happens that there are not ſo many criminals as are requiſite on theſe occaſions, (the number of which is 25,) the king orders his officers to parade the ſtreets and ſeize indifferently ſuch perſons as they meet not carrying lights. If the perſons ſo ſeized are wealthy, they are permitted to purchaſe their redemption; but if poor, they are ſacrificed on the day appointed. The ſlaves of great men ſo ſeized may be alſo ranſomed, on condition that the maſters find others to ſupply their place.

Their ſecond annual feſtival, and which is by far the moſt conſiderable, is called the Coral Feaſt. It is celebrated in the month of May; and on the day it is held the king appears in public. As the ceremonies attending this feſtival are rather ſingular, we ſhall give the following deſcription of them, as related by a perſon who was preſent, and ſaw the whole. This perſon ſays, that on the day appointed, the king came magnificently dreſſed into the ſecond court of the palace, where, under a rich canopy, a ſeat was placed for him; as alſo others for his wives, and a great number of his principal officers. Soon after the king was ſeated the proceſſion began, which being ended, the king removed from his throne, in order to ſacrifice to the gods in the open air, and thereby began the feaſt. This action was accompanied with the univerſal and loud acclamations of the people. After paſſing a quarter of an hour in this manner, he returned to the former place, where he ſat two hours, in order to give the remainder of the people time to perform their devotions. This done, he returned into the palace. The reſt of the day was ſpent in ſplendid treating and feaſting, the king cauſing all kinds of proviſions to be liberally diſtributed to the populace; and the grandees followed his example; ſo that nothing but joy was to be ſeen throughout the city. The reaſon why this is called the Coral Feaſt is, becauſe at this time the king beſtows the ſtrings of coral on thoſe whom he advances to any preferment, or poſt of honour, which he never does but on this feſtival, unleſs a particular urgency of ſtate requires it.

In this kingdom the will of the monarch is an abſolute law; but the chief direction of government is veſted in the three great lords. Their laws are, in general, very mild. When a perſon of property dies, the right of inheritance devolves to the eldeſt ſon; but he is obliged to preſent a ſlave to the king, and another to the three great lords, with a petition that he may ſucceed his father in the ſame quality, which the king accordingly grants, and he is declared the lawful heir of all the poſſeſſions left by his father. He is not compelled to make any allowance to his younger brother, that being wholly left to his own diſcretion; but if his mother be alive, he muſt allow her a maintenance ſuitable to her rank. He takes his father's other wives home, eſpecially thoſe that have not had children, and, if he thinks proper, he uſes them as his own. Thoſe he diſapproves of are obliged to work for a maintenance under his inſpection, but he never cohabits with them. If the deceaſed leaves no children, the brother inherits the effects; and in caſe of deficiency of ſuch heir, the next a-kin; but if no lawful heir appears, the whole becomes the property of the king.

Criminals are puniſhed here in proportion to the nature of the offence. Doing any injury to an European is conſidered as a capital crime, and the puniſhment for ſuch offence is thus executed; they take the offender,

offender, tie his hands behind his back, and blindfold him. After this the judge raiſes him up, ſo that his head hangs towards the ground, which the executioner cuts off with a hatchet; and ſeparating the body into four quarters, leaves it to be devoured by the wild beaſts.

If a perſon is found guilty of theft he is obliged to reſtore the goods and pay a fine; but if he is unable to do the latter he ſuffers corporally. If the robbery is committed on a grandee the puniſhment is death.

In caſes of murder the criminal is puniſhed with death, except the offence be committed by the king's ſon, or a grandee; in which caſe the offender is baniſhed to the moſt diſtant part of the kingdom, and never permitted to return.

If a perſon kills another by accident he may purchaſe his life, by firſt burying the deceaſed, and afterwards producing a ſlave to ſuffer in his ſtead. When this ſlave is ſacrificed the offender muſt bend his body, and touch the ſlave's knees with his forehead; after which he muſt pay a fine to the three great lords, when he obtains his freedom, and the relations of the deceaſed think a ſufficient atonement has been made for the offence.

There are various puniſhments for idultery in proportion to the circumſtances of the parties. If a common perſon ſurpriſes his wife in the fact he is entitled to all the effects of the perſon that has injured him; and the woman, after being ſeverely drubbed by her huſband, is totally diſcarded, being left to ſhift for herſelf the remainder of her life.

The better ſort, in theſe caſes, revenge themſelves much the ſame way; but the relations of the offending party, in order to avail themſelves of the ſcandal that might accure to their family, frequently bring about a reconciliation, by paying a large pecuniary compliment to the injured huſband, who, in this caſe, huſhes up the matter, and apparently ſeems to forget the once unſeaſonable liberality of his wife.

Other crimes are puniſhed by fine, which is proportioned to the nature of the offence; and if the culprit is not able to pay the fine levied, he is ſubject to corporal puniſhment.

The fines paid on theſe occaſions are thus diſpoſed of; the perſon injured is firſt ſatisfied, after which the governor has his ſhare, and the remainder of the fine goes to the three great lords.

Having thus taken a general view of this kingdom, with the nature of its inhabitants, their manners, cuſtoms, laws, religion, &c. we ſhall now point out thoſe places in it that are moſt remarkable.

Deſcription of the Cities and Towns of Benin, *and the Maſſacre of the natives of* Meiberg.

THE chief city is Benin, the uſual reſidence of the king. It is large and pleaſantly ſituated on the banks of the river, about forty miles from its mouth. It contains a great number of ſtreets, moſt of which are very ſpacious, and the houſes uniformly built. The principal ſtreet is exceeding broad, and at leaſt three miles in length: it is interſected by many croſs ſtreets and lanes, all of which are ſtrait and of conſiderable extent; and the whole city is at leaſt nine miles in circumference. The houſes of the grandees are much higher than thoſe of the commonalty, and are aſcended by ſteps. At the entrance of each is a veſtibule, or porch, which is every morning cleaned by the ſlaves, and ſpread with mats of ſtraw. The inner chamber is ſquare, with an opening in the center for the admiſſion of light; and in theſe apartments they both ſleep and eat, though they dreſs their victuals in other places ſeparate, having many offices under the ſame roof.

The king's palace is very extenſive, ſuperb and magnificent. It conſiſts of ſeveral large ſquares ſurrounded with galleries, each of which has a portico, or gate, guarded by ſoldiers.

The inhabitants of Benin are all natives, no foreigner being permitted to reſide in it. Some of them are very wealthy, and ſpend their whole time at court, leaving trade and agriculture to be executed by their wives and ſervants. Theſe go to the adjacent villages, and either trade in merchandize, or ſerve for daily wages, and they are obliged to bring the greateſt part of what they get to their maſters, otherwiſe they would be ſold for ſlaves.

A market is every day kept in the principal part of the city for the ſale of proviſions and merchandize. The former conſiſts of dogs, of which they are very fond, roaſted baboons and monkies, bats and large rats, parrots, hens, lizards dried in the ſun, fruits and palm wine. Their merchandize conſiſts of cotton, elephants teeth, wooden platters, cups, and other houſhold ſtuff; cotton cloth, iron inſtruments for fiſhing and tilling the ground, lances, darts and other weapons. A place is allotted for each kind of merchandize, and they are all diſpoſed with great uniformity.

The preſent reduced ſtate of the inhabitants of Benin aroſe from an irruption in conſequence of the death of one of the royal chiefs, who fell a ſacrifice to the avarice of a former reigning monarch. His death was revenged by a very powerful party, who foiled the king's army in two onſets, and afterwards ſettled with the chief that headed them at the place about three days journey from the capital, ſo that the number of inhabitants was of courſe conſiderably leſſened.

The other towns in this kingdom are chiefly remarkable for trade, and are moſt of them ſituated on the river Benin. The firſt of theſe is called Awerri, or Onwerre, and belongs to a king, who is the only one that is independent of the king of Benin. The town ſtands about ſix miles from the mouth of the river, and here the Portugueſe have a church and factory.

There is a trading village called Boedodoe, which contains about fifty houſes, built with reeds and mud, and covered with leaves of trees. It is governed by a viceroy and ſome grandees, whoſe authority extends only to trifling matters, as civil cauſes, and raiſing taxes for the king; but if any thing conſiderable happens, they muſt ſtate the matter to the court, and wait their determination.

Ogattou was once a coſiderable place, but it ſuffered ſo much in the wars, that it was almoſt laid waſte: however, from its delightful ſituation the buildings of late years have conſiderably increaſed, and it ſeems as if time would reſtore it to its original importance.

Arebo, the center of commerce, is ſituated about 50 miles from the mouth of the river Benin. The Dutch and Engliſh had both factories here; but the latter having neglected their trade, the lodge fell down, and has never ſince been rebuilt; ſo that the former is the only European ſettlement in this part of the country.

Meiberg is a ſmall but very neat place, and the houſes are built with great uniformity. The Dutch had once a factory here, and were greatly reſpected by the natives; but during their ſtay a melancholy circumſtance happened, occaſioned by the indiſcretion of the principal factor, that entirely overthrew them, the particulars of which are thus deſcribed by a late author: "N. Beeldſnyder, their laſt factor, having a violent paſſion for one of the negro-governor's wives, ravithed her, which ſo enraged the injured huſband, that he came with a body of armed men, and reſolved to kill the adulterer, who narrowly eſcaped on board a ſhip; but in the flight was ſo wounded that he died. The Dutch company's director-general on the coaſt, not being rightly informed of the caſe, ſent a veſſel from El Mina, well manned, to Benin, with ſtrict orders to revenge the murder. Theſe ſoldiers ſo ſtretched their commiſſion, that they killed, or took priſoners, every perſon in the town who could not eſcape. The king being informed of this, and the occaſion of the maſſacre, commanded the Negro-governor to be brought before him; and though he had done nothing but what ſeemed right, in defending the honour of his family,

yet the king cauſed him and his whole race to be put to death in the moſt cruel manner. The dead bodies of theſe miſerable wretches were expoſed to be devoured by the beaſts, and their houſes were razed to the ground, with ſtrict orders that they ſhould never be rebuilt." The Dutch, however, from theſe circumſtances made no farther attempt, and there has not been any European factory in this town ever ſince. It is remarkable that all the male ſlaves of this country are foreigners; for the natives cannot be ſold for ſlaves, but are all free; though they bear the name of the king's ſlaves. A Dutch navigator aſſerts, that it is not allowed to export any male ſlaves ſold in this country, but they may do what they will with the females.

Beſides the river Benin, there are ſeveral other conſiderable ones in this kingdom, particularly the river Rio del Rey, which is very ſpacious and extenſive. On its banks are a great number of villages, inhabited by people divided into two nations, one of which dwell along the upper part of the river, and the other towards the mouth; but they are always at enmity with each other. They are a ſtrong, robuſt people; but poor, diſhoneſt, and treacherous; and are very filthy both in their houſes and perſons. They go quite naked, ſmearing their bodies with oil, intermixed with a red. They plait their hair in various forms, file their teeth, and ornament their foreheads with ſtrange marks, made with hot irons or pincers. In ſhort, they are mere ſavages, and their only employment is fiſhing, they being total ſtrangers either to mechanical arts or agriculture.

The Rio Kamarones is another large river, whoſe inhabitants are governed by a chief of their own, called Moneba. The people here carry on a conſiderable trade with the Europeans, having plenty of elephants teeth and ſlaves, which they ſell at very reaſonable rates. The goods which they take in exchange from the Europeans conſiſt chiefly of iron and copper bars, braſs pots and kettles, bugles or beads, ox horns, and ſteel files. The natives here are very luſty, tall, well-ſhaped, and have a remarkable ſmooth ſkin.

The River Rio Gabon is ſituated about fifteen leagues from Cape de Lopo Gonſalvo, or the utmoſt point of the Gulph of Benin. It is a very large river, and the mouth of it is at leaſt ſix miles acroſs. About nine miles up the river are two iſlands, one of which takes its name from the king, and the other from the prince of this river, two great lords of Benin. But theſe iſlands have now but few inhabitants. The river is navigable for ſmall ſhips ſeveral leagues up. There are many villages on its banks; and the trade carried on here conſiſts in elephants teeth, wax, and honey.

The inhabitants are very large, robuſt, and well-ſhaped; but in their diſpoſitions fierce and cruel. The men are great thieves, and the women very abandoned.

The Negroes here are perfect ſtrangers to agriculture, and live chiefly by hunting and fiſhing. The river abounds with fiſh, beſides which there are great numbers of crocodiles and ſea-horſes; and on the banks of it are prodigious numbers of wild beaſts, eſpecially elephants, buffalos, and wild boars.

About 18 leagues from the river Gabon is Cape Lopo Gonſalvo, which is the extreme limits of the Gulph of Guinea. It appears like a low flat iſland, but it is a long, narrow peninſula, ſtretching from the continent ſeveral leagues to ſea. It has a good harbour either for anchoring or careening ſhips, eſpecially for thoſe homeward bound, proviſions being not only plentiful, but alſo very cheap. On the ſhore are ſeveral huts, where the natives occaſionally reſide, as the European veſſels ſtop for the above purpoſes; but the town they belong to is called Olibato, and is ſituated about ſix miles from the Cape. It is the reſidence of a chief, and the town contains about 300 houſes, which are made with bull-ruſhes interwoven, and covered with palm-leaves. The natives are much more civilized than thoſe of Rio Gabon, but they differ little in their dreſs, manners, and cuſtoms. The country abounds with wild beaſts, as elephants, buffalos, wild boars, apes, monkies, and other miſchievous animals.

All veſſels, as ſoon as they arrive at the Cape, fire off four guns, to alarm the country, and give notice of their arrival, when the people immediately repair from Olibato, and other inland places, to the Cape, and carry with them ſuch articles as they have to diſpoſe of, the principal of which are water, wood for fuel, and proviſions. They always keep a ſtock of wood by them, that they may be ready to ſupply ſuch veſſels as ſtop at the Cape: they cut it in billets about two feet long, a boat load of which they generally ſell for a bar of iron. They get their water out of a large pond near the Cape: it keeps good at ſea, and is allowed by moſt ſailors to be exceeding wholeſome.

The other goods purchaſed here by the Europeans, conſiſt of elephants teeth, wax, honey, and cam-wood: and the articles ſold to the natives are knives, iron bars, beads, old ſheets, axes, braſs baſons, fire-locks, powder, ball, and ſhot.

CHAP. XIII.

NIGRITIA, ETHIOPIA, OR NEGROLAND.

SECTION I.

Name. Boundaries. Extent. Commerce.

THE ancients called the natives of this country Ethiopians, Nigrites, and Melanes, that is, Negroes or Blacks, either from the river Niger, or the natural complexion of the people. Negroland is bounded on the north by the deſert Zahara, on the ſouth by Guinea and Benin, on the eaſt by Abyſſinia and Nubia, and on the weſt by the Atlantic Ocean. It lies between 10 and 20 degrees north latitude, is computed at 2200 miles in length, and 840 in breadth, and contains many provinces, and ſome European forts, which, differing in ſeveral reſpects, we ſhall, therefore, treat of them diſtinctly, in order to point out particulars.

The river Gambia is divided by many iſlands and ſand-banks, and its broadeſt channel does not exceed three leagues. At Baraconda, which is 500 miles from its mouth, it is navigable for veſſels of 150 tons burthen. The ſeaſon for making the voyage to this part is from December till June, when the river flows in a ſmooth, equal, and not very rapid ſtream; but during the reſt of the year the paſſage up it is difficult, on account of the extraordinary ſwells occaſioned by the rains, which fall in theſe countries with great violence.

The chief articles of commerce on the river Gambia, are gold, elephants teeth, bees-wax, and ſlaves; the latter of whom are either priſoners taken in war, or perſons ſtolen or condemned for crimes. The gold is of an excellent quality. The ivory, or elephants teeth, called by the natives morphel, is either found in the woods, or got by hunting and killing the beaſts; and the larger the teeth the more valuable the ivory. Some of them are quite white, others yellow; but the difference of colour neither adds to or diminiſhes the value. Bees-wax is ſold in great quantities about the river, and is made in cakes from 20 to 120 lb. weight. Gum-dragon is alſo brought from this country: it comes from a tree called pau de ſangue, or blood wood, from whence (an

incision being made in the tree) it oozes out drop after drop, till several lumps are formed, which are afterwards dried in the sun.

There are many kingdoms and petty states between the rivers Sierra Leona and Senegal, concerning which very little is known; but as better accounts are to be obtained of several provinces on the banks of the Gambia, we shall present them in the following order.

SECTION II.

Persons, Dispositions, Customs, Manners, &c. of the People of Mundingo. Description of the Palm Trees, Buildings, Furniture, Food, Dress, Marriages, divers Ceremonies, &c.

MUNDINGO is the largest and most populous place on the banks of the river Gambia. The Portuguese having settled in it ever since their conquest of it in the fourteenth century, and their descendants intermixing with the natives, there is little difference between them either as to their colour or shape; but as they still retain a corruption of the Portuguese language, and as they christen and marry by the help of a priest sent annually from St. Jago, one of the Cape de Verd Islands, they consider themselves as different from the Mundingoes as if they were really natives of Portugal; and the calling them Negroes is the greatest affront that can be offered, it being a term they only use for slaves.

This kingdom is of considerable extent The natives are quite black, and have very disagreeable features, their lips being exceeding thick, and their noses remarkably broad and flat. In their dispositions they are rational and humane, and particularly civil to strangers. They are, in general, very brisk and lively; but if affronted, impetuous and revengeful.

The better sort take a pride in keeping a prodigious number of slaves; but they treat them in a very humane manner. The females, in particular, are ornamented with necklaces, bracelets, and ear-rings, made of coral, amber, and silver, to a considerable value. Several of the natives have many slaves born in their families; and though in some parts of Africa these are sold, yet in Mundingo it would be thought not only indiscreet, but criminal: nor is ever any family slave sold, except for such crimes as would have authorised its being done had he been free. Indeed, if there are many slaves in the family, and one of them commits a crime, the master cannot sell him without the joint consent of the rest; for if he does they will desert him, and seek protection in another kingdom.

They have a kind of drum here of a very large size, called a tang-tong, which they only beat on the approach of an enemy, or on some very extraordinary occasion, to call the inhabitants of the neighbouring towns to their assistance; and when this is beat in the night time, it may be heard at the distance of six or seven miles.

Europeans, when ill treated by the natives, apply to the alcaid, or head man of the town, who is appointed to do justice on such occasions. He is called the white man's king, and has otherwise great power. He also decides all quarrels, and has the first voice in all conferences relative to public transactions.

The palm tree, which is remarkable, is very straight and smooth, and some of them grow to the height of 100 feet. From the trunk of the tree the natives extract a liquor called palm wine, which, in colour, greatly resembles whey. To effect this they make an incision at the top of the tree, to which they apply gourd bottles, and into these the liquor is conveyed by means of a pipe made of leaves. The wine is very sweet in its taste, and, if drank as soon as drawn, very purgative; but if kept two or three days, it ferments, grows strong, and becomes not only palatable, but also very wholesome.

The natives climb these trees with surprising agility, the manner of doing which is thus: they take a piece of the bark of a tree formed in the shape of a hoop, with which they enclose themselves and the tree, the hoop being afterwards secured: they then fix the hoop under their hams, and resting their backs against it, and their feet against the tree, climb up with surprising expedition. Sometimes, indeed, they meet with a fatal accident, which either arises from their missing their step, or the bark on which they rest not being properly secured.

The habitations of the common people are very low and mean. Their furniture consists only of a few common necessaries, such as earthen vessels for their food, wooden bowls, plates, dishes, &c. but they have neither chairs, tables, or beds, a mat supplying the place of all three; for on that they sit, eat, and sleep. Among the better sort, indeed, the master of the house is distinguished by having a bed, which consists of a kind of hurdle laid upon pieces of wood, and elevated about two feet from the floor.

Rice, pulse, and Indian corn are their principal food, which they mix with boiling water, or broth made from the flesh of crocodiles: they like the latter the best, and are not only fond of the flesh of the crocodiles, but also their eggs. Their common drink is water, but they sometimes use palm wine and mead; and, if they can meet with it, will not refuse rum and brandy. They sit at their meals, and take up the victuals with the fingers of their right hand only, considering it indecent to touch either their food or lips with the left.

The dress of the women consists of a piece of cotton tied round the waist, from whence it reaches to the knees. The upper part of the body is naked.

They enter into the marriage state at an early period. Some of them are even contracted as soon as born, and the parents can never after break off the engagement. The men, however, can refuse accepting them when at a proper age; neither dare the girl marry any other without his consent. Before a man takes his wife, he is obliged to make a present to her parents of 200 cola (a fruit that grows in the inland part of the country, and somewhat resembles a horse chesnut) two iron bars, and two cows.

The women pay such distinguished respect to their husbands, that if business calls them a day or two from home, when they return, their wives salute them on their knees; and they shew their humility by always placing themselves in that posture when they give them drink, either at their meals, or at any other time.

A new born child is dipped in cold water several times in the day, at each of which, after having dried up the water with a cloth, they rub it over with palm oil, particularly the back bone, small of the back, elbows, neck, knees, and hips. When born, they are of an olive complexion, and sometimes do not become black till they are two months old. They are not born with flat noses; but as that shape is greatly admired, their mothers or nurses, whenever they wash them, press down the upper part of their nose with their fingers, and, from its natural tenderness at that time, the compressure has the wished-for effect.

They give them a name about a month after they are born; and the only ceremony attending this is, shaving the head, and rubbing it well over with palm oil.

In case of death, the friends and acquaintance of the deceased cry over him for two days; and such of his relations as are not on the spot, when they hear of it, though at a considerable distance, will testify the same kind of lamentation as if they were really present with the deceased. Previous to interment, the body is wrapped in white cotton cloth, and borne on a bier preceded by Negroes, carrying divers instruments, on which they strike to produce doleful sounds, and are followed by mourners uttering hideous cries and lamentations. The grave is generally made near the sepulchres of their ancestors in some desolate spot, where the corpse is deposited about three feet in the ground, at which time

time the whole aſſembly bow, and give one general ſhriek. They generally throw into the grave the principal furniture and utenſils of which the deceaſed was poſſeſſed. They lay ſticks acroſs the grave even with the ſurface of the earth, on which they place ſtraw, or the leaves of trees, ſo thick as to prevent the mould from getting into the grave; and on the top of theſe they lay the earth, which they trample hard down with their feet. They commonly erect a hut over the grave, to ſecure it from rain, and preſerve the memory of the deceaſed.

The huſbands, to render their power as complete as poſſible, compel their wives to obedience by all the force of fear and terror. For this purpoſe they have a figure about eight feet high, made of the bark of trees, and dreſſed in a long coat, with a whiſp of ſtraw on the head, and made in the form of a cap. It is called a Mumbo Jumbo, and when any controverſy ariſes between a man and his wife, this ſtrange figure is ſent for to determine the diſpute, which generally terminates in favour of the man.

The Mundingoes have a language peculiar to themſelves, which is more generally ſpoken on both ſides the river than any other. A perſon who is well acquainted with this language may travel from the mouth of the river quite to the country of the Joncoes, or Merchants, ſo called from their buying yearly a vaſt number of ſlaves, and bringing them to the lower parts of the river for ſale. They have alſo a corrupt kind of Portugueſe, which is generally uſed by the natives when they trade with the Europeans.

Their prieſts are highly reverenced, inſomuch that if perſons of the firſt diſtinction happen to meet with one of them, they immediately form a circle round him, and, falling on their knees, ſolicit his benediction.

There are a ſort of people called Floops, on the borders of the kingdom of Mundingo, who are in a manner wild, and inveterate enemies to their neighbours. Their country is of conſiderable extent, but they have not any king, and are entirely independent of each other; notwithſtanding which they are ſo numerous that the Mundingoes, with all their force, cannot conquer them. Their towns are ſurrounded by a kind of fortification made of ſticks drove in the ground cloſe together, and covered with clay. They have the character of being very grateful when they receive any favour; but if any injury is offered them, they will never forgive, or ſuffer it to paſs unrevenged.

SECTION III.

The Gum Deſart, with a Deſcription of the Natives of the Kingdoms of the Jolloiffs and Pholeys.

THIS part of Negroland, where the trade is carried on with the Moors, is remarkable for producing great quantities of gum, and it is diſtinguiſhed by the name of the Deſart, from the ſmall number of its inhabitants.

To the eaſt of this deſart is a place called Engerbel, where the king of the Jolloiffs has his palace, which conſiſts only of a large number of huts, built much like thoſe of the other Negroes, but only more ſpacious.

The whole country, from the northern bank of the river Gambia to the lake Cajor, is called in general the kingdoms of the Jolloiffs, though divided among ſeveral petty princes. Its extent, from north to ſouth, is about 300 miles, and from the ſea-coaſt eaſtward it is near 400 miles.

The Jolloiffs, or people who inhabit this country, are blacker than the Mundingoes, and better featured, their noſes not being ſo broad, nor their lips ſo thick.

The men, though naturally courageous, are good-natured, modeſt, and hoſpitable, more particularly to ſtrangers.

The manners, cuſtoms, ceremonies, religion, &c. here, are much the ſame as in the kingdom of Mundingo.

Adjoining to the kingdom of the Jolloiffs lies that of the Pholeys, or Foulies. It extends along the river Gambia, from eaſt to weſt, near 600 miles.

The Pholeys are not ſo black as the Jolloiffs, but rather of a tawney complexion, and greatly reſemble the Arabs, whoſe language they generally ſpeak, though they have one peculiar to themſelves. They live in herds or clans, and form their buildings on ſuch a conſtruction, that they are eaſily removed from one place to another. Their country is very fertile, and produces plentiful crops of large and ſmall millet, cotton, tobacco, peas, rice, and other pulſe. Their goats and ſheep are exceeding fine, and their oxen ſo large, that the French buy up all their hides at a very great price. They are very fond of European merchandizes, and treat the traders that bring them with great civility. They uſe a great variety of muſical inſtruments, and are great lovers of dancing.

Near their houſes they plant tobacco and corn. The women that live among the Europeans make cakes of the flour, and convert it to ſuch other uſes as are generally practiſed in England.

The Pholeys are very temperate in their living, and remarkably induſtrious and frugal. As they raiſe much more corn and cotton than they conſume, they ſell it at a reaſonable rate to ſtrangers, to whom they are very civil and hoſpitable. They alſo ſupply the wants of their neighbours; and have even been known to diſtreſs themſelves in aſſiſting the Mundingoes, who, in ſome bad ſeaſons, would have otherwiſe been expoſed to the ravages of dreadful famines.

Though remarkable for the mildneſs of their temper, they are far from being deficient in courage. Their arms conſiſt of the lance, bows and arrows, ſhort cutlaſſes, and muſkets, all which they uſe with great alertneſs.

They frequently remove their towns from one place to another, but commonly chooſe a ſpot near the Mundingoes, who think themſelves happy in having ſuch uſeful neighbours; and, indeed, there is hardly any Mundingo town of note up the river, that has not a Pholey town or plantation near it.

They are very expert in the management of cattle, and are excellent huntſmen. They not only kill lions, tigers, and other wild beaſts, but alſo go in companies together to hunt elephants, whoſe teeth they ſell, and the fleſh they dry in the ſame manner as bacon is cured in England.

Many of them ſpeak the Arabic language, and they are, in general, of the Mahometan religion.

The king of the Pholeys is very powerful, and not only receives homage from the king of the Jolloiffs, but all the great men of that kingdom are his vaſſals.

There are ſeveral towns and villages in the kingdom of Pholey, in which a trade is carried on for divers commodities common to the country.

It may not be improper, before we quit this ſection, to inſert a remarkable ſtory of one Job Ben Solomon, of the race of the Pholeys, and ſon to the high prieſt of Bundo, in Forta, who was ſold as a ſlave, came to England, and received diſtinguiſhed honours from the royal family and nobility; the circumſtances attending which we ſhall take from Mr. Moore, who particularly deſcribes them, and whoſe relation muſt be the moſt genuine, as he was in company with him after his return to his own country.

Some years ago, as this perſon was travelling on the ſouth ſide of the Gambia, with a ſervant, he was robbed and ſeized by order of the king of a country a little within the land, who ſold both him and his man for ſlaves to one captain Pyke, who ſailed with him to Maryland. The Pholeys, his humane countrymen, would have redeemed him, had he not been carried out of the river before they had notice of his being a ſlave. Job, on his arrival at Maryland, was ſold to a planter, who, finding he had very diſtinguiſhed abilities, treated him with great reſpect; and at the expiration of twelve months, Job had the good fortune to have a letter of

his

his own writing, in the Arabic tongue, conveyed to England. This letter coming to the hands of Mr. Oglethorpe, he ſent it to Oxford to be tranſlated, which being done, it gave him ſuch ſatisfaction, and inſpired him with ſo good an opinion of the author, that he immediately ſent orders to have him bought of his maſter. This happened a little before that gentleman's ſetting out for Georgia; and before his return from thence, Job arrived in England, where being brought to the acquaintance of Sir Hans Sloane, he was found to be a perfect maſter of the Arabic tongue, by his tranſlating ſeveral manuſcripts and inſcriptions on medals. Sir Hans Sloane recommended him to the Duke of Montague, who, being pleaſed with his genius and capacity, the agreableneſs of his behaviour, and the ſweetneſs of his temper, introduced him to court, where he was graciouſly received by the royal family, and moſt of the nobility, who honoured him with many marks of their favour.

After he had continued in England about fourteen months, he determined to return to his native country, from an earneſt deſire he had to ſee the high prieſt his father. On his leaving England he received many noble preſents from her Majeſty Queen Caroline, his Royal Highneſs the Duke of Cumberland, the Duke of Montague, the Earl of Pembroke, ſeveral ladies of quality, and the Royal African Company; the latter of whom ordered their agents to ſhew him the greateſt reſpect.

Soon after his arrival at James's Fort, Job expreſſed a deſire of going up to a town called Joar, to converſe with ſome of his countrymen, and accordingly went along with Mr. Moore. In the evening, as he was ſitting under a great tree at the creek of Damoſenſa, there came ſix or ſeven of the very people who had three years before made a ſlave of him at about thirty miles diſtance from that place. Such was his rage and indignation, that he was for attacking them with his broad-ſword; nor could Mr. Moore, without the greateſt difficulty, ſuppreſs his reſentment. Enquiring concerning the king their maſter, Job was informed that he was accidentally ſhot by the very piſtol which was amongſt the goods for which he ſold him to Captain Pyke. Tranſported with the information, he devoutly returned thanks to Mahomet for making his perſecutor die by the very articles for which he had ſold him to ſlavery. Turning to Mr. Moore, he made ſome pertinent remarks on the juſtice of the Divine Being in the inſtance before them, and very ingeniouſly obſerved, that he ought to forgive him, becauſe had he not been ſold, he never ſhould have ſeen England, known the language, or have been acquainted with his noble and liberal patrons. In every part of the country he highly applauded the Engliſh, and greatly poſſeſſed the Pholeys with an high opinion of them. When Mr. Moore embarked for England he gave him letters for his patrons, and, embracing him, moſt affectionately declared, that his days ſhould be ſpent in endeavouring to do good to the Engliſh, who had releaſed him from ſlavery, and conferred on him an immenſe obligation.

SECTION IV.

Settlements of the Europeans, and other Places, on the river Gambia.

THE Engliſh have ſeveral ſettlements on the banks of the river Gambia. The principal is that at James's Iſland. It has a fort, and ſloops and boats for the convenience of conveying proviſions, as well as articles of commerce. The Engliſh have alſo factories at Gilliſree, Vintain, Tancrowall, and Joar, but they are greatly inferior to that at James's Iſland. The chief articles of the commerce of theſe factories are ſlaves, ivory, hides, and wax.

There are many provinces which may be conſidered as petty royalties, being ſubject to their reſpective kings or chiefs. Theſe kings have their retinue, and other tokens of honour. They make war againſt each other, ranſack towns, take priſoners, and ſell them for ſuch commodities as beſt ſuit their inclinations.

Beſides the Engliſh, there are French and Portugueſe ſettlements on the river Gambia; and there are many other towns on that river which, from their inſignificance, it is needleſs to mention.

The natives of theſe parts much reſemble thoſe of Guinea in their perſons, dreſs, manners, and cuſtoms, but they have ſome peculiarities, and in particular the women, who tie handkerchiefs round their heads, leaving the crown bare. Thoſe who have not handkerchiefs ſupply their place by uſing a ſlip of blue or white cotton cloth.

SECTION V.

Deſcription of the river Senegal, and the places ſituated on its banks; with the Perſons, Manners and Cuſtoms of the Natives.

GEOGRAPHERS divide the river Niger into three branches, under the diſtinct names of the Gambia, the Senegal, and the Sierra Leona, which are each of them conſidered as rivers of great extent.

The banks of the Senegal are very fertile, and beautifully variegated. Near the river are lofty trees inhabited by various ſorts of birds, ſome of which are very ſmall, others large, and many of them exceeding handſome, and of the brighteſt colours. There are alſo great numbers of ſquirrels and monkies; and the more diſtant parts abound with lions and elephants, the latter of which have not that ferocity in them that is natural to thoſe in other countries, for they will not attempt to attack any one they meet unleſs firſt moleſted. Some parts of the low grounds abound with a ſort of thorny trees which run to a prodigious height, and bear large bunches of yellow flowers that have an odoriferous ſcent. The barks of theſe trees are of different colours, ſome being black, others white, green, or red; and whatever colour the bark is of, the timber is of the ſame, and from its ſubſtance appears to be a ſpecies of the ebony.

The principal kingdoms and places ſituated on the banks of the Senegal are the following: Guber or Gubur, Zanfara, Cano, Caſena, Zegzeg, Guangara, Bito, Temia, Dauma, Gamo, and Melli.

Some of theſe places are fertile, and yield plenty of grain; others are barren, and ſome are mountainous. The villagers are chiefly ſhepherds and herdſmen: in the towns are a few artificers, and ſome in the country places apply themſelves to agriculture. The complexion of the natives is jet black, and their diſpoſitions are naturally ſavage, as are conſequently their manners. There are, however, exceptions, as the inhabitants of ſome places are repreſented as treating ſtrangers with civility. It may be added, that though poverty is their general lot, valuable articles of commerce are found in ſome parts which neceſſarily redound to the emolument of the inhabitants. They have their petty kings, who aſſume all the parade of mock-royalty.

At Kachao is a Portugueſe colony of conſiderable extent and traffic. To defend the town from the attacks of the Papells, an idolatrous and barbarous people, the Portugueſe have erected a fort, on which they keep a conſtant watch through fear of a ſudden alarm. The inhabitants are in general mulattoes. The Portugueſe are jealous to an exceſſive degree. They have a church and convent, a government civil and military, and a garriſon compoſed of tranſports.

The natives of Kachao employ the principal part of their time in the cultivation of a plant called manioc, which is uſed inſtead of bread not only here but in ſeveral other parts of Africa. It is not fit for uſe till after it has undergone a tedious preparation. Its firſt ſkin muſt be ſcraped: it muſt be then waſhed, raſped and preſſed, to extract the aqueous parts that are ſlow poiſon,

poiſon, againſt which there is no remedy known. They then roaſt it, as that cauſes every noxious particle it might ſtill contain totally to evaporate. When there appears no more ſteam it is taken off the iron plate on which it was roaſted, and ſuffered to cool; for it is no leſs dangerous to eat it hot than raw.

The root of the manioc grated and reduced into little grains by roaſting, is called flour of manioc. The paſte of manioc is called caſſava, which is converted into a cake by roaſting without moving it. It would be dangerous to eat as much caſſava as flour of manioc, becauſe the former is leſs roaſted. Both of them keep a long time, and are very nouriſhing, but a little difficult of digeſtion. Though this food ſeems at firſt inſipid, there are many white people who prefer it to the beſt wheat.

The manioc plant is alſo cultivated and brought to no leſs perfection by the inhabitants of the iſland of Biſſao.

SECTION VI.

SIERRA LEONA.

Name. Soil. Climate. Productions in general. Perſons, Manners, and Cuſtoms of the Natives.

SIERRA Leona, according to ſome, is ſo called from the river of that name, which is ſuppoſed to have been derived from the noiſe of the ſea againſt its ſhores, reſembling the roaring of lions. Others ſay it was firſt called ſo by the Portugueſe, from the great number of lions that infeſt the neighbouring mountains. It alſo goes by the names of Tagrin and Mitomba, the latter of which it preſerves for about 80 miles above the mouth of the river. On the ſouth ſide of it is a town called Las Magoas, where none but the Portugueſe are permitted to reſide for trade; and the natives come down the river to barter with the French and Engliſh, when there are any of their ſhips in the bay.

Here are ſeveral ſmall iſlands, the principal of which are Taſſo and Benſe. Taſſo is a large flat iſland, near three leagues in circumference, where the company's ſlaves have a good plantation. The chief part of the iſland is covered with wood, among which are ſilk cotton trees of a prodigious ſize; and ſome parts of it produce good indigo.

The climate of this country is in general very unwholeſome, particularly in the mountainous parts, where, during four months in the year, it rains, thunders, and is ſo intolerably hot, that the people are obliged to keep cloſe in their huts; and the air is corrupted in ſuch a manner by the lightning, that all animal food is reduced in a few hours to a ſtate of putrefaction. The flat open country, however, is not ſo bad; for though in ſummer the heat is exceſſive in the former part of the day, yet it is very temperate in the afternoon, from the refreſhing breezes that generally blow from the ſouth-weſt.

The banks of the Sierra Leona are lined with mangrove trees, the leaves of which exactly reſemble thoſe of an European laurel. The whole country abounds in millet and rice, which is the principal food of the natives. It alſo produces great plenty of oranges, lemons, bananas, Indian figs, ananas, pompions, water melons, yams, potatoes, wild pears, white plumbs, and ſeveral ſorts of pulſe.

Here are the palm, the cocoa, and the cotton tree; and on the mountains are abundance of palm and laurel trees. Indeed, the whole abounds with trees of various ſorts ſo cloſe together, that it may be called one continued foreſt.

They have a great plenty of deer, hogs, goats, and fowls, which the natives ſell to the Europeans for a ſmall quantity of brandy, a liquor they prefer to all others.

In the mountains are great numbers of wild animals, as elephants, lions, tigers, wild boars, and roe-bucks; alſo apes of ſeveral ſorts, and ſerpents, the latter of which are ſo large that, it is ſaid, they will ſwallow a child whole. The apes, monkies, and baboons, are ſo numerous, that they make great deſtruction in the plantations.

In the woods are great numbers of birds of different ſizes and plumage, as pigeons, parrots, paroquets, and Guinea-hens, the latter of which are about the ſize of a pheaſant, and very beautiful; but it is difficult to catch them on account of the thickneſs of the trees. They have alſo ſeveral other ſorts of fowl, among which are white pelicans as large as ſwans, herns, curlews, boobies, and a bird called ox-eyes.

The bay and entrance of the river abound with a great variety of fiſh, as raies, thornbacks, and a fiſh called the old-wife. There are alſo gar-fiſhes, cavelloes, ſharks, ſword-fiſhes, dog-fiſhes, and one called the ſhoe-maker, having on each ſide the mouth pendants like barbel, and the noiſe they make is ſomething like that of a hog's grunting. Among the fiſh, however, caught here, the moſt common are old wives, pilchards, the becune, the monk or angel-fiſh, and the mullet.

The fiſh called the old-wife is ſhaped much like a tench, is about nine inches in length, and has large ſcales. It is mottled with red, yelloviſh and brown lines placed alternately, and running from the head to the tail, being five or ſix in number. The ſnout is oblong, and turns upwards; and the lips are thick, fleſhy, and project from the jaws, but the mouth is ſmall. The teeth are ſerated, but not very ſharp; and the fins are mottled with red, blue, and yellow. The tail, when expanded, is roundiſh; and the fiſh taken altogether is exceeding beautiful.

The pilchard is much like a herring, but not ſo large, and the body is broader. It has not any teeth, either in the jaws, the tongue, or the palate. The fleſh is firmer, and by ſome preferred to that of a herring. They are fiſh of paſſage, and, like the herring, ſwim in conſiderable ſhoals.

The becune greatly reſembles a pike, but only larger, ſome of them being frequently caught upwards of eight feet in length. It is a greedy fiſh, and dangerous to be met with in the water, becauſe it can bite much eaſier than the ſhark; and ſo fearleſs, that it will not be driven away by any noiſe that can be made. The fleſh has the ſame taſte as a freſh-water pike, but there is often great danger in eating it; for unleſs the teeth are white and the liver ſweet, it is poiſonous.

The monk, or angel-fiſh, is between a ſhark and a ſkate, and grows to a large ſize, often weighing upwards of 160 pounds. The colour on the back and ſides is of a duſky aſh, and the belly is white. The mouth is broad, and placed at the end of the head, in which it differs from other flat griſtly fiſh. The head is roundiſh at the extremity; and there are three rows of teeth in each jaw, each row conſiſting of 18, ſo that there are 108 teeth in all. The tongue is broad, and ſharp at the end; and the noſtrils are wide, being placed on the upper lip, and filled with a ſort of ſlime. The eyes are of a middle ſize, placed not far from the mouth, and do not look directly up, but ſideways. Inſtead of gills it has holes like the thornback. Near the head are two fins that look much like wings, for which reaſon it is called the angel fiſh. On the extremities of theſe fins, near the corners, there are ſhort, ſharp, and crooked prickles; as there are alſo on the lowermoſt fins, which are placed near the vent. Below the vent are alſo two fins; and the tail is forked. The fleſh is ſo rank, and of ſo diſagreeable a taſte, that it is little uſed; and the chief value of the fiſh conſiſts in its ſkin, which is uſed in making caſes for inſtruments.

The mullet greatly reſembles a dace; the head is almoſt ſquare, and flat at the top, the noſe ſharp, and the lips thick. It has large ſcales, not only on the body, but alſo on the head, and the covers of the gills. The back is of a blueiſh colour, and the belly white. The lateral lines are variegated alternately with black and white. The eyes have no other ſkin than their own

coats, and the forward fin is radicated with five long ſpines. It has not any teeth, but the tongue is roughiſh, and there are two rough bones on each ſide of the palate. It has alſo a bone beſet with prickles at each corner of the mouth, and, when at its full growth, is about 18 inches long. Theſe fiſh generally go in great ſhoals, and are ſo ſagacious, that when ſurrounded with a net, the whole ſhoal will frequently eſcape by leaping over it; for when one takes the lead, the reſt will immediately follow. Oppian, in his natural hiſtory, takes notice of this circumſtance, and his obſervations on it are thus tranſlated:

The mullet, when encircling ſeines encloſe,
The fatal threads and treach'rous boſom knows,
Inſtant he rallies all his vig'rous pow'rs,
And faithful aid of ev'ry nerve implores;
O'er battlements of cork updarting flies,
And find from air th' eſcape that ſea denies.
But ſhould the firſt attempt his hopes deceive,
And fatal ſpace th' impriſon'd fall receive,
Exhauſted ſtrength no ſecond leap ſupplies;
Self-doom'd to death the proſtrate victim lies
Reſign'd, with painful expectation waits,
Till thinner elements complete his fates.

The mullet was in great eſtimation among the Romans, and bore an exceeding high price. The money given for one in the days of Juvenal is a ſtriking inſtance of the luxury and extravagance of that age. It is mentioned by that author in his 4th ſatire, and is thus tranſlated by Mr. Dryden:

——————— "The laviſh ſlave
"Six thouſand pieces for a mullet gave,
"A ſeſterce for each pound."

And Pliny, who alſo lived in the days of Juvenal, mentions one Aſinius Celer, a man of conſular dignity, who was infinitely more laviſh than the epicure mentioned by Juvenal; for he gave 8000 mummi, or 64l. 11s. 6d. for a fiſh of ſo ſmall a ſize as a mullet.

Such, indeed, was the luxury of the times, that there were ſtew-pans in the eating-rooms, ſo that the fiſh could at once be brought from under the table and placed upon it. They even put the mullets in tranſparent vaſes, that they might be entertained with the various changes of its colour while it lay expiring.

The great plenty of fiſh found in the bay and river of Sierra Leona are of infinite ſervice to the European ſailors, not only for proviſions, but alſo for traffick; for the natives are ſo indolent, that they will not be at the trouble to catch them, but content themſelves with ſuch as are left by the ebb tides among the rocks.

On the ſides of the bay are great plenty of oyſters, ſome of which are of ſuch a ſize, that one of them would ſerve a moderate man for a meal; but they are ſo tough as to be ſcarce eatable, unleſs firſt boiled, and then fried in ſmall pieces.

The trees that grow on the ſides of the bay make excellent haunts for crocodiles; as alſo for the manatea, or ſea-cow, which are here in great abundance.

The manatea, or ſea-cow, is ſuppoſed by ſome to be an amphibious creature, but this opinion has been ſufficiently controverted; for it is always found in large rivers or bays, and feeds upon ſea-weeds that grow near the ſhore. The ſkin is thick, rough, bare, and ſcarcely penetrable. The body is long, and the head very ſmall in proportion. Theſe animals have no teeth, but inſtead thereof two ſtrong white ſtones, that run the whole length of both jaws. The noſtrils reſemble thoſe of an horſe. The eyes are fixed in the center of the head. The breaſts are placed between the arms, one under each, are of a convex form, and about a foot and a half in diameter. They are hard, rough, and wrinkled; and when they give ſuck, the teats are four inches long.

Theſe animals keep together in large companies, and are very careful of their young. They bring them forth in autumn, and have but one at a time. The manatea has no voice or cry, and the only noiſe it makes is in fetching its breath. The fat, which lies between the cuticle and the ſkin, when expoſed to the ſun, has a fine ſmell and taſte: it has alſo this peculiar property, that the heat of the ſun will not ſpoil it, or make it become greaſy. The taſte is like the oil of ſweet almonds, and the only effect it has on the body is that of keeping it open. The fibres and lean parts are like beef, but more red and harſh, and may be kept a great while in the hotteſt weather without tainting. The fat of the young ones is like pork, and the lean greatly reſembles veal. In the head are four ſtones of different ſizes, which are ſomewhat like bones, and are uſed in medicine. They are ſaid to be good againſt agues, and to cleanſe the kidneys of gravel. Hoffman affirms they are exceeding uſeful in caſes of epilepſy.

When the negroes catch theſe creatures they go in a canoe, and paddle towards it with as little noiſe as poſſible, it being exceeding quick in hearing. As ſoon as they find themſelves near enough, the man who is placed ready at the head of the canoe ſtrikes a harpoon fixed at the end of a long pole into it, and then lets go. The beaſt immediately makes towards the mangroves, and the water being ſhallow they follow it cloſe, and repeat the ſtrokes till they have wearied it out, when they drag it aſhore, and complete their conqueſt.

The inhabitants of Sierra Leona are not ſo black as thoſe of the neighbouring countries; neither have they ſuch flat noſes or thick lips. The men are in general tall and well made, of a chearful diſpoſition, and not given to quarrel: the women are ſhort and robuſt, owing to their being conſtantly employed in labour; for beſides the buſineſs of houſewifery, they work hard in tillage, make palm oil, and ſpin cotton.

Their dreſs reſembles that of the country in general. They are naturally temperate and ſober; and though exceeding fond of brandy and other ſpirituous liquors, yet they never drink to exceſs, conſidering drunkenneſs as one of the greateſt crimes that can be committed.

Their houſes or huts are low, and thatched with ſtraw: ſome are round, ſome ſquare, and others oblong; and moſt of them are ornamented in the front with two wings of a ſpiral form. They are kept very clean, being ſwept at leaſt once every day.

Their furniture conſiſts of two or three earthen pots to boil their victuals in, a gourd or two to fetch palm wine, and half a gourd for a cup; a few earthen diſhes, a baſket or two for the wife to gather cockles in, and a knapſack for the huſband, made of the bark of trees, to carry his proviſion when he goes abroad. Their bedſtead is made of billets of wood laid acroſs each other, on which they lay a mat, and ſleep without any covering.

Their weapons are ſwords, daggers, darts, bows and arrows. The points of their arrows are infected with the juice of a poiſonous fruit, which is ſo inconceivably ſubtle and quick, that wherever it ſtrikes it is ſure to prove fatal. Some of them have alſo guns, which they are very fond of, and uſe with great dexterity.

Their food conſiſts chiefly of roots, herbs, fruits, cockles and oyſters; and their common drink is water. They plant about their houſes gourds, potatoes, pompions, and tobacco, the latter of which they are very fond of, particularly in ſmoaking.

They greatly admire dancing, and generally ſpend their evenings in that diverſion. Their muſic conſiſts of two or three drums made of a hollow piece of wood, and covered with the ſkin of a kid.

Every town or village has one peculiar houſe, to which the women ſend their daughters at a certain age, who are there taught for a year to ſing, dance, and perform other exerciſes, by an old man appointed for that purpoſe; and when the year is expired he leads them to the market-place, where they publickly exhibit ſuch performances as they have been taught at ſchool.

During

During this time, if any of the young men are diſpoſed to marry, they make choice of thoſe they like beſt, without regard either to birth or fortune. When the man has declared his intention, the parties are conſidered as actually married, provided the bridegroom can make ſome preſents to the bride's parents, and to the old man who was her tutor.

When they bury their dead they put into their graves all their beſt goods, and erect a roof over it, which they cover with linen cloth. The corpſe is always attended to the grave by a number of people hired as mourners, who howl and cry in proportion as they are paid for their attendance.

The Mundingo negroes, who are ſtrict Mahometans, have frequently endeavoured to propagate their religion among theſe people; but they have ever rejected it, and ſtill follow their own maxims. They believe in a future ſtate, but they do not worſhip any living creature whatever, nor even the ſun or moon. They have many ſuperſtitious notions, and pay great reſpect to their fetiſhes, or charms, which they conſtantly carry in a bag about their necks, and other parts of their bodies.

The river of Sierra Leona ſeparates this country into two kingdoms, that of Bulon, or Bulm, to the north, and that of Burre to the ſouth. The former of theſe kingdoms lies very low and flat, but the ſoil is fertile, and produces great quantities of rice, millet and maize, of which they make excellent bread. The natives are very fond of the Engliſh and Portugueſe, many of whom inhabit that part of the country, and they take great pains to affect their manners and maxims.

The kingdom of Burre is a much more open country than that of Bulm, and near it is that long ridge of mountains called Sierra Leona, the admiration of all ſtrangers. There are ſo many caves and dens about theſe mountains, that when a ſingle gun is fired from a ſhip in the bay, the echo is ſo often and diſtinctly repeated, and the clap ſo loud and ſharp, that they ſeem to be the report of ſeveral cannon.

The reſidence of the king of Burre is about eight leagues from the mouth of the river. It is compoſed of about three hundred houſes, which are round, and built all one way. The king's houſe, or rather his huts, are in the center of the village, and reſemble thoſe of his ſubjects. Some of them are a little larger, which he keeps for the Europeans, or ſtrangers that viſit him.

The river of Sierra Leona has been long frequented by the Engliſh and French, in order to carry on a commerce with the people who live on its boundaries.

CHAP. XIV.

BILEDULGERID, ZAARA, or the DESART, and TOMBUTO.

THE region comprizing the places above-mentioned is ſituated to the northward of the river Senegal, and forms a vaſt track covered with burning ſands, exhibiting to the view a ſtriking ſcene of horror and deſolation. To afford as diſtinct an account of it as poſſible, we ſhall deſcribe it according to the foregoing diviſion, beginning with Biledulgerid.

SECTION I.

BILEDULGERID.

Name. Extent. Situation. Climate. Perſons. Cuſtoms. Manners, &c. of the Inhabitants.

THIS country, which was the antient Numidia, derived its modern name from the Arabic words, *Biled-el-gerid*, ſignifying the Land of Dates, becauſe it abounds with that kind of fruit more than any other country in Africa, inſomuch that it can ſupply the adjacent parts with it, in exchange for wheat, which here is ſcarce.

It is of an oblong form, extending from 24 to 30 deg. north latitude. It is bounded by Morocco on the north, by Negroland on the ſouth, by the inland parts of Africa on the eaſt, and by the Atlantic Ocean on the weſt. It is computed at 2500 miles in length, and 350 in breadth. The climate is ſultry and unwholeſome, and the people are lean and ſwarthy with frizzled features. Their eyes are inflamed by the reflection of the ſun beams from the white hard ſoil, and the ſhowers of duſt and ſand driven by the high winds that blow here, at certain ſeaſons, with ſuch violence as ſometimes to bury men and cattle under heaps of it.

The inhabitants are compoſed chiefly of Arabs, who live in tents ranging from place to place in queſt of food and plunder. There are among them ſome of the antient Africans, who live with ſome degree of order in towns and villages, and are ſupplied with moſt conveniences by the Arabs.

The Arabs think themſelves the nobler race, and being perfectly free and independent, frequently enter for pay into the ſervice of the neighbouring princes when they are at war.

They are fond of hunting, and their principal object is the oſtrich, of which they make great advantage, for they eat the fleſh, exchange their feathers for corn and other commodities, uſe the talons as a pendant for the ears, their fat as a medicine, and convert their ſkins into pouches and knapſacks; ſo that every part is employed in ſome neceſſary purpoſe.

The neck and head of this huge animal of the feathered kind are remarkable, being ſhapen much like thoſe of a camel. Its head riſes to the height of a man on horſeback, and often higher: its wings are very ſtrong, but too ſhort to raiſe it from the ground: however, aſſiſted by theſe they run a great pace. The legs and thighs of this bird are like thoſe of a heron, allowance being made for the different proportion. Each foot has three claws armed with horn to facilitate its march. The eggs are as large as the head of a young child, and which the female hides in the ſands, and leaves to be hatched by the heat of the ſun. This diſpoſition, which ſeems to manifeſt ſo much diſregard to her young, is taken notice of in the Book of Job, and certainly argues great want of that precaution obſervable in other animals. The oſtrich ſhews uncommon ſtupidity in running to hide the head, and in particular the eyes, when purſued, behind a tree, leaving the body expoſed to the view of the hunters. The aſſertion of this animal's eating and digeſting iron has much the air of fable, for though they may ſwallow ſmall pieces of that metal as other birds do pebbles, it is not to derive any nouriſhment from them, but only to bruiſe and grind the food in their ſtomachs, to moderate the operation of an exceſſive heat, or, by its weight, to open a paſſage into the inteſtines.

The Arabs likewiſe eat the fleſh of goats and camels, and their drink is the liquor or broth in which the fleſh is boiled. They chiefly uſe dates inſtead of bread, but they have ſome corn and pulſe, which they purchaſe from the neighbouring countries. They have ſmall horſes that are principally uſed in hunting, and are very ſerviceable in plundering expeditions; on both which occaſions the better ſort are attended by their

their ſlaves, and the reſt by their wives, who look after their horſes, and do other the moſt menial ſervices.

They call themſelves Mahometans, but ſeem to know little either of that or any other religion.

Some of theſe Arabs wander from one end of the country to the other with their cattle, owning no ſuperior; others have their particular lords or governors; and a third ſort are ſubject or tributary to the Turks, who hold ſome parts of this territory, as thoſe towards the weſt are to Morocco and Fez. On the whole, however, they are a wild and inhoſpitable people.

There are two cities within the limits of Biledulgerid, that were once famed for their buildings, fortifications, and the number of their inhabitants. Theſe are called Touſera and Capſa. They are degenerated into mean, obſcure places, inhabited by ſome of the ancient Africans, and occaſionally by the wandering Arabs.

SECTION II.

ZAARA, ZAHARA, OR THE DESART.

Name. Extent. Diviſions. Soil. Climate. Productions. Inhabitants. Deſcription of the ſeveral Provinces.

ZAARA, ſo called from the Arabic word, which ſignifies a Deſart, is a vaſt and inhoſpitable country, extending from the Atlantic Ocean on the weſt, to the kingdom and deſart of Barca on the eaſt, that is, from the 8th degree of weſt, to the 26th degree of eaſt longitude; and from Biledulgerid on the north, to the river Niger, which ſeparates it from Negroland on the ſouth. It is about 2400 miles in length, and 660 in breadth. The Arabs divide it into three parts, by the names of Cahel, Zahara, and Aſgar, that is, the ſandy, the ſtoney, and the marſhy. Modern geographers, however, have divided it into ſeven provinces, namely, Zanhaga, Zuenziga, Targa, Lempta, Berdona, Bornou, and Gagoa.

The ſoil in general being very dry and ſandy, and the climate exceeding hot, it cannot be very fertile; yet it is ſaid to be ſo healthy, that the inhabitants live to a great age; and that the people of other countries when afflicted with illneſs, retire to this for the benefit of their healths, which is generally attended with the wiſhed-for ſucceſs.

Thoſe parts of it that lie on the banks of the river Senegal, being better watered and inhabited, on account of the great commerce ariſing from that river, produce ſeveral kinds of grain, as wheat, barley, and millet. They have alſo ſome vegetables, and a great variety of delicious fruits.

Beſides camels and horſes, there is great plenty of a domeſtic animal called Adim-naim, which are about the ſize of an aſs, and greatly reſemble that animal about the ears; but in other reſpects they are like our ſheep. The males are only diſtinguiſhed from the females by having horns; but they are both of a ſize, and their wool equally good. They are not only exceeding tame, but alſo very ſtrong, and will carry a man on their backs for ſeveral miles; beſides which, their fleſh is very excellent food.

This country is greatly infeſted with wild beaſts, as lions and tigers; alſo with great numbers of ſcorpions, vipers, and other venomous creatures; and, at particular ſeaſons, locuſts are ſo numerous as to deſtroy the principal part of their corn and other grain.

It is occupied chiefly by Arabs, who are very illiterate and ſavage. They lead a wretched deſolate life, wandering about the country, and feeding on the milk of their flocks, with a little barley meal and ſome dates. The men go almoſt naked, having only a piece of linen faſtened round the waiſt, and a kind of bonnet on their heads made of black woollen cloth: but the women have a looſe garment that reaches from the waiſt to the knees. The better ſort have a kind of gown made of blue callico, with large ſleeves, which are brought to them from Negroland. The men are tall and thin, but the women are in general robuſt; and both ſexes are of a ſwarthy complexion.

Their tents or huts are low and mean, conſiſting only of a few ſticks covered with ſome coarſe cloth made of camel's hair, and a rough kind of wool, or moſs, that grows on the palm trees. They lie on mats made of ruſhes, but have not any covering. They have neither laws or government, being only ſubject to the will of their chiefs, who are appointed as ſuperintendants, but pay as little attention to any kind of decorum as the people they are ſuppoſed to direct.

They live chiefly by thieving, and plundering ſuch paſſengers as they happen to meet with in their excurſions. When they travel for theſe purpoſes, or in purſuit of paſture or water, they ride on camels, which are not only uſeful on account of their milk, and the great burthens they carry, but alſo for the immediate relief they yield in caſe of exceſſive drought; for ſuch are the amazing deſarts of this country, that they frequently travel a fortnight together without meeting with any water; ſo that when that is exhauſted which they take with them on the backs of the camels, they have recourſe to the beaſt itſelf, whom they kill, and drink the water they find in its ſtomach; it being the nature of that animal to ſwallow ſuch a quantity at one time as will ſerve him for many days. In ſome places, indeed, there are wells of brackiſh water, which are lined with camels bones, and covered with their ſkins to keep out the ſand; but there is great danger in going to them; for, by the violence of the wind, the mountains of ſand are ſometimes raiſed to ſuch an height, that whole caravans have been buried beneath them.

In one part of theſe deſarts there is a ſort of people who are entirely different from the reſt, as they are more ſociable, and live in ſettled habitations. Theſe carry on a kind of commerce with ſtrangers, to whom they are very civil, and are, in general, tolerably honeſt in their dealings. Their religion, as well as that of the wild Arabs, is chiefly Mahometaniſm.

The reſpective provinces into which this country is divided are the following.

Zanhaga, extending itſelf from the river Sue, which parts it from Morocco on the north, to that of Senegal on the ſouth. It is bounded on the eaſt by the territories of Serem, Sunda, and Zuenziga, and on the weſt by the Atlantic Ocean. The inhabitants of this province are of various nations, and among them are ſome tribes of Arabs, who chiefly live by plunder, and carry off great quantities of their neighbours cattle, which they exchange in different parts of the country for dates. There is one diſtrict here, called Taguzza, remarkable for producing vaſt quantities of rock ſalt, which the inhabitants carry not only to all parts of this deſart; but alſo to Negroland, as it is found to be of infinite uſe in ſcorbutic diſorders, to which the people are ſubject from the natural heat and dryneſs of the climate.

Travelling here is very fatiguing and dangerous, eſpecially in ſummer, there not being any water to be ſeen for 100 miles together; ſo that if a proper proviſion is not made, they are ſubject to periſh with thirſt. In one part of this province are two tombs, on each of which is an inſcription, intimating that the unhappy perſons there interred were, the one a wealthy merchant, and the other a poor carrier, who had both died there with exceſſive thirſt: that the former had given the carrier 10,000 ducats for a cruiſe of water, and died ſoon after drinking it, while the latter periſhed for want of it.

The inhabitants of this province live chiefly on dates and the milk of their cattle. Sometimes, indeed, they kill wild goats and other game, but theſe are ſo ſcarce as ſeldom to be met with, and for that reaſon are conſidered as a great rarity.

The whole country is ſo flat and barren, that, in long journies, travellers have the greateſt difficulty in finding their way, there not being a building, tree, or any other mark to direct their courſe. They generally travel in the night, owing to the violent heat of the ſun in the day, and are chiefly guided by the ſtars. Some-

times, indeed, they are directed by the flight of certain birds that go backwards and forwards at particular periods, but the former is what they principally depend on; for by juſtly obſerving the regular motions of the ſtars, they will as readily purſue the right track, as a mariner will by the aſſiſtance of the compaſs.

As when the ſtars, in their æthereal race,
At length have roll'd around the liquid ſpace,
At certain periods they reſume their place;
From the ſame point of heav'n their courſe advance,
And move in meaſures of their former dance.

Though their ſyſtem of aſtronomy is replete with abſurdity, in their own way they will deſcribe the number, ſituation, and diviſion of the ſtars, with amazing exactneſs, as is fully evinced by the benefits they receive from them in travelling through theſe deſarts.

In theſe expiditions they generally go with large caravans. Their goods and neceſſaries are carried on camels, and they are otherwiſe ſo well provided, that they ſeldom meet with any accident on the road.

The province of Zuenziga is rather more barren than the former, and both men and beaſts frequently periſh on their journies for want of water.

The Arabs of this province are juſtly hated by the Negroes, whom, when opportunity offers, they will make priſoners, and ſend to Fez as ſlaves; in return for which, when they get any of the Arabs into their hands, they murder them with the greateſt cruelty.

The province of Targa is not ſo dry or barren as either of the former, nor is it either ſo ſultry or unwholeſome. It has many good ſprings of water, and the land produces ſeveral ſorts of herbs, and many uſeful vegetables. In ſome parts are found great quantities of manna, which the inhabitants gather in calabaſhes, and export for ſale. The Negroes diſſolve it in the water wherein they boil their meat, which they drink, and attribute to this the health they enjoy. The Arabs and Moors, who are very numerous in this province, carry on a great trade by catching Negroes, and ſending them as ſlaves to Morocco.

Adjoining to this province, on the ſouth, is the deſart called Zanfara, which is tolerable fertile, producing corn, rice, Turkey wheat, and ſome cotton. The inhabitants are tall and well ſhaped; but they are quite black, and their faces large, flat, and very diſagreeable. This deſart was ſubdued by one of the kings of Tombuto, who cauſed the prince of it to be poiſoned, and put to death a great number of his ſubjects.

Lempta is more barren than any other part through the whole deſart of Zahara. It is exceeding dangerous for travellers, not only on account of the exceſſive heat, and ſcarcity of water, but alſo from the natural ferocity of the inhabitants.

Agades produces tolerable graſs, and in ſome parts are found great quantities of manna. The inhabitants feed large herds of cattle, and live chiefly in the open country, in poor wretched huts, made of reeds, and covered with mats.

The country of Berdoa in general is very dry and barren, not producing any commodity that merits the leaſt notice. The inhabitants are very illiterate and ſavage, and live chiefly by plundering merchants and travellers.

The province of Bornou is more fertile than all the other parts of this extenſive deſart, and the inhabitants are much more ſociable. We ſhall, therefore, be a little particular in noticing their methods of living, manners, cuſtoms, ceremonies, &c.

Theſe people live in tents or cabins, which are placed together in the form of a circle, and in the center is an area, in which they keep their cattle. As they frequently remove from one place to another, they are conſequently under diſagreeable apprehenſions from robbers and wild beaſts; and in order to guard againſt any ſurprize from either, they always keep centinels without the tents, who, if any danger appears, give an immediate alarm, which is circulated throughout the encampment, and every perſon able to bear arms defends his own premiſes. They have but little difficulty in removing from one place to another, for each tent is ſo lightly conſtructed, and their furniture ſo ſmall, that the whole is conveyed to a conſiderable diſtance on the back of a camel.

They ſit croſs-legged at their meals, on a mat made of Morocco leather or palm leaves, and the diſhes that contain their food are made of copper or ivory. They eat but two meals a day, one a little after ſun-riſe, and the other a little before ſun-ſet; and the women are not permitted to eat with them. They waſh after their meals, and then regale themſelves by drinking coffee, and ſmoaking tobacco.

To their temperate method of living may be aſcribed the natural ſtrength of their conſtitution; for they are ſeldom ill, and generally live to a very advanced age. The only diſeaſes they are ſubject to are the dyſentery and pleuriſy; but theſe are eaſily cured by ſimples which they adminiſter both internally and externally.

They circumciſe their male children at the age of 14, after which they may marry as ſoon as they can purchaſe a wife. Thoſe who have many daughters conſider them as being a capital eſtate; for when any ſuitor offers himſelf, he muſt make conſiderable preſents to the parents, as on that only depends his ſucceſs. They form a judgement of the ſuitor's affections by his liberality; and however well the parties may like each other, the parents will not deliver up the girl till they are ſatisfied with the preſents made by the intended huſband. If he does not approve of his wife after ſhe is delivered to him by her parents, he may return her back; but in that caſe he is obliged to forfeit the preſents made previous to their coming together.

The province of Gaoga, the laſt we have to mention in the deſart of Zahara, is reckoned to be upwards of 500 miles in length from north to ſouth, and 300 in breadth from eaſt to weſt, extending itſelf from the 19th to the 28th degree of eaſt longitude, and from the 12th to the 22d degree of north latitude. It is bounded on the eaſt by Nubia, on the weſt by Bornou, on the north by part of the ſame province, and on the ſouth by the kingdom of Gorham, from which it is ſeperated by the river Senegal.

The country is in general exceeding mountainous, and the inhabitants little better than mere ſavages. They go almoſt naked. Their chief ſubſiſtance ariſes from their cattle, but they ſometimes get conſiderable poſſeſſions by plundering travellers. They live in ſmall wretched huts, made on ſo light a conſtruction, that they frequently take fire, and the whole village being formed of them is totally conſumed. They have no ſenſe of religion, nor indeed of any thing elſe that belongs to rational beings.

The chief and only city in this province is Gaoga, ſituated on the north ſide of the lake of the ſame name; but it is ſo wretched a place, and the inhabitants ſo rude and illiterate, that it does not merit the leaſt attention.

SECTION III.

TOMBUTO.

THIS country, ſo called fron Tombuto the capital, is ſituated in 2 deg. 25 min. eaſt long. and 14 deg. 32 min. north lat. It is very fertile, being well watered by the river Senegal, which runs through it; and when that river overflows, the water is conveyed by ſluices to Tombuto. Beſides this, there are many ſprings, the waters of which are exceeding good. The chief produce is corn and cattle, great quantities of which they export to the neighbouring kingdoms, particularly to Fez and Morocco.

The inhabitants in general are of a mild and chearful diſpoſition, and ſpend great part of their time in ſinging and dancing. Among them are many artificers and manufacturers, particularly weavers of cotton cloth; and ſome of them are ſaid to be exceeding wealthy.

The houſes of the poorer ſort are made of ſtakes and hurdles plaiſtered over with clay, and in their ſhape reſemble that of a bell; but thoſe of the better ſort are built with ſtone, and are handſome and lofty. There are alſo ſeveral elegant ſtructures, particularly a ſtately moſque, ſurrounded with a ſtone wall. The king's palace is alſo a ſpacious building, and the architecture exceeding beautiful. It is furniſhed in the moſt elegant manner, the principal articles being of ſolid gold; and the king keeps his court with the greateſt ſplendor. He has a numerous retinue, and is ſhewn every token of homage. In war he rides on a camel, but all his ſoldiers ride on horſes. His attendants conſiſt of 3000 horſemen, and a prodigious number of foot, who, beſides other arms, have poiſoned arrows. They have frequent ſkirmiſhes with thoſe who refuſe to pay tribute. When a conqueſt is obtained, the captives are ſold to the merchants of Tombuto. Their horſes are chiefly brought from Barbary; for thoſe bred in the country are ſo few, and at the ſame time ſo ſmall, that they are only uſed on very trifling occaſions. With theſe beaſts, however, the king is always well provided; for when a merchant comes there with horſes, he orders the beſt of them to be picked out, and does not heſitate to pay whatever price the merchant demands.

No Jews are admitted into the city; and if a merchant is known to traffic with them, the king immediately orders the goods to be confiſcated.

Inſtead of coin they uſe bars of gold, ſix of which weigh an ounce. They have alſo ſhells brought from Perſia, 400 of which are eſtimated at the value of a ducat.

The Barbary merchants bring here great quantities of European cloth, as do alſo the merchants of Tripoli; beſides which, the latter alſo bring glaſs beads, coral, paper, copper baſons, and other like wares. The articles exported from hence are dates, ſenna, oſtrich feathers, ſlaves, and gold.

To the ſouth of Tombuto is a large town called Cobra, pleaſantly ſituated on the banks of the river Senegal. The buildings are much the ſame as thoſe at the capital, and the inhabitants are no leſs mild and ſociable, tho' not quite ſo temperate in their living. They are ſubject to many diſeaſes that carry off great numbers, which are ſuppoſed to originate from their food, that is compoſed of fleſh, fiſh, milk, butter, oil, and wine; beſides which they addict themſelves to ſpirituous liquors, and ſometimes drink them to great exceſs. In this town is a judge, appointed by the king of Tombuto, to decide all controverſies; but the people have the liberty of appealing from his deciſion to the ſovereign.

CHAP. XV.

ABYSSINIA.

SECTION I.

Name. Extent. Boundaries. Climate. Mountains. Rivers. Lakes. Soil. Productions, Vegetable and Animal.

ABYSSINIA has been called by different names, and particularly by that of Habeſſinia, from the Arabic word Habaſh, which ſignifies a mixture, the country being peopled by various nations; but the inhabitants call it Itjopia, or Ethiopia. The latter, however, is rather an epithet than a proper name, and was given by the Greeks to all countries inhabited by blacks. The diverſity of names hath heretofore made great confuſion, till at length that of Abyſſinia prevailed, and by which it has been univerſally known for ages paſt.

This country in extent is 900 miles in length, and 800 in breadth. It is bounded on the north by the kingdom of Nubia, on the ſouth by Alaba, on the eaſt by the coaſt of Abex on the Red Sea, and on the weſt by the river Maley.

It may reaſonably be ſuppoſed, from the ſituation of this country, that the climate in general is exceeding ſultry; but the extreme heat is only felt in the vallies or low lands; for the hills, or ridges of mountains, moſt of which are of a prodigious height, enjoy an agreeable coolneſs; inſomuch that there are ſome parts where the ſummers are leſs ſultry than in Portugal, and others where the inhabitants are more afraid of cold than heat. This difference of climate is, however, frequently productive of violent ſtorms of thunder and lightning, which are ſometimes ſo terrible as to be very deſtructive both to man and beaſt. Theſe ſtorms are alſo generally attended with exceſſive rains, which are frequently ſo violent that their ſtreams carry away with them trees, houſes, and even hills, whilſt all the rivers overflow, and lay the country under water; and after the water retires, the lanes and roads are ſo covered with a thick ſlimy mud, that they become for ſome time entirely impaſſable. But the greateſt inconvenience that attends theſe rains is, that they infect the air with a dangerous malignancy; for falling on a ground that hath lain dry and almoſt parched up for a conſiderable time, they naturally raiſe ſuch vaſt quantities of unwholeſome vapours, as ſeldom fail producing ſome violent diſtempers, from which even thoſe who keep themſelves altogether at home are ſeldom exempted.

The ſeaſons here are, properly ſpeaking, three, viz. the ſpring, which begins at the latter end of September: the ſummer, which commences on the 25th of December; and the winter, which begins on the 25th of June. The ſummer they divide into two parts, of three months each; the firſt of which they call Tzadai, and is the moſt ſultry and diſagreeable; and the other they call Hagai, which is much more moderate and pleaſant

The winds here differ as much as the climate: ſome, eſpecially on the high lands and lofty mountains, are very refreſhing and pleaſant; whilſt others on the low lands, where the air is leſs agitated, are hot, and very unhealthy. They are ſubject to one in particular which is rather a hurricane, and is called in their language Sengo, or Serpent. This is ſometimes ſo violent that it overturns houſes, tears up trees by the roots, and is frequently very prejudicial to the ſhipping. Notwithſtanding theſe inconveniences this wind has ſome good tendency, as it clears the air of the lower grounds, which would otherwiſe ſtagnate, and prove infectious both to man and beaſt.

The whole country is interſected with prodigious high mountains, between which are ſuch dreadful precipices as muſt naturally ſtrike terror in the beholder. Some of them have very large plains on the top, covered with trees and other verdure, and afford ſprings of excellent water; and ſome of them are ſo well cultivated as to produce moſt of the principal neceſſaries of life. Theſe mountains are exceeding numerous, and, in general, ſo very lofty, that we may juſtly ſay with the poet,

> Behold the mountains, leſs'ning as they riſe,
> Loſe the low vale, and ſteal into the ſkies.

What is very remarkable, theſe ſtupendous hills, which the natives call Dambas, appear at ſome diſtance in a delightful variety of ſhapes. Some of them reſemble pyramids, and others towers of various ſhapes. Some are of an exact ſquare; others as perfectly round as if they had been turned or wrought with a chiſſel. Some again ſo deceive the eye, that when you arrive at what you ſuppoſed to be the top, you diſcover it to be only the foot of another, equally high and difficult.

That

That the reader may form a proper idea of one of theſe ſtrange natural productions, and the great danger and difficulty there is in aſcending them, we ſhall preſent an account of that called Guza, ſituated in the kingdom of Tigra, which travellers, who come from the Red Sea, are obliged to croſs in going to Dambea. This remarkable mountain is thus deſcribed by two late very ingenious travellers. "When you have gained the top (ſay they) it preſents you a handſome, ſpacious plain, in the midſt of which ſtands another mountain of equal height, which you muſt alſo go over, after you have ſufficiently refreſhed yourſelf on the fertile and delightful top of the Guza. The aſcent takes up about half a day's journey, and goes winding all the way up. The paths are very narrow, and cut into the ſide of the ſolid rock; and all the way you go preſents you with a moſt deep and dreadful precipice, the bottom of which cannot be reached by the naked eye, but only offers a gulph, which at once makes the head quite giddy, and fills the heart with a continual dread. Should any of the caravans that keep going up and down theſe ſteep and narrow roads chance to meet another in its way, both men and beaſts are in the greateſt danger of being thrown down the precipice, and broken into a thouſand pieces before they reach the bottom, unleſs they take the utmoſt care in paſſing by one another. The mules are by far the beſt for thoſe that ride, becauſe they are the ſureſt footed: but they have an ill faculty with them, that they will always go cloſe to the edge of the precipice, and cannot, without great riſk be turned to the other ſide of the road, or be kept to it when they are there. What adds ſtill more to the horror of the journey, whether it be up or down the ſteep declivity, is, that at the bottom of the valley below there commonly runs a ſwift torrent of water, with a moſt hideous roar, which being echoed by the adjacent rocks, and often heightened by loud winds, as well as by the continual trampling of the men and beaſts upon the rock, increaſes the horrid din to ſuch a degree, that one cannot poſſibly hear one's ſelf, much leſs one another ſpeak, though ever ſo loud, or ever ſo near. But the wiſhed-for ſummit once attained (which is reckoned above 300 fathoms perpendicular above the plain top of Guza, and the moſt difficult part of all the way, being only provided by nature with a ſort of ſteps like winding ſtairs, two or three cubits high, and uncouth, on both ſides of the rock) the traveller is made ample amends by the beautiful proſpect it preſents to the view, which is not that of rugged and interſected peaks above, and deep gaping vallies beneath, as might be expected, but of a ſmall delightful plain, about two miles in compaſs, and a muſket-ſhot in breadth, and terminated at one end by a new, flat, and upright rock, like the back of a chair, of which this little plain is the ſeat: ſo that take the whole mountain together, that of Guza ſeems to be a kind of pedeſtal to this; and the latter, which the natives call Lamalmon, repreſents, in ſome meaſure, a chair without arms, the back of which is the upright rock at the end of the plain, which is as perpendicular as if it had been hewn out with a chiſſel. Along what we may call the ſeat of this wonderful and ſupereminent chair, is pleaſantly ſituated a town of the ſame name, whoſe inhabitants make a decent livelihood by helping the caravans to load and unload the beaſts of burthen, during a great part of the way of the craggy aſcent before-mentioned, in order to help them to leap from one ſtep to another; ſo that one would be ſurpriſed to ſee with what facility they make the beaſts climb and keep their feet, while they themſelves convey their burthens from one ſtair to another through every difficult part of this extenſive aſcent."

There are other mountains in this country that reſemble the above, particularly one ſituated between the kingdoms of Amhara and Oleca. But the moſt conſiderable amongſt them all is that called by the natives Thabat Mariam, or more properly Tadbaba Mar-jam, whoſe ſummit greatly exceeds all the reſt, and is at the ſame time very ſpacious. This remarkable mountain, whoſe bottom is watered by two large rivers deſcending from it, has ſeven handſome churches on its ſummit, one of which, dedicated to St. John, is very beautiful, having been formerly the burial place of the Abyſſinian emperors. Withinſide are at this time five monuments erected to the memory of theſe monarchs: they are covered with tapeſtry, on which are repreſented the arms of Portugal.

There is a remarkable hollow and high rock ſituated in the kingdom of Gojam, directly oppoſite to which, at a ſmall diſtance, is another much of the ſame height and bulk, ſo exactly placed by nature, that it echoes back a word barely whiſpered in the former with amazing force; and the joint voices of three or four perſons ſpeaking together produce a ſound not inferior to that ariſing from the ſhouts of a numerous army.

> Echo in other words her ſilence breaks,
> Speechleſs herſelf, but when another ſpeaks.
> She can't begin, but waits for the rebound,
> To catch his voice, and to return the ſound.
> Hence 'tis ſhe prattles in a fainter tone,
> With mimic ſounds, and ſpeeches not her own.

This country is well watered, having a great number of excellent rivers. The moſt conſiderable of theſe, excluſive of the Nile, which takes its riſe here, are the Tacazee, the Marlb or Moraba, the Maley, the Howaſh, the Zebee, and the Bahr-el-Abiad, or White River.

There are alſo great numbers of ſmaller rivers, the chief of which fall at length into the Nile, and the reſt into the Indian Sea. From theſe rivers the people cut canals to water their lands, which in ſome parts are made ſo rich and fertile, that they yield two or three crops in one year.

Here are alſo ſeveral large lakes, the moſt conſiderable of which is that called by the Europeans, Dambea, and by the natives Bahr Tzana, or Sea of Tzana, from the chief iſland in it of that name.

The natives ſail on this lake in flat-bottomed boats, which they call tancoas. They are not made of wood, but a kind of ruſhes that grow on its banks, each of which is about the thickneſs of a man's arm, and about two yards in length. Theſe ruſhes they call Tambua, the like of which grow alſo on the banks of the Nile, and are uſed for the ſame purpoſes. Theſe laſt are thoſe which the ancients called Papyrus, and were ſerviceable to them not only in making their paper, but alſo in their boats, ſails, and other tackle.

The only inconvenience belonging to this lake is, that it breeds great numbers of ſea-horſes, which not only indanger the navigation, but deſtroy the fiſh, and ſometimes make conſiderable ravages on the land. However, the people that live on its banks make it their buſineſs to deſtroy theſe animals, not only to ſecure their corn and other grain from being deſtroyed by them, but alſo for the ſake of their fleſh, of which they are very fond. They alſo cut their ſkins into long ſtraps, called allengas, which they uſe inſtead of whips to ſcourge their horſes.

The ſoil of this country is various, according as the ground is higher or lower, ſtoney, ſandy, or flat. In general, however, it is tolerably good, and thoſe parts in particular that are well watered produce large crops of wheat, barley millet, and other grain. But the moſt remarkable grain here, and what is in ſome meaſure natural to the country, is a ſmall one called teff, which in taſte and flour greatly reſembles rye. It is very thin and ſlender, and the grain much ſmaller than thoſe of the muſtard. The natives make it into bread, and prefer it to that made with any other grain, for which reaſon they are more careful in the cultivation of it.

This country produces great variety of fruits, but thoſe moſt cultivated are the black grape, peaches, pomegranates, almonds, citrons, and oranges. They have alſo great plenty of roots and herbs, which, notwithſtanding the heat of the country, grow naturally. Sugar-canes are likewiſe very plentiful, and they have prodi-

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gious quantities of honey, which is here very excellent, and of many different ſorts.

Not only many of the medicinal plants of Europe grow naturally here, but there are ſome peculiar to the country. Of the moſt valuable are the amadmagda and the aſſaſe. The former of theſe hath the ſpecific virtue of healing diſlocated or broken limbs, and of drawing out ſplinters of broken bones left in the fleſh. The latter is a moſt ſingular antidote not only againſt all poiſons, but likewiſe all venomous creatures, inſomuch that the very touching them with it ſtupifies and deprives them of all their powers; and what is ſtill more ſurpriſing, it is ſaid the very ſhadow or ſcent of it ſo affects the moſt poiſonous ſerpents, that their limbs are immediately benumbed, their venom is no longer poiſonous, and they may be handled without the leaſt danger. This extraordinary plant is of infinite ſervice in theſe parts, as there are prodigious numbers of ſerpents, one ſort of which is ſo ſingularly prejudicial, that even its breath only, at ſeveral yards diſtance, generally proves deſtructive; they are ſhort, but remarkably thick, eſpecially about the middle; their mouths are very wide, at which they ſuck in a great quantity of air at once, and then breathe it out with ſuch prodigious force againſt man or beaſt who fall in their way, that it generally proves fatal.

The animals of this country are both various and numerous. Thoſe of the tame kind are horſes, mules, camels, dromedaries, oxen, cows, ſheep and goats. The oxen in particular are of ſo prodigious a ſize, that at a diſtance they have been taken for elephants: and their horns are ſo large, that the inhabitants make them into pitchers, and other neceſſary utenſils.

The horſes here are of various colours, but the black are moſt eſteemed: they are in generally fleet and docile, but ſeldom uſed except in times of war. The beaſts of carriage are mules, camels, and dromedaries, all which they train up to an eaſy yet quick pace. They uſe the mules when they travel over the craggy mountains, thoſe beaſts being not only very gentle, but alſo ſure footed: and the camels and dromedaries when they travel through hot and ſandy deſerts.

The natives preſer riding on mules to horſes, not only on account of that beaſt being more gentle and ſure-footed, but alſo out of reſpect to their own pedigree; for as they boaſt themſelves to be deſcended from the Jews, whoſe princes and great ones are recorded to have chiefly ridden upon mules, they eſteem it an honour to do the ſame here, and to have the horſes led by the bridle, till ſome martial engagement obliges them to mount.

The wild animals of this country are lions, tygers, leopards, wolves, foxes, various kinds of apes, and other beaſt of prey; all which are very numerous, fierce, and miſchievous, but they have not any thing particular in them from thoſe of other hot countries.

Lions here are numerous, and of ſeveral ſorts and ſizes, but the moſt remarkable are thoſe ſtiled of the kingly or royal breed. As theſe do conſiderable miſchief among the larger cattle, the inhabitants are very aſſiduous in endeavouring to deſtroy them, and will even encounter them with no other weapons than their lances and daggers. They are in general ſo large, that ſome of them killed have meaſured 14 feet in length from the neck to the tail. One of this prodigious ſize was ſome years ago deſtroyed by a ſhepherd in the open field with a dart, the circumſtances attending which are thus related. This fierce creature was coming down from the mountains all covered with the blood of animals it had torn in pieces, when the ſhepherd ſeeing him at a great diſtance making towards him, retreated to a large hole that had been made in the ground, and upon his approaching within reach of his weapon, he threw it at him with ſuch force, that it pierced him through the ſhoulder: the monſter, after many dreadful roars and leaps, fell luckily into the pit, where he was diſpatched by the victorious countryman, though not without receiving many wounds, as well as being in the moſt imminent danger of his life.

Among the wild animals here may be remarked the elephants, as none of them were ever known to be brought to that docility common to thoſe in other countries. They generally go in large droves, and frequently make havock among the corn and other grain. They alſo make great deſtruction among the foreſts, by rooting up large trees, and breaking down ſmall ones to feed on their leaves.

Here are numbers of rhinoceroſſes, which are great enemies to the elephants: the zebra, or wild aſs, is likewiſe a native of this empire. It is ſaid that 2000 ſequins was given for one of theſe animals by an Indian Moor, in order to make a preſent to the Great Mogul.

Poultry abound here, particularly geeſe, ducks, turkies and hens: they have alſo abundance of wild fowl and game, with a variety of uncommon birds peculiar to this country. Among theſe we ſhall ſelect the following.

The Pipi, ſo called from the ſound of its voice reſembling thoſe two ſyllables. This bird hath a remarkable inſtinct in directing huntſmen to their game, and will not leave them till they have arrived at the ſpot where it lies. It is a ſmall bird, but very beautiful, its feathers being variegated with various colours.

The Abagun, or Stately Abbot, is remarkable for its beauty, as alſo a kind of horn that grows on its head inſtead of a creſt: this horn is ſhort and round, and is divided at the upper end in ſhape of a mitre.

The Seitan, Favez, or Devil's Horſe, reſembles a man armed with feathers, and commonly walks with a majeſtic gravity, or runs with ſurpriſing ſwiftneſs; but when too cloſely purſued it expands its wings and flies away. It is about as high as a ſtork, but its ſhape is much more genteel and beautiful.

The Cardinal is a very handſome bird, all its feathers being of a beautiful crimſon, except thoſe on its breaſt, which appear of the colour, and have the ſmooth gloſs of the fineſt black velvet.

Here are prodigious numbers of inſects and other vermin. But the moſt deſtructive are the locuſts, which ſometimes fly in ſuch ſwarms that they deſtroy all before them, and leave whole kingdoms and provinces deſolate.

In the mountainous parts of this country there are ſeveral mines of ſalt; as alſo others that produce gold, ſilver, lead and iron. The natives, however, do not work either the gold or ſilver mine, on account of the fear they are in of tempting their neighbours to ſeize on them, ſhould they be once appriſed of their having ſuch valuable poſſeſſions: ſo that though this country might produce plenty of theſe metals, yet they prudently chuſe to have ſo tempting a treaſure concealed from ſtrangers, and content themſelves chiefly with what is brought to them from Caffreria, Nigritia, and other parts, rather than to hazard enſlaving their country, by acknowledging they have any of their own. What little they otherwiſe get is brought by the torrents from the mountains, which is often found in grains as large as peas, and of a very fine and pure nature.

SECTION II.

Perſons, Dreſs, Habitations, Diet, Manners, Cuſtoms, Marriage, and Funeral Ceremonies, Commerce, Religion, &c. of the Inhabitants of Abyſſinia.

THE inhabitants of this country may be claſſed in the following order:

1. Chriſtians of the Abyſſinian church, and thoſe whom the Roman miſſionaries brought over to their communion.

2. Jews ſettled here from time immemorial.

3. Mahometans diſperſed throughout the empire, and forming one third of the inhabitants.

4. Gentiles, inhabiting ſeveral parts, and chiefly deſcendants of the Gallas.

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In general the Abyſſinians are well made, and of a lively tractable diſpoſition: ſome of them are black, but the principal part are of a brown, or olive complexion: they are very tall, and their features well proportioned: their eyes are large, and of a ſparkling black; their noſes rather high than flat, and their teeth white and uniform.

They are ſober, temperate, and leſs addicted to vices than the inhabitants of Europe. They ſeldom quarrel with each other; but when ſuch circumſtances happen, they firſt proceed to blows, and as ſoon as the heat is allayed, either by thoſe means or the intervention of cooler reaſon, they immediately ſubmit to an arbitration, or lay the whole cauſe of their quarrel before the ruler of the place, and he who is declared to have been in the wrong faithfully ſtands by the judgment of the ruler, without grudge, murmur or appeal.

The common people dreſs in a kind of ſcarf, which hangs looſe from the ſhoulders to the waiſt, from whence they have a pair of cotton drawers that reach to the ancles. The better ſort wear a long veſt made either of ſilk or cotton, and tied about the waiſt with a rich girdle. The ladies dreſs in the beſt ſilks and brocades, and ornament their heads various ways: their necks are decorated with chains, jewels, and other embelliſhments, and in their ears they wear the richeſt pendants. Both ſexes take particular pains with their hair, which is the only ornament they have to their heads, none but the emperors being permitted to wear either cap or any other covering.

Excluſive of a few royal palaces and antient churches, there are few public ſtructures or private buildings, the inhabitants moſtly living in tents or camps, and removing from one place to another as beſt ſuits their convenience. The houſes, or rather huts, that form their camps are wretched buildings, being made only of lath and clay, and covered with ſtraw. Their furniture is equally mean with their houſes, conſiſting only of a large table to ſit round at their meals, and a few trifling utenſils. The more wealthy lie upon couches, and cover themſelves with their upper garments, but the poorer ſort lie on mats on the ground, and wrap themſelves up in the ſkin of ſome beaſt.

They are not only very temperate in their eating, but far from being nice in the choice of their food, for none can be well coarſer, or more diſguſtful than theirs even among the better ſort. It generally conſiſts of a piece of fleſh, which is ſometimes parboiled, but for the moſt part quite raw: this is ſerved up on apas, or cakes of bread, ground and made by the women, of wheat, peaſe, millet, teff, and other ſorts of grain, according to their circumſtances, ſo that this apas ſerves them not only inſtead of a diſh or plate, but likewiſe inſtead of a napkin or table cloth, neither of which they ever uſe at their tables. When they boil mutton or chicken to make broth, they ſerve it up in black earthen porringers, covered with what they call aſcambias, which are like caps made of fine ſtraw. Thoſe of the greateſt quality have no better than theſe at their tables, and the older they are the more they value them. The ſauces they uſe to their meat are no leſs diſagreeable than the fleſh itſelf, being chiefly butter turned into oil, with which are mixed ſome ingredients the ſmell and taſte of which are ſo diſguſtful, that a ſtranger could not eat with them, not even a Spaniard or a Portugueſe.

The higheſt dainty is a piece of raw beef brought in reeking warm from the beaſt; and if they invite company to eat with them, the whole quarter is ſerved up at once, with plenty of ſalt and pepper. The gall ſerves inſtead of oil or vinegar. Some add an ingredient called malta, which is made of what they draw out of the paunch of the ox or cow. This they ſtew ſome time on the fire, with pepper, ſalt and ſliced onion before they bring it to table, which, when covered with ſuch a large piece of warm raw beef, is eſteemed by them a moſt delicious repaſt. This diſh, however, can only be purchaſed by the rich, on account of the pepper, which in this country is not only exceeding ſcarce but alſo very dear.

Their manner of eating their victuals is as filthy as their choice: it is eſteemed among them a piece of high breeding to gobble large pieces, and to make as much noiſe as they can in chewing their meat; it being a common ſaying among them, "That none but beggarly wretches chew their meat only on one ſide; and none but thieves and robbers eat without making a noiſe."

They have, however, one cleanly cuſtom at their meals, which is always to waſh their hands before they ſit down, becauſe they take up their victuals with their fingers; and thoſe of high rank are ſtill more nice in this paticular, having their meat cut into pieces, and conveyed to their mouths by their moſt favourite attendants.

Thy never drink till they have finiſhed their meals, when they give a looſe to diſſipation, and ſometimes, eſpecially at feaſts, drink to the greateſt exceſs. Their general liquor is mead, the manner of making which is thus: they take five or ſix quarts of water, and one of honey; theſe they mix together in a jar, and throw into it a handful of parched barley meal, to make it ferment: after this they put into it ſome chips of a wood called ſardo, which in two or three days takes off the cloying taſte of the honey, and makes it very wholeſome and palatable. They have alſo a kind of beer made of barley meal, with which, inſtead of hops, they mix ſome intoxicating drugs

Polygamy is allowed by the laws, but the canons of the church forbid it; ſo that thoſe who indulge themſelves in it are only puniſhed by excommunication. All their marriages muſt be celebrated before a prieſt, his benediction being eſteemed eſſentially neceſſary. The previous ceremonies are very trifling, the parties only engaging to cohabit and join their ſtocks together, as long as they like each other; but, if any differences afterwards ariſe, they ſhall be at liberty to part. This, added to the conſent of the parents, and the interchange of a few preſents, concludes the contract, and the parties proceed to the door of the church, where they are met by the prieſt, who performs the ceremony, and beſtows on them his bleſſing.

The paramour of an adultreſs, if convicted, is only puniſhed by fine; and if he is unable to pay it, he becomes a ſlave to the huſband till he can either obtain the money, or has compenſated for it by ſervitude.

Few ceremonies are obſerved in the interment of their dead. As ſoon as the perſon has expired, he is, immediately waſhed, ſprinkled with holy water, then wrapped up in a ſheet, and laid on a bier. This done, the relations order a grave to be made, into which the body is haſtily thrown, when the prieſt reads the ſervice and the grave is immediately filled up. The relations bewail their loſs by the moſt hideous lamentations, laying themſelves flat on the ground, and beating themſelves with great violence againſt it. The funerals of the emperors and grandees are performed with great pomp and magnificence; accompanied with all the inſignia of their dignity, and with the moſt ſolemn and doleful muſic, which is in a manner drowned by the loud cries and lamentations of the retinue. But they uſe neither torches or any other lights, either in the proceſſion, or in the church.

There are but few artiſts among them, as well as few trades, which are generally conveyed from father to ſon.

Beſides ſilks, brocades, &c. the Turks bring the Abyſſinians ſeveral ſorts of ſpices, and amongſt them pepper. The laſt article is the moſt coveted by them; for which reaſon the Turks take the advantage, by fixing ſo high a price on it, that it can only be purchaſed by them that are very rich. In exchange for theſe articles the Turks receive ſkins, furs, leather, honey, wax, and ivory.

The Jews that ſtill remain here ſpeak a kind of Hebrew, but corrupt. The Moors uſe their own, which is Arabic, but ſhort of the purity of their ancient tongue.

Every province, and almoſt diſtrict, has its own dialect. That which is uſed at court, and among the polite, is the ſame as ſpoken in the kingdom of Amhara, and more or leſs corruptly in other provinces. That, however, ſpoken in the kingdom of Tigra, comes neareſt to the old Ethiopic. This laſt almoſt retains its priſtine dignity, and is ſtill in uſe, not only in all their religious and learned books, in the emperor's letters patent, and all their records, but in their liturgies and religious worſhip.

Moſt of their churches appear to have been formerly large and elegant ſtructures, but they are now ſo decayed, that it is impoſſible to form a proper idea of their original magnificence. The moſt diſtinguiſhed, and which claim the attention of all the curious, are the following ones, viz. St. Emanuel, St. Saviour, St. Mary, the Holy Croſs, St. George, Golgotha, Bethlehem, the Martyrs, Marcoreos, and Lalibela. However incredible it may appear, yet certain it is, that theſe ten churches were all cut out of a ſolid rock, by dint of the hammer and chiſſel. The laſt of them bears the name of their founder, who, being deſirous of having them executed, ſent for a number of workmen from Egypt, and ſo expeditiouſly was the undertaking carried on, that it is ſaid the whole were compleated in twenty-four years. A ſhort time, conſidering the number of them, and the ſtately manner in which they are conſtructed, being proportionable in all their parts, as gates, windows, pillars, arches, chancels, &c.

Beſides the churches, there are many monaſteries in Abyſſinia, moſt of which contain two chapels, one for the men, and the other for the women; but how they came to be introduced, and of what order the firſt founders of them were, is not known.

SECTION III.

Dignity and Power of the Emperor.

ABYSSINIA has ever been ſubject to deſpotiſm under emperors whoſe will knew no controul. Their imperious monarch prides himſelf on a ſuppoſition preſerved by his anceſtors, of being deſcended, by lineal ſucceſſion, from Merrilebeck, or David, the ſon of the great Solomon, king of Iſrael, by the queen of Sheba. In conſequence of this he aſſumes ſeveral vain and pompous titles, ſuch as the Offſpring of Judah, the Son of David, of Solomon, of the Pillar of Sion, the Seed of Jacob, of the line of Mary, of Nahu after the fleſh; of St. Peter and St. Paul after the ſpirit, &c. He likewiſe bears in his arms the lion of the tribe of Judah holding a croſs, with this inſcription in Ethiopic, *The lion of the tribe of Judah is conqueror.*

None of his ſubjects dare to approach him without the deepeſt marks of ſubmiſſion, and ſuch as are little inferior to thoſe ſhewn to Indian monarchs. They alſo pay adoration to him even in his abſence, for they never hear his name mentioned without bowing their bodies very low, and touching the ground with their hands.

Like his ſubjects, the emperor lives altogether in tents, and removes from place to place. He is always followed by a numerous retinue, and his camp takes up a great track of ground, as his court is very numerous, and attended by a conſiderable guard.

The emperor, whether in time of peace or war, is always attended by his azaques and chief miniſters. He wears a kind of cap or hat, made after the Indian manner, on the top of which is a crown formed of gold and ſilver, and embelliſhed with pearls. In times of war great order is obſerved in marching: the army is ordered to keep cloſe, the van-guard and rear drawing up cloſe to the main body; the wings ſpread themſelves out; and the emperor keeps in the center with his guards, great officers, ladies, &c. At other times little order is obſerved, excepting that there is always a number of warlike inſtruments, and a proper guard marching before and after the emperor.

The ſucceſſion to the crown of Abyſſinia is hereditary, but it is not abſolutely tied to the primogeniture, for the emperor, if he pleaſes, may ſet aſide his eldeſt ſon, or any other, and leave it to ſuch one as he thinks moſt deſerving of it.

This privilege, or rather prerogative, gave riſe to a cuſtom that long prevailed in this country, of confining the princes of the blood to the fortreſs or rock called Amba Geuxen, where they were totally recluſe under the ſtricteſt guard, nor permitted to receive letter or meſſage without the previous examination of the jailors, who kept them under the moſt rigid diſcipline. To reſtrain ambitious ideas, they compelled them to dreſs in the garb of the loweſt order of the people.

The following narrative will elucidate this matter. One of theſe rigid jailors, obſerving that a certain young prince had violated the injunction concerning dreſs, by appearing in attire rather gay, tore it off his back, with the ſevereſt menaces if he ſhould transgreſs again. On the acceſſion of this prince to the imperial throne, he ſent for the guard, who, under the deepeſt apprehenſions, proſtrated himſelf, and entreated lenity. Contrary to expectation, the prince applauded him for performing his duty to his father, and, in teſtimony of his approbation, and reliance on his allegiance and fidelity to him, diſmiſſed him with a ſumptuous preſent. Such behaviour naturally ſtimulated future jailors to the punctual diſcharge of their truſt.

This cuſtom took its riſe from the following circumſtance. A certain emperor having bequeathed his dominions among nine ſons, who were to reign each year alternately, according to ſeniority, the youngeſt being of an ambitious temper, and averſe to the mortification of waiting for his turn for ſwaying the imperial ſceptre ſo long, formed a deſign of aboliſhing the annual reigns, and engroſſing the dignity to himſelf. By communicating the project to a friend, he wholly defeated it; for the confident having diſcloſed the ſecret to the reigning brother, he adopted that very plan, conſigning not only the projector, but his brothers in general, to the care of a guard and jailor. This gave riſe to that unnatural cuſtom which was afterwards abrogated from the following cauſe.

A counſellor of one of the emperors, who had come out of confinement, being preſent when his ſon was ſtanding by his ſide, took occaſion to obſerve that the prince was much advanced in ſtature. The prince, about nine years old, fixing his eyes upon his father, ſaid, in a pathetic tone, "What! am I then grown up for Amba-Geuxan?" The father, ſtruck with this keen interrogative from a boy ſo young, determined to aboliſh that inhuman cuſtom, and not only ſwore himſelf, but obliged his officers of ſtate to do the ſame, that no ſon of his, nor any other emperor, ſhould thenceforth be ever confined to that place, which oath has been moſt faithfully obſerved from that time to the preſent.

The Abyſſinian monarchs indulge themſelves in having a plurality of wives, the generality of whom are the daughters of the moſt diſtinguiſhed families in the empire. The ceremonies previous to the nuptials, as alſo the celebration of them, are as follow. As ſoon as the emperor has intimated his deſire of having the daughter of ſuch a one in marriage, ſhe is immediately removed from her parents to an apartment in the houſe of one of his moſt diſtinguiſhed courtiers, where ſhe continues ſome time, the emperor viſiting her occaſionally, to form a judgement of her mental as well as her perſonal accompliſhments. If he is ſatisfied in theſe particulars, a day is appointed for the celebration of the marriage, when he takes her with him to church, from whence, after aſſiſting in the divine ſervice, he leads her to the imperial pavilion, where the marriage ceremony is performed by the abuna or chief prieſt, in the preſence of the whole court. The emperor, as at other times, dines by himſelf in his own apartment, and ſhe in hers; but the gueſts are ſumptuouſly entertained at tables provided for them in tents, and the remainder of the day is ſpent in feſtivity and mirth.

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The bride does not receive the title of empreſs till ſome time after marriage, according to the pleaſure of the emperor: neither is ſhe permitted to dwell with him in the royal pavilion, but has one aſſigned her near at hand, from whence ſhe comes to the emperor at ſuch times as he thinks proper to enjoy her company. On the day ſhe is to be inſtalled Itique, or empreſs, ſhe appears in his tent ſeated on a couch near the imperial throne, on which the emperor ſits likewiſe, but higher by one ſtep. They are both dreſſed in the richeſt apparel, as are alſo the nobles and officers of the court, who aſſiſt at the ceremony. On a ſignal made, one of his dignified chaplains goes out of the tent, and, ſtanding on a chair, proclaims her empreſs in theſe words, *Anagaſma danguecera ſhem*, that is, *We have ordained our ſlave to reign*; or, *The king hath created his ſervant queen*. This is immediately anſwered by the loudeſt acclamations of the people: after which ſhe receives her dignified title of Itique, or empreſs, and this ſhe retains during the remainder of her life. The empreſſes never receives the ceremony of coronation unleſs it happens that the emperor dies without iſſue, and in that caſe it falls on them, when they receive not only that honour, but are ſolely inveſted with the imperial dignity.

A celebrated writer ſays, "As harſh as the word *ſlave* may ſound in our ears, it is in ſuch common uſe amongſt them, that even the emperor's own kindred and brethren have it given to them; ſo that when he raiſes any of them to any dignity, ſuch as that of viceroy, which is the higheſt under him, their commiſſion always runs, We have conſtituted our ſlave viceroy or governor, &c. without giving them the title of brother or kinſman: and well may he ſtile them ſlaves, ſeeing they are all ſuch to him, from the higheſt to the loweſt; and their lands, lives, &c. are wholly at his diſpoſal."

The ſame writer adds, "But as little undervaluing as they think the title of ſlave is among them, it was not ſo accounted by the Portugueſe when they were here; one of whom having obtained ſome great poſt from the emperor, and, as a ſubject of the king of Portugal, who calls them all his children, diſdaining to be ſtiled a ſlave to that of Ethiopia, offered a large ſum of money to the herald, or crier, who was to proclaim his promotion, to leave out that odious title, and call him only by his name; but that was more than the officer dared to do."

The emperor eats in the preſence of none but the pages that attend him, who cut his victuals into bits, and convey them to his mouth; for he conſiders himſelf of too much importance to be at the trouble of feeding himſelf: even the empreſs is denied that privilege; and when he gives audience to foreign ambaſſadors, he is concealed behind a curtain, ſo that they may hear, but cannot ſee him.

The generaliſſimo of all his forces is called Raſh, and has under him two officers, one of whom is ſtiled Bellatinoche Goyta, that is, lord of the ſervants, and is a kind of high ſteward. His power extends not only over all the viceroys, governors, and generals of the army, but alſo over the azagues and umbares, who are the civil judges of the empire. The other officer is ſtiled Tahah, that is, lord of the leſſer ſervants: he is only a kind of under ſteward to the king's houſehold, which is commonly compoſed of men of leſſer rank.

The viceroys and governors of the kingdoms and provinces are under the Bellatinoche, as are alſo the military commanders, and civil magiſtrates or judges. All theſe hold their ſeveral courts of judicature, in which cauſes, whether of a civil or criminal nature, are brought and decided.

They have three ſorts of puniſhment for capital crimes. The firſt is burying the criminal alive, which they do by digging a large hole, putting him into it upright, and then filling it with earth up to his mouth; after which they cover the head with thorns and briars, and over the whole lay a heavy ſtone. The ſecond is by beating the criminal to death with thick clubs: And the laſt and moſt common, by piercing him through the body with their aſſagayes or lances.

If a man is accuſed of murder, and it cannot be ſufficiently proved againſt him, all the inhabitants of the place are ſeverely fined, or put to ſome corporal puniſhment; ſo that a murderer here ſeldom eſcapes.

The remainder of the empire (for great part of it has been diſmembered, eſpecially towards the ſouth, where the Gallas, who lie between it and the line, have laid waſte a number of kingdoms and provinces) is guarded by a ſtanding army, computed to amount to about 45,000 men.

They are but little acquainted with fire-arms, and as indifferently furniſhed with powder and ball. Their ſpears are of two ſorts, the one like our half or ſhort pikes, the other like a halbert or partiſan. The ſtaves of the former are very thin, and the iron narrow, like our pike: the iron of the other is broad and thin. The firſt is to be thrown by dint of ſtrength, and the laſt to be uſed in cloſe fight with one hand, whilſt the other holds the buckler, which is uſually made of the hide of ſome beaſt.

The foot ſoldiers have likewiſe two of theſe ſpears, one of which they dart with ſuch ſtrength and fury, that they will often pierce a coat of mail or buckler; and the other they keep to continue the fight, as ſome do the ſword and buckler.

Swords are worn by ſuperiors, but ſeldom uſed in battle. They likewiſe wear a kind of dagger under their girdle, with the hilt towards the right, and the point towards the left hand. Some alſo carry a large club of hard wood with a dagger in it: this weapon they call balota, and commonly uſe it when they come to cloſe engagement with the enemy, and ſometimes throw it at them with all their ſtrength.

The cavalry are ſaid to be good horſemen, and mount and ſit their horſes well; but in other reſpects they are very indifferently diſciplined.

Their martial muſic conſiſts of kettle-drums, which are exceeding large, trumpets, hautboys, flutes, and other inſtruments.

The emperor's revenues chiefly ariſe from four branches; the firſt of which is the tribute paid him by the governors of ſuch provinces and kingdoms as contain gold mines, particularly thoſe of Narea and Gojam, from which he receives a certain weight yearly of that metal. The ſecond ariſes from the ſale of all the great places in the empire. The third conſiſts in a tenth levied every third year upon all the cattle in the empire. By this laſt, which it appears was unknown till about the middle of the laſt century, every man that has cows is obliged to pay him one out of ten every third year; and the country breeding vaſt quantities of them, makes it, perhaps, by far the moſt conſiderable branch of the three. It is called the burning or branding tax, becauſe the emperor's officers brand thoſe with a particular mark which they ſet aſide for his uſe. The fourth and laſt ariſes from a duty laid on every loom of cotton cloth. If it belongs to a Chriſtian, he pays one piece of cloth; if to a Mahometan, a piece of eight per annum.

SECTION IV.

Various Provinces of the Abyſſinian Empire.

TIGRA is the principal province of the Abyſſinian empire. Its chief city, Axum, was once not only the reſidence of the emperors, but famous for ſtately buildings, as palaces, churches, obeliſks, &c. of which there ſtill remain ſome ruins. Though abandoned by the monarchs, and reduced to a mean village, it is ſaid to be the ſpot whither the emperors now repair to be crowned. There are two or three other ſmall towns in this province. They contain the remains of churches and monaſteries, and may be ſaid to exiſt merely in the name.

Some parts of the kingdom of Bagameder are mountainous and barren, whilſt others are fertile and well watered,

watered. The mountains are inhabited by a wild wandering race, whose chief employment is breeding of cattle. Bagameder, the capital, deserves mention only for its pleasant situation, and decent buildings. The town called Alata is remarkable for having in its neighbourhood a bridge over the Nile.

The province of Amara, or Amhara, though very small, is rendered considerable by being the residence of the emperor, and a distinct dialect of the inhabitants, adopted by the court and first class of the people.

Of the provinces of Olcca and Choa we have only to say, that the former contains nothing remarkable, and that the latter derives all its importance from having been once the imperial residence.

In Damota, or Damu, is the highest and coldest mountain in Abyssinia, to which they banish prisoners of state, and other delinquents.

Goyam, or Gojam, is a very mountanious country, and principally inhabited by Jews, who are said to retain their ancient rites and customs. In the town of Nebessa are the ruins of a magnificent church.

Dambea, being one of the flattest provinces of Abyssinia, is subject to overflowings, not only from the lake of the same name, but several rivers that run through it from the higher lands. It is remarkable for a mountain called Dancafer Dancaton, on the top of which is a spacious and fertile plain, where the emperors are said to have formerly resided. In Dambea there are the remains of several monasteries and monuments.

Narea, or Enarea, is in general a fertile province, producing cattle, and the ordinary necessaries of life. The inhabitants carry on some trade with the Caffrees. Gondar, in point of magnitude, is a considerable town. The inhabitants have no shops, but expose their goods to sale in a large square, on mats prepared for the purpose,

SECTION V.

Brief Historical Account of Abyssinia.

THE historical transactions of this empire are, in general, vague in their detail, and unimportant in their nature. According to ancient records, from which Jesuit missionaries, who resided here, obtained some fragments, the first who ruled the empire of Abyssinia was the queen of Sheba, who went from thence into Judea, in or about the year before Christ, 992. She reigned 25 years after her return, and was succeeded by her son Menilehech, who reigned in conjunction with his father 29 years, and 18 more with his son Rehoboam, after which he died.

He was succeeded by his son Sadgur, from whom proceeded, in lineal decent, 24 princes, of either of whom no particulars are recorded, except that in the eighth year of the last, called Phecen, our Saviour was born, A. M. 4004.

From this period, to the year 327, were 13 emperors, of whom nothing is recorded. After this circumstance the empire was held jointly by three brothers, called Atza, Atzfed, and Amay. These, it is said, in order to prevent discord, projected a very strange expedient, which was to divide the day into three parts, and to hold the reins of government alternately, each his third part, or eight hours.

These monarchs were succeeded by several others, of whom there is only an account of the three last, which is, that, during their reigns, great numbers of monks and anchorites came hither from Egypt, with a view of propogating Christianity and a monastic life.

In process of time, about the year after Christ 521, when Justinian was emperor of Rome, and Cabel of Abyssinia, new tribes of monks came and settled in the province of Tigra. The throne of Abyssinia continued in the same line of succession till about the year 960, when it passed into the Zagean family; and an usurpation, commenced by an impious woman named Tredda Cabex, continued for 340 years.

The only prince worthy of mention in the Zagean family was Lalibela, who eternized his name by many glorious actions, and particularly in causing ten churches to be hewn out of a rock.

About the year 1300 the Zagean family was driven from the throne, and it reverted to the descendants of Solomon, in the person of Icon Amlac, of whose successors nothing is recorded till the time of Zaara Jacob, who began his reign in 1437, and died in 1465, greatly esteemed, as a man of learning, penetration, and probity.

During the reign of Alexander, which was from 1475 to 1491, Peter Covillan arrived in the empire of Abyssinia, and was the first Portuguese that ever penetrated so far into the inland parts of the country.

The next emperor in whose reign any thing remarkable occurred was Etana-Denghel, or Lebna-Denghel but more generally known by the names of Onag-Segued. He began his reign in 1507, and closed it in the year 1540. The first twenty years were happy and prosperous, but the last 13 proved distracted and unfortunate, through the depredations made on his dominions by the Moors, which occasioning him to have recourse to the Portuguese for assistance, raised jealousies in the minds of his subjects, and excited perpetual commotions in the empire, till he yielded up his crown and life in the 42d year of his age.

Succeeding princes, for a long series of years, were harrassed by the Gallas and Mahometan Moors, or the revolts of their own subjects; though they generally derived aid and assistance from the Portuguese. Some were slain contending for the empire, some were murdered by their own soldiers, and others were dethroned through various revolutions, till the year 1718, when the Abyssinians raised a prince named David to the throne, whose successors have regularly assumed the imperial dignity, and quietly enjoyed their honors from that time to the present.

The Portuguese had made frequent and strenuous efforts, throughout a long course of time, to establish their religion in Abyssinia, till at length the greater part of the people, zealously attached to their ancient religion sacrificed several Romish priests to their fury, and their patriarch very narrowly escaped out of the country with his life.

CHAP. XVI.

THE GALLAS, A BARBAROUS NATION ON THE CONFINES OF ABYSSINIA.

BORDERING on Abyssinia is a barbarous and warlike nation called the Gallas, concerning whose origin writers in general do not agree; though there are many particulars respecting their disposition, customs, and manners, in which their accounts concur.

The Gallas are divided into tribes or provinces according to their respective situations, as eastern, southern, and western. They are a robust, hardy, and resolute people, and of a very ferocious disposition. The natural hardiness and ferocity being increased by an

an early initiation in the military art, they may be deemed rather cruel than martial. They are taught the uſe of the ſword, and made to believe that conqueſt entitles them to the poſſeſſion of whatever they deſire, and is the only effectual means of preſerving it. In a word, they are trained up to the love of deſperate atchievements, and to look upon death with contempt.

As, by their maxims, the cutting off their hair conſtitutes them men, the young males are not permitted to receive that honour till they have deſerved it, either by killing an enemy, or ſome wild beaſt, ſuch as a lion, tiger, leopard, &c. after which they are allowed to cut their hair, leaving only a ſingle lock on the top. This inſpires them with an uncommon ambition to ſignalize themſelves by their bravery, as the moſt effectual means of acquiring eſteem, and obtaining the more honourable ſeats at their councils, feſtivals, &c. for the greater number of heroic actions they perform, the more are they reſpected. For this reaſon they take care to ſave all the heads of thoſe enemies they have killed, as trophies of the greateſt value; and when any conteſt or doubt ariſes about them, (which is ſometimes the caſe) as when there is no beard upon them, and they may be ſuppoſed to have belonged to a female, they have a law which obliges the perſon to produce a more deciſive part along with it, otherwiſe they are not admitted. To prevent, therefore, all diſputes, they are obliged to lay thoſe trophies that are gained in battle before their proper officers, at the head of their tribes, as ſoon as the engagement is over: there they are publicly viewed and examined, and, if approved, are entered into the common regiſter; after which the owner has liberty to carry them to his own tent, together with his ſhare of the ſpoil or plunder, which is allotted to him in proportion to the degree in which he has diſtinguiſhed himſelf in the engagement. By this method all colluſion and deceit is prevented, or elſe diſcovered and puniſhed; it being conſidered as every man's duty to detect all falſe pretences to merit, as well as that of their commanding officers, who inflict a puniſhment on the delinquent adequate to the falſities he may have endeavoured to impoſe.

Thoſe who ſhew the leaſt ſigns of cowardice are puniſhed in the moſt exemplary manner. It is death to give way after an engagement is begun; ſo that they all fight with the moſt undaunted courage and reſolution, and are ſo furious in the attack, not giving or taking any quarter, that it is hardly poſſible to make head againſt them; and this is the reaſon why they have obtained ſo many ſignal victories over the Abyſſinians, though the latter are much ſuperior in number, and better provided both with horſes and arms.

In diſtant engagements they uſe bows, arrows, and darts, and are very expert in the exerciſe of thoſe weapons. When they come to cloſe quarters, they have a club, or rather bludgeon, remarkably heavy at one end. They have alſo ſhields made of the hides of buffalos: but thoſe of higher rank inſtead of a club uſe a ſword.

With reſpect to government, they have no kings, but are divided into a great variety of tribes, each of which chooſes a chief, or general commander, whom they call Luva, and him they obey as a ſovereign. Theſe chiefs are choſen every eight years, and if any of them die in the time, others are immediately elected to ſupply their place. Their authority reaches only to military affairs, that is, to convene the great council at proper ſeaſons to determine on peace and war. When the latter is the reſult of their meeting, each Luva heads his own army, and diſtributes to the reſpective officers under him their ſeveral poſts and commands. In like manner, when the war or expedition is over, he aſſigns to each man his proper honours and rewards, according to his merit; but if any diſpute, or matter of complaint, ariſes, it is adjudged by the national council, who alone have a power to confirm, alter, or abrogate, the ſentence or decree of the Luva.

As an inſtance of the pomp and parade of theſe octennial chiefs, a traveller of character and diſcernment relates the following particulars. "Being (ſays he) obliged to pay my reſpects to the Luva, or chief, in order to diſcover a new way into Abyſſinia, I found him with all his wives and flocks about him; the place where he received me being a hut thatched with ſtraw, but ſomewhat larger than thoſe of his ſubjects. He appeared with all the ſeeming conſequence of an eaſtern monarch, and his attendants paid him the moſt reverential reſpect. His manner of giving audience to ſtrangers is ſomewhat ſingular: he appears ſeated in the middle of the apartment, with all his courtiers about him, ſitting againſt the wall, each with a goad or ſtaff, or club in his hand, longer or ſhorter, according to his rank; the longer are the more dignified. As ſoon as the ſtranger enters the place, all theſe courtiers fall foul of him, and baſtinado him till he has regained the door, and got hold of it with his hand; upon which they return to their ſeats, and he is complimented as if nothing like it had been done to him. I, myſelf, (ſays he) did not fare one jot better, notwithſtanding the peaceable and friendly offices that had paſſed between us: and when I aſked the meaning of ſo ſtrange a ceremony, I was anſwered, that it was to make thoſe that came among them ſenſible of the valour and bravery of their nation above all others, and how reaſonable it is for them to behave ſubmiſſively to it.

Theſe people, who are as indolent as they are proud, wholly neglect agriculture, ſo that the food of their cattle is derived from the ſpontaneous productions of their ſpacious plains and vallies. They attend to their cattle, indeed, for the ſake of their fleſh, which they eat raw, and is their principal food. They have neither bread, nor any thing elſe to ſupply the want of that neceſſary article. When they meet with any in their warlike excurſions, they eat it with great rapacity; and though they admire it, yet they will not trouble themſelves to cultivate the grain to make it.

The Gallas have long harraſſed the Abyſſinians, committed great depredations on them, and rendered themſelves maſters of ſeveral of their back ſettlements.

Though of a ferocious diſpoſition, they poſſeſs ſome good qualities, being honeſt and true to their promiſe, and never known to violate an oath. They conſider this as the moſt ſolemn of all engagements, the ceremony of which is thus performed: They bring a ſheep to a proper place appointed, where they anoint it with butter; after which the perſons, or, if it be taken in the name of the tribe or family, the heads of it lay their hands upon the head of the ſheep, and ſolemnly proteſt that they will religiouſly obſerve every part of their engagement. They offer as a reaſon for the inſtitution of this ceremony, that as the ſheep is in ſome ſenſe the mother of all that ſwear, and butter is an emblem of the love that ſubſiſts between the mother and the children, that oath ought to be held inviolate that is taken upon the head of a mother. Such are the principles, maxims, and cuſtoms of theſe barbarians.

CHAP. XVII.

Deſcription of the Coaſt of ABEX or HABESH, of the Towns upon it, and the Dignity of the King.

THIS coaſt once formed a part of the empire of Abyſſinia; but at the beginning of the laſt century it fell into the hands of the Turks, who, at the ſame time, made themſelves maſters of all the bays and ports belonging to it; ſo that ever ſince, the Abyſſinians have been cut off from all communication with the Red Sea.

The climate of this coaſt being very ſultry, and the ſoil in general ſandy and barren, the produce muſt of courſe be ſcanty. Here are many animals, tame and wild; and they have ſome deer and ſheep; but grain of every kind is brought from other parts. The country here labours under a dearth of water.

This coaſt is divided into two parts, the northern and the ſouthern. The towns of the northern are Suakin and Arkiko. The former is the reſidence of the governor, and is pretty large and populous. The latter has a caſtle, but it is ſmall, and poorly inhabited. The ſouthern reaches to the end of the coaſt, and includes the province of Dancali, of which Abex is the capital. Of this part little can be ſaid worthy of notice, but that its chief produce is ſalt. Here is a ſea-port called Balyur, at which the Portugueſe miſſionaries firſt landed; and as their reception and treatment from the Chief, or king, were rather ſingular, we ſhall preſent the reader with a relation of them.

As ſoon as the king heard of their arrival, he ſent to invite the patriarch (or principal miſſionary) and his retinue to his court, which was about three or four days journey from Balyur, and diſpatched his own ſon to meet them in the way, and conduct them to the royal palace, or rather camp, which they found to conſiſt only of half a dozen tents, with about a ſcore huts fenced in with a thorn hedge, and ſhaded by ſome wild kind of trees.

The hall of audience, where they were received by the king, was a large tent or hut, about a muſket ſhot from the reſt. At the upper end was a kind of throne about two feet from the ground, made of ſtone and clay, and covered with a carpet and two velvet cuſhions. At the other end, oppoſite to the throne, was the king's horſe, with the ſaddle, and other accoutrements ſuſpended on one ſide. Round the hall were about fifty young men ſitting croſs-legged on the ground; and when the Portugueſe miſſionaries were admitted, they were made to ſit down in the ſame poſture.

In a ſhort time the king entered the hall, preceded by ſome of his domeſtics, one of whom carried an earthen pitcher full of hydromel, or wine made of honey; another a drinking-cup made of porcelain; a third carried a cocoa-nut ſhell filled with tobacco; and a fourth a ſilver tobacco-pipe and ſome fire. Next to them came the king, dreſſed in a light ſilk ſtuff, with a turban on his head, from the edges of which hung a parcel of rings, that dangled before his forehead. Inſtead of a ſceptre, he held in his hand a ſhort kind of javelin. He was followed by all the chief officers of his court and houſehold; and among them were his lord high ſteward, the ſuperintendant of his finances, and the captain of his guard. The reſpect paid him at his coming in was by ſtanding on their feet, and ſquatting down again twice; after which they went towards the throne to kiſs his hand. The audience was ſhort, but full of the moſt bombaſtic profeſſion of love and eſteem on his ſide, and of reſpect and gratitude on theirs: but this behaviour ſoon altered; for when, on the next morning, they came to make their preſents to him, inſtead of the king's accepting them, the patriarch, who was the perſon that brought them to him, met with a ſevere reprimand, for daring to affront a monarch like him with ſuch trifling preſents, and was bid to take them away out of his ſight. The patriarch readily obeyed, without betraying either fear, or any other emotion than that of diſdain, after having given him to underſtand, that they were of more value than he ought to have expected from religious perſons, who had renounced the world, and forſaken their native country, for the ſake of carrying their religion into the Abyſſinian empire; and told him at parting, that ſince he did not think them worth his acceptance, the next he ſent for from them ſhould be much leſs valuable.

This ſpirited behaviour of the patriarch greatly ſurpriſed the king, who ſuffered him to go away with the preſents; but being unwilling to loſe them, ſent one of his officers to fetch them back, with orders to inſiſt upon ſome addition being made to them. He was glad, however, to take them as they were, the patriarch, on his ſide, inſiſting upon retrenching them; ſo that when they were brought again, the greedy monarch received them with viſible marks of diſſatisfaction and reſentment. The diſguſt in which he held them on this account was ſoon evinced; for he not only detained them, upon ſome pretence or other, longer at his court than was neceſſary for getting things ready for their departure, but privately forbid his ſubjects to ſell them any kinds of proviſions at any price; ſo that they muſt have been obliged either to ſatiate his avarice by larger preſents, or have been in danger of ſtarving, had it not been for the ſpirited patriarch, who expoſtulated with him on the impropriety of his conduct, and at the ſame time threatened him with the emperor's reſentment. Notwithſtanding this, however, he not only poſtponed their departure from day to day, but ſuffered them to be inſulted by his ſubjects, in hopes of finding ſome pretences for extorting from them farther preſents for their diſmiſſion. To avoid this, the only expedient they could find, was to bribe one of his favourite miniſters with a valuable gift, who ſoon after obtained their audience of leave, and ſuch ſupplies of carriages, proviſions, &c. as were neceſſary to proceed on their embaſſy to the Abyſſinian court. But before their departure they were obliged to compliment all the officers of the Dancali court, from the moſt elevated to the loweſt.

CHAP. XVIII.

NUBIA, OR SENNAR.

THE kingdom of Nubia is bounded on the north by Egypt, on the ſouth by Abyſſinia, on the eaſt by the Red Sea, and on the weſt by Goaga. It is 940 miles in length, and 600 in breadth. The river Nile runs through it; on the banks of which, and thoſe of ſome other rivers, it is pretty fertile; but in other places it is barren, ſandy, and deſtitute of water.

The inhabitants of Nubia are, in general, low in ſtature, but ſtout and courageous. They are quite black, and their faces much diſfigured, not only by the flatneſs

neſs of their noſes, but by the marks of the ſmall-pox, that diſeaſe being ſo prevalent here, that they frequently have it twice or three times.

Their dreſs is much the ſame as that of the Ethiopians. They are greatly addicted to drunkenneſs; are avaricious, baſe, and deſigning; and pride themſelves not only in cheating ſtrangers, but each other. The principal part of them are Mahometans; but they pay as little regard to religion as to honour and honeſty. Thoſe who live in towns or cities employ themſelves chiefly in commerce; but ſuch as reſide in the villages follow huſbandry and fiſhing.

The king of Nubia is deſpotic. He has a ſpacious palace, which is ſumptuouſly furniſhed. He is very fond of ſhooting, and frequently takes excurſions with his nobility in purſuit of that diverſion. He and his chief nobles attend four days in the week to buſineſs of ſtate; at which times they alſo adminiſter juſtice in all caſes, whether of a civil or criminal nature. This they do with great expedition, eſpecially in the latter caſe, where, if the perſon be found guilty, ſentence is no ſooner paſſed than executed. For trifling matters they are puniſhed with the baſtinado; but in caſes of murder and treaſon they are put to death, the manner of doing which is by laying the criminal on his back, and beating him on the breaſt with a ſtick till he expires, which, from the ſeverity of the ſtrokes, is generally effected in a very ſhort time.

The language of the Nubians, though peculiar to themſelves, bears ſome kind of affinity to the Arabic.

The principal towns here are Nubia or Sennar, the capital, and Dungala. The former is ſpacious and populous, and abounds with proviſions. The inhabitants carry on ſome trade here with thoſe of the neighbouring town, as well as of Cairo, and other parts of Egypt.

Dungala is a conſiderable town, but the houſes are low and mean. The inhabitants carry on ſome foreign trade.

Here are other towns and villages, of which thoſe ſituated near the Nile are tolerably pleaſant, but the reſt are poor, wretched, and unhealthy ſpots.

CHAP. XIX.

EGYPT.

THERE is not a more ſtriking inſtance of the mutability of all ſublunary objects, and the effects produced by the revolutions of time, than what may be diſplayed on a comparative view of the former and preſent ſtate of the country we are about to deſcribe.

Egypt might once be deemed the metropolis of the world, the ſeat of ſcience, the nurſery of the arts, and grand reſervoir of curious productions, If conſidered in relation to what conſtitutes the real power of a ſtate, it is now become feeble, the arts ceaſe to be cultivated, and nothing remains but the ſhadow of what it has been.

Notwithſtanding, however, the depredations of time, we cannot ſurvey the extent and magnificence of its ruins, without reflecting with pleaſure on the means by which it had once attained to ſuch a pinnacle of grandeur. There are ſtill remaining memorials which ages cannot deſtroy, which have reſiſted revolutions, and demonſtrate that in Egypt the greateſt kings endeavoured to acquire fame by undertakings the moſt arduous for the benefit of their country. In a word, from a general ſurvey of a ſpot as renowned as any upon the globe, the mind cannot but derive moſt rational entertainment.

SECTION I.

Name, Situation, Extent, Diviſions, Climate, Soil, particular Deſcription of the river Nile, Mountains, &c.

THE opinions of authors concerning the origin of the name of this country are various: the moſt probable is that it was called Egypt from a Greek word ſignifying a vulture, a bird of a blackiſh hue, alluding to the blackneſs of its ſoil, and the ſable colour of its inhabitants.

Egypt is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean Sea, on the ſouth by Abyſſinia or upper Ethiopia, on the eaſt by the Red Sea, and on the weſt by the Deſart of Barca, and unknown parts of Africa. It is computed at 600 miles in length, and 250 in breadth, and is ſituated between 20 and 32 degrees of north latitude, and 28 and 36 degrees of eaſt longitude.

Some geographers divide this country into two parts, the Upper and Lower Egypt; others into three, viz. The Upper, properly ſo called, or Thebais; the Middle, or Heptanomis; and the Lower Egypt, called alſo Delta. We ſhall, in the courſe of our deſcription adopt the latter mode, as moſt explanatory.

The climate of Egypt muſt be very warm from its being contiguous to the tropic of Cancer, as well as from its ſandy ſoil. Though the air is generally dry, yet great dews fall after the ſwelling of the Nile, which continue for ſome months. In the Delta, or Lower Egypt, it ſometimes rains a little in the winter; but in the Upper, towards the cataracts, ſeldom or ever. The firſt ſummer (for they reckon two) which is March, April, and May, is the moſt ſickly ſeaſon, becauſe the changeable weather, exceſſive heats, and hot winds, cauſe diſtempers: but in the ſecond, viz. June, July, and Auguſt, and in autumn and winter, they breathe a cooler air, the weather is more fixed, and the country of courſe more pleaſant. The coldeſt ſeaſon is in February, when the opulent people wear furs. The north called by the ancients the Eteſian wind, begins to blow towards the cloſe of May, greatly refreſhes the air, and thereby conduces to the health and happineſs of the inhabitants.

The fertility of Egypt, and the excellence of its productions, are particularly mentioned by the ancients, and by Moſes himſelf, Gen. xiii. 10. Its great fertility is derived from the overflowing of the Nile. This celebrated river, called by the ancients Abanchi, ſignifying in the Abyſſian language, *The Father of Rivers*, has it ſources in Ethiopia. It enters Egypt almoſt under the tropic of Cancer, croſſes it from ſouth to north, to about four leagues below Cairo, where, dividing itſelf into two branches, it forms the Iſland of Delta. It is likewiſe only towards the extremity of this iſland, which the Egyptians name, in Arabic, Batn-el Bacara, (the belly of the cow) that the plains on each ſide the Nile, ſhut in by the higher grounds, are capable of cultivation.

The river paſſes violently down ſeven cataracts, from a very conſiderable height between rugged rocks and precipes, with ſo great a noiſe as to be heard ſeveral miles off. The people of thoſe parts uſed formerly to entertain ſtrangers with a ſurpriſing ſpectacle, which is but ſeldom now practiſed. Two of them get into a ſmall boat, one to guide it, and the other to bale it clear of the water. After having borne the violence of the agitated waves for ſome time, they dexterouſly ſteer their boat through the narrow channel, thereby avoiding the rocks, and letting themſelves be carried down by the falling river, direct their little boat with their hands, and ruſhing headlong, to the great terror of the ſpectators, who think them utterly loſt and ſwallowed up, they appear again on the water, far from the place from

from which they fell, as if they had been ſhot out of an engine.

The annual inundation of the Nile in a country where it ſcarcely ever rains, and which the heat of the climate, and the very nature of the ſoil, ſeem to have devoted to perpetual drought and ſterility, is, without doubt, a moſt ſurpriſing phœnomenon.

Though the river begins to ſwell in May, no public notice is taken of it till about the 20th of June. The progreſs of the inundation is obſerved at the Nilometer, or Mekias, as called by the Arabs, ſituated at the ſouthern point of the Iſle of Rhoda, oppoſite Old Cairo. This Nilometer is an octagonal column of white marble, divided into 22 equal parts, and all, except the 2d from the bottom, are ſubdivided into 24 inches. Public criers, diſtributed in each quarter of the capital, every day make known to the public the riſing of the waters, till they are come to the height proper for opening the grand canal, by which they are conveyed to the middle of the city, and the ciſterns. The height of the inundation is uſually 16 cubits, or 24 feet; the Egyptian cubit being a foot and a half. If it exceeds that height, it does much miſchief, not only by overflowing houſes and drowning cattle, but alſo by engendering a great number of inſects, which deſtroy the fruits of the earth. The cry Oof-Allah, ſignifying *God has kept his promiſe*, proclaims the opening of the canal. Children, bearing ſtreamers of different colours, accompany the crier, and diffuſe a general joy at the certainty of plenty, and the event is celebrated with univerſal feſtivity.

The ancient Egyptians had the barbarous cuſtom of ſacrificing a young girl to the river, when the waters roſe to a ſufficient height for opening the canal.

Here it is to be obſerved, that the Grand Seignior is not entitled to his annual tribute till the canal is opened at Grand Cairo; and when it is opened, if the waters are not 16 cubits high, the people refuſe the payment of the tribute.

As the river cannot of itſelf overflow the lands every where in the neceſſary proportion, they have cut canals, and formed a variety of engines, for the purpoſe of conveyance. There are alſo a number of wells, from which the water is drawn to water the gardens and fruit-trees. Numbers of oxen are daily employed in this ſingle labour, beſides the men, who draw water in wicker baſkets, ſo cloſed and well lined, that not a drop runs through.

It is remarkable that while other rivers carry off the heart of the lands they overflow, the Nile, by the mud or ſlime it brings down with it, fattens the earth, and renders it fruitful. The water muſt be purified before it is drank. This is done by mixing bitter almonds, pounded to duſt, in a jar full of water, and kept turning with the arm for ſome minutes. It is then left to ſettle, and, in five or ſix hours, the noxious particles ſubſide to the bottom of the veſſel, and the water becomes limpid and excellent.

When the Nile is returned within its banks, the canals ſupply the people and cattle with water, which maidens are continually to be ſeen fetching thence, according to the ancient cuſtom ſo often taken notice of in Scripture.

It was, without doubt, to provide againſt thoſe years when the Nile does not overflow a great part of the country, that the ancient ſovereigns of Egypt cut ſo many canals, the principal of which are ſtill kept in order, but the greater part neglected, and conſequently one half of the country is deprived of cultivation. Thoſe that convey the water to Cairo, into the province of Fayoom, and to Alexandria, are moſt attended to by government. An officer is appointed to watch this laſt, and hinder the Arabs, who receive the ſuperfluous waters of this canal, from turning them off before Alexandria is provided, or opening the canal before the time fixed, which would hinder the increaſe of the Nile. That which conveys the waters into Fayoom is watched in like manner, and cannot be opened before that of Cairo, which is called the canal of Trajan.

There are great numbers of paſſage-boats upon the Nile; and as ſoon as night draws on, the paſſengers betake themſelves to their arms; for the river often ſwarms with pirates, who attack boats under favour of darkneſs, aſſaſſinate paſſengers that are off their guard, and ſeize their effects.

The mountains four leagues from the Nile, and facing Cairo, are a ridge of rocks of 40 or 50 feet high, divide the plains of Libya, and ſeem as if only intended to ſerve as a bank to the general inundation. At the ſummit of the angle of Delta the rocks of Libya, and the coaſts of Arabia, open to the view, and appear to recede from each other towards the eaſt and weſt. This great extent of country, from the kingdom of Barca, is either inundated by the river, or at leaſt liable ſo to be.

SECTION II.

Natural Productions of Egypt, Vegetable, Animal, &c.

FROM the facility with which the country is watered, and the richneſs of the ſoil, the Egyptians have not the laborious taſk of ploughing, digging, or breaking the clods; but when the water has retired, they have only to mingle a little ſand with the earth to abate its ſtrength, tempering the dryneſs of the ſand with dung; after which they ſow with little pains, and almoſt without charge. They ſow the ſpring corn and vegetables ordinarily in October and November, as the waters fall. Within two months the ground is covered with all ſorts of grain and pulſe, as wheat, rice, barley, beans, &c. With barley they feed their cattle, and make an intoxicating kind of liquor by fermentation, which is the common drink of the lower claſs of people. Their harveſt is in March or April. They have alſo ſugar-canes, melons, dates, figs, cucumbers, and other vegetables, which they eat in hot weather as cooling food. As they have no common graſs, they ſupply the want of it by ſowing their land with clover. The lotus is an aquatic plant peculiar to Egypt, which grows in rivulets, and by the ſides of lakes. There are two ſpecies, the one bearing a white, and the other a blueiſh flower.

Moſt of their trees, eſpecially thoſe in their gardens, are exotics. Their moſt common trees are the ſount, which bears a pod uſed inſtead of bark in tanning of leather; the tamariſk, Pharaoh's fig, the ſycamore of the ancients, the palm or date tree, and another ſpecies of the palm called the dome-tree. The papyrus is a production of Egypt, though it is not ſo plentiful as formerly, the inhabitants having greatly diminiſhed the quantity by digging up the roots for fuel. This reed grew chiefly on the borders of the Nile, and ſerved the ancients for the purpoſe of writing upon. Hence the origin of the word *paper*. The bark was divided into thin flakes; theſe were laid flat on a ſmooth ſurface, moiſtened with the glutinous waters of the Nile, compreſſed together, and then dried in the ſun for uſe. One ſort of the flax of this reed was ſo very fine, and they dreſſed and ſpun it ſo curiouſly, that the threads could ſcarce be ſeen. It grew in ſuch plenty, that they had not only enough to cloath their prieſts, who wore nothing elſe, but perſons of rank in general.

Of animals there are wild and tame oxen, camels, aſſes, goats, and ſheep, of which there is great plenty. The buffalos, in the hot ſeaſon, live in the Nile, lying among the waters up to the neck, and feeding upon the herbs that grow upon the banks. There are vaſt numbers of antelopes, and a large kind of ape, with a head ſomewhat like a dog's, whence it was called cynocephalus. Camelions are common in this country. There are alſo tigers, hyænas, wolves, foxes, &c.

The crocodile, the moſt celebrated of all the Egyptian animals, is terrible either on land or in the water, but more particularly ſo in the latter element. They are often ſeen baſking themſelves on ſunny banks, where they lay for many hours motionleſs, and exactly reſemble the trunk of a tree. On the approach of any living

living creature, they dart upon it, run to the water, and immediately plunge to the bottom with their prey. During the floods they ſometimes enter the cottages of the natives, and furiouſly ſeize upon man, woman, or child, cattle, domeſtic animals, &c. Indeed, inſtances have been known of their taking a man out of a canoe, and diving to the bottom, without its being in the power of thoſe who were in ſight to afford him any aſſiſtance.

All the parts of the crocodile are remarkably ſtrong; the teeth are exceeding ſharp; and, above all, the tail is ſingularly dreadful; with a blow from this, it can overturn a boat, or ſtun the ſtrongeſt animal. Many ridiculous ſtories have been told concerning this creature. Some have proceeded from travellers taking the moſt abſurd tales upon truſt, which we ſhall therefore reject, as being determined to adhere only to matters duly authenticated.

Crocodiles are not fond of ſalt water, but love to continue in rivers. They lay their eggs in the ſand, having previouſly dug a hole with their fore paws to depoſit them in. Having delivered ſome of their burden, they cover up the place with great care, and then retire. The next day they return again, uncover the place, lay about the ſame number of eggs, and then retire till the enſuing day, when they repeat the ſame for the laſt time, and then finally cloſe the hole.

As ſoon as the eggs are vivified by the heat of the ſun, which happens at the expiration of thirty days, the young ones begin to break the ſhell. The mother, by inſtinct, goes at the ſame time to aſſiſt them by ſcratching away the ſand. The moment they are at liberty, the ſtrongeſt make towards the water, and the reſt mount upon the back of the mother, who carries them ſafely to it. "But the moment they arrive at the water (ſays a late authentic traveller) all natural connection ceaſes: when the female has introduced her young to their natural element, ſhe and the male become among the number of their moſt formidable enemies, and devour as many of them as they can: the whole brood ſcatters into different parts at the bottom, and by far the greateſt number are deſtroyed."

This animal is not only an enemy to its own ſpecies, but is at univerſal enmity with all other living creatures. Man is its profeſſed foe, and kills it to prevent its depredations, as well as to eat it. Indeed its fleſh is but indifferent food, though the eggs are deemed great delicacies, and are ſought after with avidity, not only by man, but by many beaſts, and birds of prey. The vulture is particularly ſucceſsful in deſtroying its eggs, which they effect by the following ſtratagem: they hide themſelves among the ruſhes and ſhrubs about the banks of thoſe waters where the crocodile inhabits; then watching till ſhe has depoſited her eggs, they go to the place as ſoon as ſhe retires, ſcratch away the ſand, and feaſt upon the ſpoil. At other times, when they have not diſcovered a crocodile's neſt, they are equally deſtructive to the young fry as they run to the water.

The Ichneumon, or rat of Pharaoh, is another terrible enemy to the crocodile ſpecies, as it deſtroys both eggs and young fry with great avidity. On account of this peculiar excellency, as the inhabitants of this country have a juſt right to eſteem it, together with the reſt of its perfections, for it is equally deſtructive to camelions, ſerpents, frogs, rats, mice, and moſt obnoxious animals and reptiles that it is able to maſter; the ancient Egyptians deified it, and held it in the utmoſt veneration. This animal, with reſpect to ſhape and colour, reſembles a badger. It has a ſnout like a hog, with which it routs up the earth and ſand; the noſe is prominent, and the ears ſhort and round. It is of a yelloviſh colour at all times, except when angry; but if provoked, it briſtles up its hairs like a porcupine, and then appears of two colours, which are white and yellow, that run in diſtinct ſtreaks. The legs are black, the tail long, and the tongue and teeth like thoſe of a cat. It is an amphibious creature, can bear to remain under water much longer than the otter, and is bold, active, and nimble; but that it creeps down the throat of the crocodile, and gnaws its inteſtines, is intirely fabulous, and was one of the errors of oral information, when conjectures were relied on more than facts, and common report believed without having recourſe to experiments.

The Chriſtians ride upon aſſes, through the compulſion of the Turks. The hippopotamus, or river horſe, an amphibious animal, reſembling an ox in its hinder parts, with the head like a horſe, is found in Upper Egypt. The animals of this country ſeem to partake of the fecundity of the ſoil, as they are remarkably prolific.

In Egypt there are birds of various kinds, as the oſtrich, the eagle, the hawk, the pelican, the flamingo, the ſtork, the wild gooſe, &c. &c. The moſt remarkable are the following.

The ibis is ſo peculiar to Egypt, that it pines and dies away if carried out of that country, but is much eſteemed for the great uſe it is of in deſtroying certain noxious inſects which the ſouth winds bring from the deſarts of Libya.

The Egyptian ſtork (which ſome have erroneouſly ſuppoſed to be the ibis) has no voice, or at leaſt makes no other noiſe than what is occaſioned by its ſtriking the under and upper chaps together very forcibly. There is one peculiar quality in the ſtork, which ſeems more forcible than in any other living creature, viz. an uncommon degree of filial affection. The ſingular veneration of this bird for its parent was obſerved in the earlieſt ages; hence it was called in Hebrew chefidah, a word which implies compaſſion and piety; and in Greek it was termed ſtorge, which ſignifies natural affection. From the latter it is probable that the Engliſh word ſtork came to us, through the medium of our Saxon anceſtors.

This bird has a long bill, and long red legs, which are peculiarly adapted to the nature of its getting its prey; for as it ſeeks for ſerpents, frogs, &c. in wet and marſhy places, its long legs ſerve as ſtilts; and as it flies away with its food to its neſt, its long bill, which is jagged, enables it to ſecure it. It lays but four eggs, and ſits only thirty days. Its filial piety has been the admiration of all ages, and drawn the attention of the moſt judicious and learned. One of the ſeven wiſe men, when Crœſus aſked him which was the moſt happy animal, replied, "The ſtork: becauſe (ſaid he) it performs what is juſt and right by nature, without any compulſive law."

The Egyptian pelican, with reſpect to ſize and ſhape, reſembles a ſwan. Its colour, however, is not ſo pure a white, nor is the beak ſimilar, the latter being about a foot in length, and very thick, the colour blue and yellow, and the point ſharp. The upper chap is formed like the ſame part in moſt other birds, but the lower is unlike any thing appertaining to the reſt of the feathered race: it does not conſiſt of one ſolid piece, but is compoſed of two long flat pieces, connected by a membrane which extends to the throat, but is flabby and looſe, on which account it is capable of containing a vaſt quantity of proviſion.

The oſtrich is a very large bird, being uſually ſeven feet in height from the top of the head to the ground; but the neck itſelf is ſo long, that it comprizes three of thoſe feet. From the top of the head to the rump, when the neck is ſtretched out in a right line, it is about ſix feet; and the tail is twelve inches in length. The wings are exceeding ſtrong, but at the ſame time they are too ſhort to enable the bird to fly, though they ſerve as ſails, and aſſiſt it to run with great expedition. The plumage is black, white, or grey: the large feathers at the extremities of the wings and tail are white, the others are black and white intermixed. The ſides and thighs have no feathers, nor are there any under the wings. All the feathers of oſtriches are ſoft as down. Dr. Brooke, in his Natural Hiſtory, ſays, "An oſtrich is the moſt greedy bird that is known, for it will devour leather, graſs, bread, hair, metals, or any thing elſe

that is given him. However, he does not digeſt iron and ſtones, as ſome have pretended, but voids them whole. Theſe ſubſtances enter into the gizzard. A remarkable inſtance of this occurred in an oſtrich belonging to a Morocco ambaſſador here, and intended as a preſent to the king's menagerie. I, among many others, went to ſee it, when it plucked off the braſs ſhell of a button from a gentleman's coat, and ſwallowed it: a few days afterwards it ſickened and died, when, upon opening it, the button was found in the gizzard, which it had gangrened."

The lakes of Delta, near the ſea, afford great quantities of fiſh, but not in great variety, there not being above ſeven or eight ſorts, two of which the Egyptians ſalt and ſend in large ſtores to Syria, Cyprus, and Conſtantinople. The bed of the Nile being very full of mud and ſlime communicates a muddy taſte to the fiſh that feed in it. They have various methods of catching the fiſh, but the moſt curious and ſingular is that with a bird. When the fiſhermen have ſet up their long nets, which they draw quite round, they let two tame pelicans ſwim in the lake, having faſtened a thread to their eye-lids, by means of which they can tie up their eyes during the whole fiſhery. The fiſhermen are obliged to take this precaution, in order to prevent the birds from eating too many fiſh. The pelican, having a ſtrong ſcent, purſues the fiſh around him, and the people on its ſides prevent them from getting away by driving them into the nets.

The dolphins, which are very numerous, eſpecially in the Mendeſian mouth, purſue the fiſh, which makes them take refuge in little ponds full of weeds; as ſoon as they are got into theſe ponds they cannot eſcape, becauſe the fiſhermen ſhut up the entrance into the lake with nets. The fiſhermen, who reap ſo great an advantage from thoſe purſuits of the dolphins, almoſt look upon it as a miracle, and they are ignorant enough to take the dolphins to be ſome good ſpirits ſent on purpoſe to do them this ſervice.

There are various kinds of reptiles here. The horned viper, ſo called from having a kind of horns, is of excellent uſe in medicine. There is a ſerpent of great bulk called Thaibanne, and ſeveral ſorts of aſps, whoſe poiſons have different effects, though finally all are mortal. There are ſwarms of gnats and muſquitos in the air and in the houſes, which greatly annoy the inhabitants.

Having thus treated of the natural productions of this country, we ſhall proceed to conſider it in a diſtinct point of view, beginning, as propoſed, with Upper-Egypt, or Thebais.

SECTION III.

UPPER EGYPT, OR THEBAIS.

THEBAIS, ſo called by the Greeks from Thebes, its metropolis, is the moſt ſouthern part of Egypt, next to Ethiopia, and nearly as large as all the reſt, including the country on both ſides the Nile down to Heptanomis. There were formerly in this part of Egypt a number of large and magnificent cities beſides Thebes, Lycopolis, Abydus, Tentyris, Hermonthis, Latopolis, Coptus, Anteopolis, &c. &c. In theſe were temples of ſeveral deities, and tombs of their ancient princes.

Some late travellers inform us there are not only ſeveral obeliſks and coloſſuſes ſtill remaining here, more beautiful than in Lower Egypt, but pyramids higher than thoſe near Cairo, with other ſtupendous works. In confirmation of this, a perſon of rank, who lately viſited theſe parts, affirms, that the people of the country aſſured him the funeral monuments in Thebais were innumerable, and ſurpaſſed, in magnificence, thoſe of Memphis and Alexandria. They added, that there were ſtill to be ſeen temples with columns of granite as large as that of Pompey, and that the paintings within were not leſs remarkable. The ſame perſon obſerves further, that it cannot be doubted but that the Upper Egypt contains amazing treaſures buried under its ruins, as a captain lately diſcovered an urn filled with gold medals, of which he ſecretly melted down a great number.

Savd, ſuppoſed to be the ancient Egyptian Thebes, is the capital of Upper Egypt, and was formerly one of the fineſt cities in the univerſe. It is ſaid by ſome perſons who have viſited it, to be the moſt capital antique curioſity now extant, containing vaſt columns of marble and porphyry which lie half buried in the ground, and ſtatues and obeliſks of a prodigious ſize, adorned with hieroglyphics.

There are many other magnificent remains of Thebes, but the moſt remarkable are the coloſſal ſtatues of Memnon: they are made of a particular ſort of hard granite, which moſt reſembles the eagle-ſtone.

SECTION IV.

MIDDLE EGYPT, DISTINGUISHED BY THE NAME OF HEPTANOMIS.

THE appellation of Heptanomis alludes to the ſeven names or præfectures into which this part of Egypt was originally divided. Like the other parts it once contained extenſive and opulent cities, of which the chief worthy of notice is Memphis, celebrated for thoſe aſtoniſhing monuments of antiquity the pyramids, or burial places of their kings. Theſe grand objects of curioſity have long attracted the attention of men of ſpeculation, and the accounts of travellers have been read with infinite delight. Theſe pyramids are conſtructed on that ridge of rocks which is the boundary of Libya, and generally called the Pyramids of Giza. They are about 20 in number, but two of them have been principal objects of attention. We have reviſed the reſpective details concerning them, and preſent our readers with the following account, as related by a character eminent for rank and literature, and the moſt modern that can be obtained. He writes thus: "We left Giza about an hour after midnight, and ſcarcely had proceeded a quarter of a league before we perceived the tops of the two grand pyramids. We were but three leagues from them, and the moon ſhone on them with full ſplendour. They appeared like two pointed rocks, with their ſummits in the clouds; and the aſpect of theſe antique monuments, which have ſurvived nations, empires, and the ravages of time, inſpired veneration.

"We approached the pyramids, which, with aſpect varying according to the windings of the plain we traverſed, and the ſituation of the clouds, became more and more diſtinct. At half paſt three in the morning we found ourſelves at the foot of the greateſt. We left our cloaths at the door where it entered, and deſcended each with a torch. We proceeded till we came to a place where we were obliged to crawl, to paſs into the ſecond entry, which correſponded to the firſt. We then aſcended on our knees, ſupporting ourſelves with our hands againſt the ſides, otherwiſe we were in danger of ſliding precipitately down an inclining plane, the notches or ſteps of which did not afford certain foothold. We fired a piſtol about the middle, the fearful noiſe of which was long reverberated among the cavities of this immenſe edifice, and which awakened thouſands of bats, which were very large, that darting up and down, beat againſt our hands and faces, and extinguiſhed ſeveral of our lights. When come to the top we entered, through a very low door, a great oblong chamber, entirely of granite. Seven enormous ſtones, croſſing from one wall to the other, formed the ceiling. A ſarcophagus, cut from a block of marble, is placed at one end. It has been violated by man, for it is empty, and the lid has been torn off. Bits of earthen vaſes are ſcattered round. Beneath this chamber is a leſſer one, where is the entrance of a conduit full of rubbiſh.

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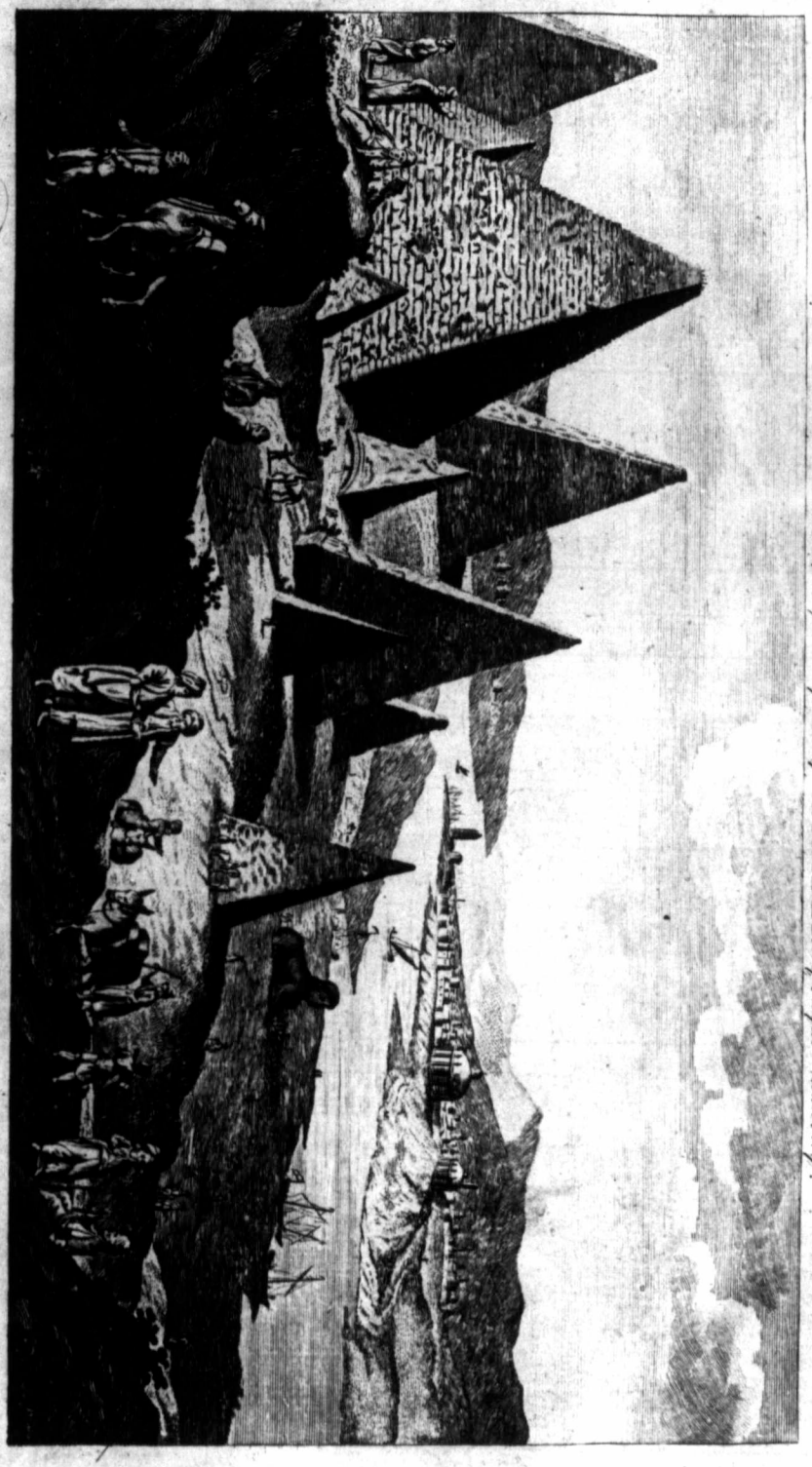

The EGYPTIAN PYRAMIDS *with a View of part of the* NILE, &c.

Engraved for BANKES's *New & Complete Syſtem of* GEOGRAPHY. *By Royal Authority.*

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"After examining these caverns, where the light of day never enters, and the shades of eternal night grow more thick and dark, we descended by the way we came, taking care not to tumble into a well which is on the left, and reaches to the bottom of the pyramid. The air within this edifice being never changed, is so hot and foul as almost to suffocate. When we came out we were bathed in sweat, as pale as death, and might have been taken for spectres rising from the abyss of darkness.

"Having eagerly breathed the open air, and refreshed ourselves, we hastened to scale this mountain of man. It is composed of more than 200 layers of stone, that recede in proportion to their height, which is from four feet to two. These enormous steps must all be mounted to arrive at the summit, and this we undertook, beginning at the north-east angle, which is the least damaged, but did not accomplish our task till after half an hour's severe labour.

"Day began to break, and the east gradually assumed more glowing colours. We sat enjoying a pure air, and a most agreeable coolness. The sun-beams soon gilded the top of Mokkatam (a mountain which overlooks Grand Cairo) and soon rose above it in the horizon. We received the first rays, and beheld, at a distance, the tops of the pyramids of Saccara, three leagues from us, in the Plain of Mummies. The rapid light discovered every moment new beauties. The herds left the hamlets, the boats spread their sails, and our eyes followed the vast windings of the Nile. On the north were sterile hills, and barren sands; on the south the river and waving fields. To the east stood the small town of Giza; and the towers of Tostat, with the castle of Salah Eddin, terminated the prospect. The universe contains not a prospect more variegated, more magnificent, or more awful.

"Having engraved our names on the top of the pyramid, we cautiously descended, for the deep abyss lay before us: a piece of stone breaking under our hands, or beneath our feet, would have cast us down headlong.

"Once more safe at the bottom, we made the tour of the pyramid, contemplating it with a kind of terror. On a near view it seems composed of detached rocks; but at 100 paces distant the largeness of the stones is lost in the immensity of the structure, and they appear very small."

Many travellers and learned men, from the time of Herodotus, the Greek historian, to the present date, have measured the grand pyramid, and the difference of their calculations, far from removing, has but augmented doubt concerning it. A modern writer of repute says that its perpendicular height is near 500 feet.

The noble traveller before mentioned observes, that those persons who have pretended this pyramid was never finished, because it is open, and is not coated, are mistaken. That it was coated is proved by the remains of mortar still found in several parts of the steps, and by the testimony of Maillet, who visited and examined it many times with all possible care.

The second pyramid is about ten yards south of the first. The architecture of it is much like the former, but it is greatly inferior in size.

The third pyramid is said to exceed the others in the beauty of this workmanship; but the rest contain no particulars worthy of description.

Each pyramid has its catacombs (grottos or subterraneous cavities for the burial of the mummies, or embalmed bodies.) The opening at the side is hollowed in such a declined direction, that a person cannot descend into it without being let down by a rope.

As our commerce with the eastern world is now of such real concern, as to make every thing which relates to it more or less interesting; and as the land passage to India is now more frequented than formerly; every thing which may, in the slightest degree, tend to facilitate that passage, is an object of public attention. By way of caution therefore to future travellers, we insert the following narrative respecting one of these catacombs.

The celebrated AARON HILL, when in Egypt, had the curiosity to examine a catacomb. He was accompanied in his expedition by two other gentlemen, and conducted by a guide, who was one of the natives of the country. They at length arrived at the spot, and without taking notice of some fellows who were sauntering about the place, descended by ropes into the vault. No sooner were they let down, than they were presented with a spectacle which struck them with terror: Two gentlemen apparently starved to death, lay before them. One of these victims had a tablet in his hand, on which was written, in pathetic language, the story of their lamentable fate. It seems they were brothers of rank and family in Venice, and having in the course of their travels entrusted themselves with one of the natives, for the purpose of visiting the inside of the catacomb, the perfidious villain had left them there to perish.

The danger to which Mr. Hill and his friends were exposed, instantly alarmed them. They had scarcely read the shocking tale, when looking up, they beheld their inhuman guide, assisted by two others, whom they had seen near the spot, closing the entrance into the vault.

They were now reduced to the utmost distress; however, they drew their swords, and were determined to make some desperate effort to rescue themselves from a scene so truly dreadful. With this resolution they were groping about at random in the dark, when they were startled at the groans of some one seemingly in the agonies of death. They attended to the dismal sound, and at length, by means of a glimmering light from the top of the catacomb, they saw a man just murdered, and a little beyond they discovered his inhuman murderers flying with the utmost precipitation. They pursued them immediately, and though they were not able to come up with them, they however had the good fortune to reach the opening through which these wretches escaped out of the cavern, before they had time to roll the stone on the top of it. Thus Mr. Hill and his friends were by a miracle saved.

This memorable circumstance will, without doubt, be almost uppermost in the mind of the oriental traveller, and while he is impressed with horror at the baseness and cruelty of the transaction, it will at the same time quicken his own caution, and be the best guide to his conduct.

At a small distance from these pyramids, and about a quarter of a mile from the river, is a monstrous figure called a sphynx, the face of which represents that of a beautiful woman, and the body that of a lion. This extraordinary figure is said to have been the sepulchre of king Amasis.

This sphynx is one entire stone, smooth and polished, and was cut out of the solid rock. Travellers differ with respect to the dimensions of this figure, but the most just appear to be those given by Dr. Pocock, who says, the lower part of the neck, or beginning of the breast is 33 feet wide, and 20 thick to the back; and thence a large hole in the back 73 feet; and from thence to the tail 30 feet. Besides the above-mentioned hole in the back, there is another on the top of the head, by which it is conjectured the priests entered it to deliver their oracles. The Egyptians hieroglyphically represented a harlot by a sphynx, having the amiable face of a woman, and the rapacious strength of a lion.

The following observations may serve to explain the origin and meaning of the Egyptian hieroglyphics. Ideas were first conveyed by emblems, or picturesque representations of things. This being the first method of writing, it was generally understood by every one; but when characters were introduced instead of pictures, these emblems became at length unintelligible. In process of time, the priests of the Egyptians, to keep the mysteries of their religion from the knowledge of the common people, used hieroglyphics or sacred characters, as the term or phrase imports, being a compound

pound of two Greek words, the one ſignifying ſacred, and the other to engrave or carve.

Many of the poor in Egypt are maintained by being employed to dig beneath the barren ſands in ſearch of theſe ſepulchres. When their attempt proves ſucceſsful, they make a ſmall well of about three feet broad, and 16 or 18 feet deep; into which one with a torch in his hand is eaſily let down by a rope. At the bottom is a four-ſquare paſſage, but ſo low, that they muſt ſtoop to go in. At the end of this, they come to the four-ſquare vaulted repoſitory, 24 feet every way, in which are tables cut out of the ſame rock, whereon the bodies are placed in cheſts or coffins of wood or ſtone, on which are certain hieroglyphic characters.

The mummies, or bodies themſelves, are embalmed with ſpices and bitumen; but the cheſts or coffins wherein the mummies lie, and the winding ſheets in which they are wrapped, are richly gilt, ſtreaked with various colours, and curiouſly ornamented with hieroglyphics.

The methods taken by the antient Egyptians to preſerve the bodies of the dead are thus deſcribed by a late traveller: "In the preparing them, (ſays he) to keep them from putrefaction, they drew out the brains at the noſtrils, and ſupplied their place with preſervative ſpices: then cutting up the belly with an Ethiopian ſtone, and extracting the bowels, they cleanſed the inſide with wine; and ſtuffing the ſame with a compoſition of Caſſia, myrrh, and other odours, cloſed it again. The poorer ſort of people effected the like with bitumen, and the juice of cedars, which, by their extreme bitterneſs, and drying faculty, not only immediately ſubdued the cauſe of interior corruptions, but have preſerved them uncorrupted above 3000 years."

Among the catacombs is one for particular birds and animals, which is much more magnificent than the others. Theſe creatures were worſhipped by the antient Egyptians, who ſo highly reverenced them, that when they happened to find them dead, they embalmed them, wrapped them up with the ſame care as they did human bodies, and depoſited them in earthen vaſes, covered over and ſtopped cloſe with mortar.

Near the city of Memphis was a famous building called the Labyrinth, which, according to Herodotus, was built by twelve Egyptian kings, when Egypt was divided into that number of kingdoms, and conſiſted of twelve palaces, regularly diſpoſed, that had a communication with each other. Theſe palaces contained three thouſand rooms, half of which, interſperſed with terraces, were ranged round the halls, and diſcovered no outlets; the other half were under-ground, cut out of the rocks, and deſigned for the ſepulchres of the kings. The whole building was covered with ſtone, and adorned with the fineſt ſepulchres. The halls had an equal number of doors, ſix opening to the north, and ſix to the ſouth, all encompaſſed by the ſame wall; and at the angle where the labyrinth ended ſtood a pyramid, which was the ſepulchre of one of its founders.

This building is called the Labyrinth from its many windings, and the difficulty thoſe who entered it, found in getting out again. The term is often uſed metaphorically to ſignify perplexity, or embarraſſment.

The lake Mæris, in this part of Egypt, has been deemed as extraordinary and worthy of notice, as the labyrinth. Writers differ much in their deſcription of this lake. Some have allowed it an immenſe circumference, while others have contracted its bounds. Whatever may have been its former fame, it ſeems now to be involved in the general declenſion of the country.

SECTION V.

LOWER EGYPT, CALLED LIKEWISE DELTA.

LOWER Egypt received the appellation of Delta from its triangular form, or reſemblance of the fourth capital letter in the Greek alphabet. It extended formerly from Heptanomis to the Mediterranean Sea, and contained not only that part which is encompaſſed by the arms of the Nile, but alſo Mareotis and Alexandria with its dependencies to the weſt; and Caſiotis and Arſinoitamnica, with ſome other territories towards Arabia, to the eaſt.

The Delta is admirably ſituated for agriculture, being continually watered by machines conſtructed on the Nile, and the canals cut through it. This rich part of Egypt abounds with rice, barley, and winter fruit. Its fruitful plains, and ever running ſtreams equally gratify the eye and the mind. Beſides Alexandria, (of which we ſhall ſpeak hereafter) there were ſeveral cities in this part, but little more is known at preſent of them than their names.

On Mount Caſius was a town of the ſame name. Strabo ſays it had a magnificent temple, but it was chiefly remarkable for containing the ſepulchre of Pompey, who was buried on this ſandy hill, which runs into the ſea, and ſeems to be the place now called by mariners, Tenere. It was near this place that Pompey was treacherouſly murdered by command of Ptolemy. He was buried by Cordus, a Roman ſoldier; and a ſuperb monument was afterwards erected to his memory, which was repaired and beautified by the emperor Adrian.

With reſpect to the ancient ſtate of Egypt, we have only to obſerve, that, according to Diodorus Siculus, it originally contained a vaſt number of cities, the chief of which was Thebes. Memphis ſucceeded Thebes, and at laſt Alexandria to Memphis, as Cairo has ſince done to Alexandria. We ſhall treat of the two laſt in the next Section, when we conſider the preſent ſtate of Egypt.

SECTION VI.

Deſcription of the chief Cities and Places of note in Egypt.

GRAND Cairo, called by the Arabs Miſſir, is ſituated on the right ſide of the Nile, about half a league from the river, and divided into two towns, the old and the new. It has ſeveral ſquares, ſufficiently ſpacious to invite, and deſerve decoration; ſuch as the ſquare of Luſbequia, that of Romelia, and that of the Great Moſque, named Sultan Haſſan. There is a conſiderable dome over this grand edifice. Its cornice, groteſquely ſculptured, projects conſiderably; and its front is faced with the fineſt marble. The gates are now walled up, and guarded by janiſſaries. The ſquares, which become ponds in the time of inundation, are gardens the reſt of the year. They are flowed over in September, and covered with flowers and verdure in April.

The ſtreets of Cairo are narrow, ill contrived, and ſo winding, that it is impoſſible to follow their direction amidſt the multitude of houſes which ſtand crowding on each other. In this city there are near 1000 moſques. The greater part of them have minarets, which are high ſteeples of ſlight architecture, and ſurrounded by galleries. From theſe minarets, at ſtated hours, public criers call the people to prayers. Many hundred voices may be heard at one and the ſame time, thus ſummoning the inhabitants to their religious duties. The Turks have recourſe to this method, from their averſion to the noiſe of bells, which they repreſent as offenſive to the ear, unmeaning, and only fit for beaſts of burthen.

The caſtle of Cairo is ſituated on a rocky hill, and ſurrounded by walls, on which are ſtrong towers. Before the invention of gunpowder, this was a conſiderable fortreſs, but being commanded by the neighbouring mountains, it would now very ſoon be demoliſhed by the fire of a battery.

In this caſtle are included the palaces of the ſultans of Egypt, now almoſt buried under their own ruins. Domes ſubverted, gilding and pictures involved in rubbiſh, and columns of marble without capitals, are remaining tokens of its ancient grandeur.

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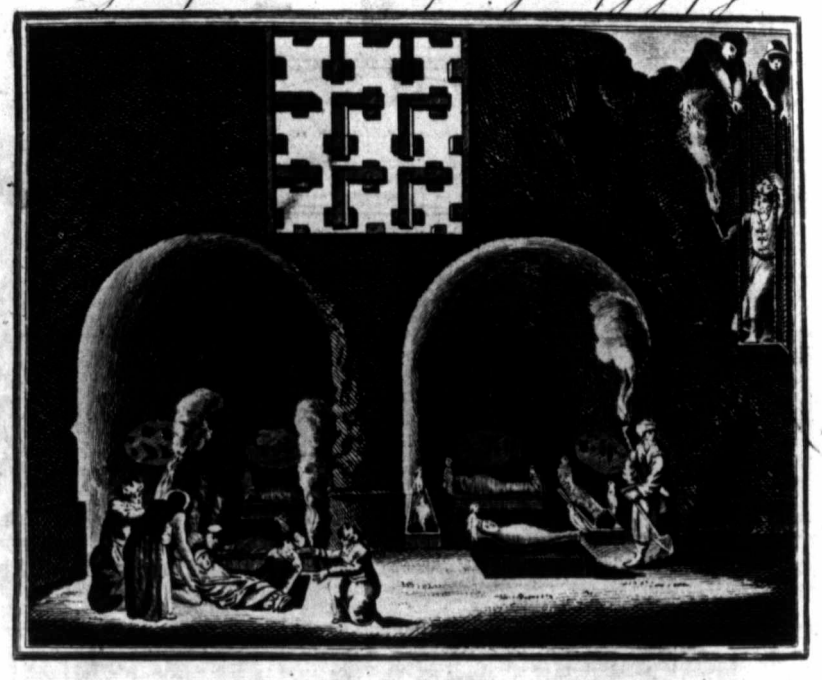

The Inside of an EGYPTIAN-SEPULCHRE.

EGYPTIAN-MUMMIES.

The Punishment of a Butcher of Grand Cairo for selling Stinking Meat by nailing one of his Ears to his Shop Door, and placing a piece of the Flesh in a Wire which is run thro his Nose.

The palaces have nothing remarkable in their exterior appearance. Indeed, the pacha, who is repreſentative of the Grand Seignior, is but a mere phantom of power, having, in no reſpect, a will of his own, but being intirely ſubject to controul.

There is a mint in Cairo, where they coin a great quantity of medins and ſequins, ſtruck with the die of Chick Elbalad, the moſt powerful bey in the city, who is veſted with the right of coining.

Among the curioſities of this caſtle is Jacob's Well, ſunk in the rock 280 feet deep, and 42 feet in circumference. It has two excavations. A ſtair-caſe, with an eaſy aſcent, is carried round. The partition which ſeparates this ſtair-caſe from the well is part of the rock, left only ſix inches thick, with windows cut at intervals to give light; but as they are ſmall, and ſome low, it is neceſſary to deſcend by the light of candles. There is a reſervoir, and a level ſpace, at that part of the well where it takes a new direction.

The whole of Grand Cairo is ſeen at one view, and by means of its multitudinous moſques and minarets, lofty pyramids, and fruitful fields interſperſed with verdant groves, affords a moſt beautiful landſcape. The ſtreets are peſtered with jugglers and fortune-tellers. One of their favorite exhibitions is their dancing camels, which, when young, they place upon a large heated floor. The intenſe heat makes the poor creatures caper, and being plied all the time with the ſound of drums, the noiſe of that inſtrument ſets them a dancing all their lives after.

As every Muſſulman is under a religious injunction of making at leaſt once in his life, a pilgrimage to Mecca, in the grand caravan, which, in fact, is no other than an aſſociation of merchants and travellers bound to the ſame country, and thus united for their defence againſt the attacks of the wandering Arabs, we deem it proper to give an account of the ſame. The caravan ſets out from Cairo once a year, and is one of the moſt ſplended and numerous cavalades in all the eaſt. The number of thoſe which compoſe the caravan ſeldom amounts to leſs than 40,000: but it is oftentimes much greater, in times of peace and plenty, when the commerce is not obſtructed: for theſe caravans join to their devotions a conſiderable trade, and return home laden with the richeſt goods from Perſia and India, which come to Gedda by the Red Sea, and are thence conveyed to Mecca; and this, joined to the richneſs of the preſents carried there, makes it neceſſary that they ſhould be attended by a ſufficient guard. With this view a draft is always made of all the beſt troops in Egypt to eſcort them; at the head of which is the Emir Hadge, or prince of the pilgrims, who has the power of life and death over the whole caravan. The ceremony of his ſetting out on this expedition from Cairo is very magnificent: the camels are all ornamented; and the ſum total belonging to the Emir Hadge amounts to 3000; but the reſt is beyond computation.

Thoſe camels are moſt magnificently adorned, which are made choice to carry the preſents to Mecca, eſpecially that which carries the great pavilion called Mahmel, or covering of Mahomet and Abraham's tomb, which is made in the ſhape of a pyramid, with a ſquare baſe, all richly embroidered with gold, on a green and red ground; the view of the houſe of Mecca being embroidered upon it, with a portico around it. He is covered with a rich carpet that comes down to his feet, ſo that nothing is ſeen of him but his head, neck, and crupper, which are richly adorned. This camel is ſaid to be bred for that purpoſe; and after he has performed that office he is eſteemed ſacred, and never more put to any uſe.

Their encampments are ſo ſettled that the caravan muſt arrive at Mecca in 38 days; and the departure of it is fixed to the 27th day of the moon which follows their Ramadan. It is joined at Beddar, ſix days journey from Mecca, by the caravan from Damaſcus; after which they march jointly to Mecca, and are joined in the way by the caravans from other parts, who then proceed together to pay their devotions at Mount Araffat, from whence they march on to Mecca, where the Emir Hadge puts up the new grand pavilion. The ſtay of the caravan is confined to 12 days, in which time a great and rich traffic is carried on between the pilgrims and their followers from all parts, and then the Emir Hadge gives his ſignal for departure. On their return to Cairo the greateſt feſtivities are made, and each perſon is honoured with the title of hadge, or pilgrim, before his own name.

Notwithſtanding the great numbers which compoſe theſe caravans, there have been inſtances of their being attacked, plundered, and carried into captivity by the Arabian freebooters.

The port of Boulac, the place where all the merchandize coming from Damietta and Alexandria is landed, is about a mile and a half from Grand Cairo. It contains grand baths and extenſive okals. Theſe okals are ſquare buildings, including a large court with a portico, over which is a winding gallery. The ground floor is divided into ſpacious magazines, and the rooms above have neither furniture or ornaments. Here ſtrangers live and depoſit their wares. Theſe okals may be ſaid to be the only inns in Egypt; but all ſtrangers muſt provide their own furniture and food, it being impoſſible to procure a dinner ready dreſſed on any conſideration. Thouſands of veſſels, of various form and ſizes, may be ſeen riding at anchor in this port from the fronts of the houſes. The opulent reſort to this place to enjoy the cooling breeze from the Nile, and the delightful proſpect of the variegated landſcapes which its banks preſent.

Before we leave Grand Cairo, it may not be improper to take notice, that, in the villages about it, the inhabitants have a method of hatching chickens in ovens, which is alſo practiſed in many other parts of Egypt. As this is a matter of a very ſingular nature, we ſhall be a little particular in deſcribing the means by which it is effected.

The ſeaſon for executing this buſineſs is from January to April, when the weather is tolerably temperate. The ovens are under ground, in oppoſite rows, with a gallery or paſſage between them; and they are raiſed one above another, with holes at top, as are likewiſe the paſſages, which they open or ſtop, as they would have the heat increaſed or diminiſhed. The fuel that heats them is dung and chopped ſtraw, which makes a ſmothering fire. They continue to heat them gently eight or ten days together, and then bring the eggs from the lower cells, where they are laid in heaps, and ſpread them in the upper apartments, ſo as only to cover the floor ſingly. After this the buſineſs is to turn them every day, and keep a moderate fire in a channel that runs along the mouth of the oven; and, indeed, the art conſiſts chiefly in giving the ovens a proper degree of heat, neither too much or too little, for in either caſe the labour would not ſucceed. Their general rule is, that the eggs be never made hotter than a man can bear them at his eye-lid. Thus they begin to hatch in about three weeks; at which time it is very entertaining to ſee ſome of the chickens juſt putting forth their heads, others half out of the ſhells, and other quite free. Thunder occaſions abundance of eggs to miſcarry; and at beſt many chickens want a claw, or have ſome defect that is uncommon in the natural way. Mr. Greavens tells us, that the fire in the upper ovens, when the eggs are in the lower, is thus proportioned; the firſt day the greateſt fire, the ſecond leſs, the third leſs again, the fourth more than the third, the fifth leſs, the ſixth more than the fifth, the ſeventh leſs, the eighth more, the ninth none, the tenth a little in the morning. The eleventh they cloſe all the holes with flax, &c. making no more fire, for if they ſhould the eggs would break. Thus 7 or 8000 are hatched in a ſhort time. It is to be obſerved, that the ſame experiment has been made, with ſucceſs, in Italy, and other parts of Europe: though it muſt alſo be obſerved, at the ſame time, that the birds thus produced by art, cannot claim an equality, in

point of perfection, with thoſe produced in the natural way.

The Iſland of Rhoda, which lies between Old Cairo and Giza, and where the Nilometer ſtands, as before mentioned, affords a pleaſing view, from the extenſive fields of Wheat, flax, and beans, intermingled with groves of dates, for the ſpace of a league.

The following conciſe deſcription of this Iſland, and narrative of a circumſtance that befel an authentic traveller, to whom we are indebted for ſeveral curious paſſages, we preſume, will afford entertainment: we ſhall, therefore, preſent them in his own words.

"I walked through the iſland, which is one vaſt garden, ſurrounded by the waters of the Nile. Walls, breaſt high, protect its banks from the impetuous current. On one ſide Old Cairo, the water-works and pleaſure-houſes of the beys are ſeen, on the other the pleaſant town of Giza. The governor, who reſides here, exacts a tribute from thoſe who viſit the pyramids out of curioſity.

"Loſt in agreeable meditation, I entered a grove of tamarind, orange, and ſycamore trees, and enjoyed the freſh air beneath their thick foliage. A luminous ray here and there penetrated the deep ſhades, gilding a ſmall part of the ſcene. Plants and flowers ſcented the air. Multitudes of doves flew from tree to tree, undiſturbed at my approach. Thus abandoned to the delights of contemplation, and indulging thoſe delicious ſenſations the time and place inſpired, I incautiouſly proceeded towards the thickeſt part of the wood, when a terrifying voice ſuddenly exclaimed, "Where are you going? Stand, or you are dead." It was a ſlave who guarded the entrance of the grove, that no raſh curioſity might diſturb the females who repoſed upon the verdant banks. I afterwards was given to underſtand, that the beys go there ſometimes with their women, and that any over inquiſitive ſtranger, who ſhould wander there at ſuch a time, would riſk the immediate loſs of his head. It appears from hence, how neceſſary circumſpection is in a country where the leaſt indiſcretion may lead to death."

Alexandria, ſo called from the great conqueror of the world, is, on divers accounts, highly worthy of notice. Egypt, previous to his conqueſt, though happily ſituated to extend its commerce over Europe, Africa, and the Indies, wanted a harbour, as it did alſo a fortreſs. The hero beſtowed on it theſe important advantages, by erecting the one, and forming the other in a complete manner. He raiſed Alexandria to a degree of ſplendor even in its infancy; for by joining it to the Nile by a canal at once navigable and uſeful to cultivation, it became the city of all nations, and the metropolis of commerce. The rocky bottom, which extends along the coaſt of Egypt, proves the Iſle of Pharos to have been formed by the ruins of Alexandria. The near ſhore likewiſe confirms the truth of this obſervation; and the rolling of the waves continually diſcovers a number of ſtones which have inſcriptions on them, and are, upon good ground, ſuppoſed to be part of the remains of this ancient city. Its ruins afford a teſtimony of its former ſplendor, and are defended by the ſame walls that once defended its induſtry and riches, and ſtill preſent a maſter piece of ancient architecture.

The Ptolemies all contributed to the magnificence of this city. Within its walls were the muſeum, that aſylum of the learned, groves, edifices worthy of royalty, and a temple where the body of Alexander, in a golden coffin, had been depoſited.

The glory of Alexandria fell, together with that of Egypt in general, in the fifteenth century, when the country was ſeized on by the Turks; though in its decline it ſtill preſerved an air of grandeur and magnificence which excited admiration.

Modern Alexandria, or, as it is called by the Turks, Scandaroon, is a place of ſmall extent, but of conſiderable commerce, owing to its ſituation. It has two ports, the old and the new, the former being the reſort of Turkiſh veſſels only, the latter of European in general. Between theſe ports the preſent city is ſituated. The harbour is dry; and the canal that ran into it from the lake Marcotis has diſappeared. The canal of Taoua, the only one that ſtill runs to Alexandria, is half filled up with mud and ſand. The ſtream only flows now about the end of Auguſt, and there is ſcarcely ſufficient time to fill the reſervoirs and ciſterns of the town. The lands it once made fruitful are now become deſarts; and the groves and gardens about Alexandria have diſappeared with the ſtreams that watered them.

Notwithſtanding this general decline, the ciſterns of Alexandria, vaulted with great art, which were built under all parts of the city, and its numerous aqueducts, are almoſt entire, though they have remained 2000 years.

Towards the eaſtern part of the palace are the two obeliſks commonly called Cleopatra's Needles. One is thrown down, broken, and covered with ſand; the other ſtill reſts on its pedeſtal, each cut from one ſingle ſtone, is about ſixty-three feet high, and ſeven ſquare at the baſe.

A Corithian column, large and magnificent, ſtanding about a quarter of a league from the ſouth gate, particularly attracts the attention of travellers. It is majeſtic beyond conception, and ſerves as a ſignal for mariners at ſea. Travellers, and men of literature, have made many fruitleſs attempts to diſcover to whom it was dedicated, and they have differed in their opinions. Some aſcribe the dedication to Pompey, ſome to Veſpaſian, and others to Severus. It is known, however, by the name of Pompey's Pillar.

Near Cleopatra's canal are ſome catacombs, which conſiſt of ſeveral apartments cut in the rocks on each ſide of an open gallery. The catacombs extend above a mile to the weſt, and there are a great number of them by the ſea ſide. The moſt remarkable are thoſe towards the farther end of the canal, being beautiful apartments cut out of a rock, with niches in many of them large enough to contain the bodies, and adorned on each ſide with Doric pilaſters.

The inhabitants of Alexandria are compoſed of Turks, Copts, Greeks, and Armenians. There are likewiſe great numbers of Jews, moſt of whom are foreigners, and natives of Conſtantinople, Liſbon, or Leghorn. Europeans in general go under the denomination of Franks. The following droll anecdote reſpecting the impoſition of the Turks on the Franks, is related in a letter from a perſon reſident ſome years in Alexandria, to a friend in England.

"There is a large open ſpot in Alexandria where the Franks recreate themſelves. On the north ſide of this place is a ſtand of aſſes, ranged in rows, with each aſs a driver. Theſe are let out to ride, and the driver runs behind his beaſt, and, with a ſhort ſtick, makes him go pretty faſt. It is pleaſant enough to obſerve the European ſailors when they come on ſhore, and happen to ſtroll to this place. The drivers in an inſtant bring their aſſes in a ring round the ſailors, and importune them to ride. The ſailors not underſtanding them, fall to curſing and ſwearing at being ſo hedged in. At length the drivers put the poor tars by force on their beaſts, and drive them about half a mile and back again, and then inſiſt on their fare."

Roſetta, called Raſchid by the Arabs, is ſituated on the weſt ſide of the Nile, on the ancient Bolbitine branch. It is nearly a league in length, and one fourth as wide. The only remarkable public edifices are the moſques, the lofty minarets of which are built on a bold ſtile, and produce a picturesque effect. Moſt of the houſes have a proſpect of the Delta and the Nile, which affords great pleaſure. The country, to the north, abounds with citron, orange, date, and ſycamore trees, promiſcuouſly planted, and this variety ſo interſperſed renders the groves enchanting.

Commerce is the ſource of the wealth of Roſetta. The tranſportation of foreign merchandize to Cairo, and of the production of Egypt to Alexandria, gives employment to a great number of mariners.

Roſetta

Roſetta is a place uninterrupted by the noiſe of carriages. Camels are the carriers here, and nothing alters or diſturbs the grave walk of the inhabitants.

This city has a manufactory of cloth. The flax of the country is long, flexible, and ſilky, and would make very fine linen, did they know how to work it; but the ſpinners are very inexpert, their thread is coarſe, hard, and unequal. The cloth, when bleached in the dew, is for table linen; the reſt, when dyed blue, clothes the common people.

There are here, at this day, a ſtrange ſpecies of men, called *pſylli*, or ſerpent-eaters. It appears from ancient hiſtory, that many of them were in Egypt in the time of Cleopatra; for Octavius Cæſar, deſirous that the captive queen ſhould grace his triumph, and chagrined to think that haughty woman would eſcape by death, commanded one of theſe pſylli to ſuck the wound the aſp had made. His efforts, however, were vain, the poiſon had pervaded the whole maſs of blood, nor could the art of the pſylli prevent her death. That theſe ſerpent eaters ſtill exiſt will appear from the following narrative, in the words of a late traveller.

"The feſtival of Sidi Ibrahim, or our Lord Abraham, was held at Roſetta, and drew a vaſt concourſe of people. A Turk permitted me to ſee the proceſſion from his houſe, where, ſeated at the window, I obſerved this novel ſight with attention. The different trades gravely marched in files, each preceeded by their banners. The ſtandard of Mahomet, borne in triumph, followed, and attracted a prodigious crowd. All were deſirous to touch, kiſs, or put it to their eyes; and thoſe who obtained this favour returned ſatisfied. The tumult was renewed inceſſantly. After this came the chicks, prieſts of the country, wearing leather caps in the form of a mitre, and ſinging, as they ſlowly walked, the hymns of the koran. A few paces behind them I perceived a company of men, apparently frantic, with naked arms, wild eyes, and enormous ſerpents in their hands, which twined round their bodies, and endeavoured to eſcape. Theſe pſylli, ſeizing them forcibly by the neck, avoided their bite, and regardleſs of their hiſſes, tore them with their teeth, and eat them alive, while the blood ſtreamed from their defiled mouths. Other pſylli ſtruggled with them to force away the prey: the contention was who ſhould devour a living ſerpent."

Damietta is ſituated on the eaſtern ſhore of the Nile, nearly oppoſite Roſetta. Its inhabitants are numerous, and its ſquares, okals, or khans, as ſpacious as thoſe of Boulac. The houſes are pleaſantly ſituated, and various grand moſques, with lofty minarets, adorn the city. The public baths are elegant and convenient, and produce very ſalutary effects. The port is filled with veſſels, and a conſiderable trade is carried on here. The fineſt rice of Egypt is cultivated in the neighbouring plains; and its annual exportation is ſuppoſed to be between two and three hundred thouſand pounds. There are likewiſe cloths, ſal ammoniac, and wheat. The law prohibits the exportation of the latter, but it is evaded, and the wheat is paſſed as rice.

The harbour of Damietta is not convenient, for the road where the veſſels lie being totally expoſed to every gale that riſes, mariners are obliged to ſlip their cables, and take refuge at Cyprus, or keep the open ſeas. Damietta enjoys a happy temperature of climate, and abounds with the productions common to the country. Here are ſtrangers of various nations and religions, but they are reſtrained in their privileges, and fearful of being in the ſtreets after dark, on account of the inſults which they are ſubject to from the Turkiſh ſoldiery, who have a natural antipathy to all ſtrangers. To Europeans they have a particular averſion, ſeemingly occaſioned by the holy war; for this city was the principal ſcene of action, and where Louis IX. of France was made priſoner. No perſons muſt appear here in an European dreſs; and as a Chriſtian is known by his mien, ſtrangers dare not go out of the ſtreet they are accuſtomed to frequent.

Suez is a conſiderable ſeaport on the iſthmus which bears its name, and advantageouſly ſituated for carrying on commerce with Cairo, from whence the inhabitants get all the neceſſaries of life. Water is very ſcarce here. Though it is brackiſh (being obliged to fetch it from a place nine miles off) they purchaſe it at a very dear rate. The houſes, moſques, quays, magazines, and other public edifices, are compoſed of a moſt curious ſort of ſtone, conſiſting of a great number of ſhells, ſo cloſely united by nature as to be inſeparable.

Many attempts were made by the Roman emperors, and kings of Egypt, to cut a channel through the iſthmus of Suez, and join the two ſeas together, but every attempt proved ineffectual.

SECTION VII.

Towns and Villages on the River Nile.

THE village of Deiir-Etiin, where there is a moſque and a Coptic convent, ſtands to the ſouthward of Old Cairo. The houſes here are almoſt all built of clay, and covered with reeds.

The village of Dagjour is remarkable for containing in its neighbourhood many handſome pyramids, as alſo ſeveral ſpacious moſques.

Beneſoef is ſituated on the weſtern ſhore of the Nile: it is a kind of a capital, about 100 miles diſtant from Cairo.

To the north-eaſt of this village is Mount Kobzim, at the foot of which ſtands the convent of St. Anthony. This convent has no door, ſo that the monks draw travellers up through the window by a pulley. This is a neceſſary precaution againſt the Arabs. The rules of theſe monks are very auſtere, and their abſtinence rigid, for they drink wine only on ſome grand annual feſtivals. They believe they poſſeſs abſolute power over demons, ſerpents, and wild beaſts. They highly venerate the grotto of St. Anthony, an obſcure retreat, dug in the mountain, where this father of monaſtic inſtitution lived as in a tomb, ſurrounded by darkneſs and deſarts.

Not far from the convent of St. Anthony is that of St. Paul, which the Copti call the Tiger Convent, from a ſuppoſition that thoſe animals made the tomb of that ſaint.

On the ſame ſide of the Nile with the village of Beneſoef is another called Monfalut. It is a ſort of capital, whoſe moſques give it a beautiful appearance; and it is the ſee of a Coptic biſhop. The adjacent country is very fertile, and abounds with a great variety of fruit trees.

The village of Siouth contains ſeveral handſome moſques, and is the rendezvous of thoſe who go with the caravan that ſets out from hence to Nubia. This village is ſituated about two miles from the river, in a very pleaſant part of the country; and by the ſide of it is a large lake, which is filled from the Nile by a canal, over which there is a bridge of three high Gothic arches.

Aboutiteſhea is a large village on the ſame ſide of the Nile with Siouth, and has ſome moſques. It is a biſhop's ſee, and is ſuppoſed to be the Hypſele of the ancients.

Farther up the Nile, on the eaſt ſide, is the village of Akmin, which is very large, and adorned with ſeveral moſques. Here are the remains of two temples, conſiſting of ſtones 20 feet long, and 10 broad, all of which are painted, and full of hieroglyphics. On one ſtone there is a Greek inſcription of four lines, of which the firſt and laſt are almoſt totally, and the others partly defaced. The Copti have a convent here; and there is alſo an hoſpital belonging to the Congregatio de Propaganda.

Girge, or Tſihirſche, which is the reſidence of the bey, is about a quarter of a mile from the river, and tolerably large, being at leaſt two miles in circumference; the houſes are in general ſpacious, and chiefly built of hard brick; and there are ſeveral handſome moſques belonging to the Turks.

The

The village of Gau is ſituated on the eaſtern ſide of the Nile, and was once very large, but a conſiderable part of it has been waſhed away by the overflowing of that river.

About ſeven miles from Gau, on the ſame ſide of the Nile, is the village of Eridy, the reſidence of a chiek of the ſame name.

In the mountains, near the village of Eridy, are 10 or 12 ſepulchral caverns. There are alſo many heaps of ruins, which, according to the report of the Copti, are the remains of the ancient town of Irgy.

Dandera is a ſmall village, but very pleaſantly ſituated, being encompaſſed by continued rows of trees, which produce all the various fruits to be met with in Egypt.

Nagadi is a large town, and, among other edifices, contains ſeveral ſpacious moſques; and the Copti have a biſhop who conſtantly reſides here.

Carnac is a name given to a vaſt extent of country to the eaſt of the Nile, where are ſeen, in various places, ſome very conſiderable ruins of buildings that were once ſpacious and magnificent.

Eſnay is higher up the river, and is a large place, adorned with a very handſome moſque. It is the reſidence of an Arab chiek, and is ſituated where the ancient Latopolis ſtood, ſome remains of which are ſtill to be ſeen.

Edfu, or Ftfou, is the ancient Apollinopolis, and is ſituated on the weſtern ſide of the Nile. Here is a fine monument of antiquity, well preſerved, which has been long converted into a citadel, and now occupied by the Turks.

Elfouan is alſo ſituated on the weſtern ſide of the Nile, and is the ancient Seyne, which was under the tropic of Cancer. It is at this place where the firſt cataract of the Nile begins, above which is the Iſland Gieſiret Ell Heiff, the Philæ of the ancients, which is a deſart, and quite covered with rocks of granite. The borders of this iſland are cut in the form of a wall on the rock; and within are abundance of colonades, buildings, and other magnificent antiquities.

At Debaude are the ruins of ſeveral grand edifices; as alſo at Hindau, Shadaeb, and Teſſa, where Egypt ends, and Nubia begins. From hence up to Derri are many ſmall villages, in ſome of which are to be ſeen ſeveral ruins of antiquity.

Derri is ſituated on the eaſtern ſhore of the Nile, near the place where the river begins to direct its courſe towards the weſt. It is inhabited by a race of people called Barbarins, who are a poor miſerable tribe, and live chiefly by plunder. The ſlope of the ſhore of the Nile here is covered in many places with lupines and radiſhes, the ſeed of which ſerves for the purpoſe of making oil.

The people of Derri have frequent occaſion to croſs the Nile, in order to go to Elfouan, but as they have not the convenience of canoes, they ſupply that deficiency by various projects, the moſt diſtinguiſhed of which, as deſcribed by a modern writer, are as follows: "Two men ſit upon a truſs of ſtraw, while a cow goes before ſwimming; one of them holds in one hands the tail of the cow, and with the other directs a cord faſtened to the horns of the animal. The other man, who is behind, ſteers with a little oar, by means of which he keeps a balance at the ſame time." Another way is to croſs the river with camels loaded, in this manner: "A man ſwims before, holding the bridle of the firſt camel in his mouth; the ſecond camel is faſtened to the tail of the firſt, and the third to the tail of the ſecond: another man ſitting on a truſs of ſtraw, brings up the rear, and takes care that the ſecond and third camels follow in a row." A third way is this: "They put themſelves aſtride upon a great piece of wood, after having placed their cloaths over their heads in form of a turban. They alſo faſten to it their aſſagaye, or dart: they afterwards make uſe of their arms as oars; and by this means they croſs the river without much difficulty, or any danger from the crocodiles."

SECTION VIII.

Perſons, Dreſs, Diſpoſitions, Government of Families, Mode of Living, Female Subordination, Diverſions, Diſeaſes, Marriage and Funeral Ceremonies, &c. of the Egyptians.

EGYPT is inhabited by various nations; but the Copts, or Copti, are the real Egyptians, being deſcended from the original inhabitants of the country. They are an ill favoured, bad ſhaped, ſlovenly, and effeminate people. Their common dreſs is a blue ſhirt, which the men gird about them for convenience when they labour. The ſuperior claſs of women wear a piece of gauze over their faces, and a large black veil to cover their bodies. The veil of the others is part of the ſhift, with window holes cut in it to ſee through. Some of their bracelets are made of gold finely jointed, others of ſilver or braſs wire, and a common ſort are manufactured of plain iron. The children in general go naked.

In the ſummer time the men wear a kind of looſe coat over a ſhort waiſtcoat, from which falls a pair of breeches, ſomewhat like trowſers. They have a turban on their heads, and red ſlippers on their feet.

The women wear a high crowned cap, and looſe open jacket, under which is a kind of waiſtcoat, with a double row of buttons. They have a petticoat which falls down to the ancles, and wear ſandals and clogs on the feet.

The Egyptians are naturally indolent and effeminate, and all their enjoyment centers in luxurious indulgence. Thus inactive, the ſopha is the principal piece of furniture in an apartment. Their gardens have charming harbours and convenient ſeats, but not a ſingle walk.

Each family forms a ſtate, of which the father is king or governor. The members of it, attached to him by the ties of blood, acknowledge and ſubmit to his power. Before his tribunal their diſputes are brought, and his ſentence terminating them, reſtores peace and order. The children are educated in the women's apartment, and do not come into the hall, eſpecially when ſtrangers are there. A numerous poſterity often reſides under the ſame roof. The children and grandchildren come and pay their common father a daily tribute of veneration and love. The pleaſure of being loved and reſpected, in proportion as age increaſes, makes him forget he grows old. He is chearful, jocular, and happy, in the boſom of his family. When he dies they mourn his loſs, and ſhew every token of reſpect for his memory.

When viſitors come the maſter receives them without many compliments, but in an endearing manner. His equals are ſeated beſide him, with their legs croſſed. His inferiors kneel, and ſit upon their heels. People of diſtinction are placed on a raiſed ſopha, whence they overlook the company.

When every perſon is placed, the ſlaves bring pipes and coffee, and ſet the perfume brazier in the middle of the chamber, the air of which is impregnated with its odours, and afterwards preſent ſweetmeats and ſherbet; for the Egyptians hold wine in abhorrence. When the viſit is almoſt ended, a ſlave, bearing a ſilver plate, in which precious eſſences are burning, goes round the company; each in turn perfumes the beard, and afterwards ſprinkles roſe-water on the head and hands. This is the laſt ceremony, and the gueſts are then permitted to retire.

About noon the table is prepared, and the viands brought in a large tray of tinned copper: and if there is not great variety, there is great plenty. In the center is a pile of rice, cooked with poultry, and highly ſeaſoned with ſpice and ſaffron. Round this are bathed meats, pigeons, ſtuffed cucumbers, delicious melons, and fruits. The roaſt meats are cut ſmall, larded over with the fat of the animal, ſeaſoned with ſalt, ſpitted, and done on the coals. The gueſts are ſeated on a

carpet

carpet round the table. A ſlave brings water in one hand, and a baſon in the other, to waſh. This is an indeſpenſable ceremony, where each perſon puts his hand in the diſh, and where the uſe of forks is unknown. It is repeated when the meal is ended.

After dinner the Egyptians retire to the haaram, where they ſlumber ſome hours amidſt their wives and children. A commodious and agreeable place of repoſe is luxury to them. The poor, having neither ſopha or haaram, lie down on the mat on which they have dined.

In the evening it is cuſtomary to go on the water, or breathe the freſh air on the banks of the Nile, beneath the orange and ſycamore ſhades. About an hour after ſun-ſet ſupper is ſerved, conſiſting of rice, poultry, vegetables, and fruits, which are very ſalutary during the heats. They are moderate in their eating.

Such is the manner in which the Egyptians uſually live. Their days are paſſed in repeating the ſame thing, without a wiſh or thought beyond.

The Egyptian women are bowed down by the fetters of ſlavery, condemned to ſervitude, and have not the leaſt influence in public affairs. Their empire is confined within the walls of the haaram, and the circle of their lives extends not beyond their own family and domeſtic duties. Their main object is to educate their children. Their moſt fervent wiſh is a numerous offſpring, as public reſpect, and the love of their huſbands, are annexed to fruitfulneſs. Mothers in general ſuckle their children, according to the law of nature, as well as that of Mahomet.

Every domeſtic concern, indeed, is the department of the women. They ſuperintend their houſehold affairs, and prepare their own food, and that of their huſbands.

The women according to the cuſtom of the eaſt, do not aſſociate with the men, not even at table, where the union of ſexes produces mirth and wit, and renders the fair more ſweet. When any of the great are diſpoſed to dine with one of their wives, ſhe has due notice of it, prepares the apartment, perfumes it with precious eſſences, procures the moſt delicate viands, and receives her lord with the utmoſt attention and reſpect.

Among the common people the women uſually ſtand or ſit in one corner of the room while the huſband dines, often hold the baſon for him to waſh, and ſerve him at table. Though thus employed, the Egyptian women have much leiſure, which they ſpend among their ſlaves, embroidering ſaſhes, making veils, tracing deſigns to decorate their ſophas, and ſpinning. Once or twice a week they are permitted to go to the bath, and receive female relations and friends. To bewail the dead is a duty they are permitted to perform.

The Egyptian women receive each others viſits very affectionately, and diſplay, upon thoſe occaſions, both elegance and hoſpitality.

When a viſitor is in the haaram the huſband muſt not enter; it is the aſylum of hoſpitality which cannot be violated. The Turkiſh women go guarded by their eunuchs upon the water, and enjoy the charming proſpects upon the banks of the Nile.

In this manner the Egyptian women, in general, paſs their lives. Their duties are to educate their children, ſuperintend the concerns of their houſehold, and live retired with their family. Their pleaſures are to viſit, give entertainments, go upon the water, and to the baths. To theſe may be added their attention to the Almai, a claſs of females we ſhall now deſcribe.

Theſe women obtain the title of Almai, or learned, from being more carefully educated than the others of their ſex. To be admitted into their claſs, the requiſites are a fine voice, eloquence, and a genius for poetry. They have a fund of ſongs and tales, are preſent at all feſtivals, and the chief ornament of banquets. Having ſung in raiſed orcheſtra during the feaſt, they deſcend and form dances, which in no reſpect reſemble ours, but are a kind of pantomimes, diſplaying the common incidents of life. Love is their uſual ſubject. Their action and countenances are very ſignificant, but they tend to convey obſcene ideas.

As the minds of theſe women are cultivated, their converſation agreeable, their language pure, and their poetry attractive, they are admitted into all haarams, to inſtruct the women in thoſe accompliſhments that are moſt pleaſing. In fine, their manner of recitation and deportment is ſo captivating, that the Turks, dull as they are, and averſe to the arts, paſs whole nights in attending to their performances.

The bagnios of Cairo are elegantly conſtructed, the apartments are furniſhed with every accommodation, and the attendants equally expert and obſequious. Theſe baths are recommended as highly ſalutary, preventing or exterminating rheumatiſms, catarrhs, and thoſe diſeaſes of the ſkin which are occaſioned by the want of perſpiration.

The women are paſſionately fond of the baths, whither they go at leaſt once a week, taking with them ſlaves accuſtomed to the office. The days of bathing are feſtive days among the Egyptian women: they deck themſelves magnificently, and, under the long veil and mantle which hide them from the public eye, wear the richeſt ſtuffs. It is contrary to the laws of this country for men to preſume to go into a bagnio on the day that the women bathe, and, to prevent miſtakes, a ſignal is hung up, and a man placed at the door-way. The Georgian and Circaſſian women, whom the Turks purchaſe for their wives, are elegantly attired; and though their luxury is hidden from the public, it ſurpaſſes that of European women in their own houſes.

The inhabitants of this country are ſubject to various diſeaſes from the natural effects of the climate. Cairo is commonly viſited by the plague once in three or four years, when it rages with incredible violence. Sore eyes is a general complaint, and blindneſs ſo common, that Egypt has been proverbially ſtiled *The land of blindneſs*. Scorbutic and leprous diſorders are likewiſe very prevalent here; and many perſons are carried off by a diſtemper called Dem-al-Muyah, reſembling the apoplexy in its ſymtoms.

With reſpect to the marriages of the Egyptians, they are not, as in Europe, permanent contracts. If a man is deſirous of parting from his wife he goes before the judge, declares in his preſence he puts her from him, and, when the four months probation, enjoined by the law, are expired, he returns the wealth ſhe brought, and the portion ſtipulated in the marriage contract. If they have children, the huſband retains the boys, and the wife takes away the girls, after which they become free, and may marry elſewhere. The wife having recourſe to the law, and proving the real cauſe of complaint, may break the chain; but in this caſe ſhe loſes her portion, and the wealth ſhe brought to the houſe of her huſband, though ſhe recovers her liberty.

Matches are made for the young men by the female relations. They meet moſt of the maidens of the city at the bath, whom they perfectly deſcribe, and the choice being made, the alliance is mentioned to the father of the female, the portion ſpecified, and, if he conſents, they make him preſents. The parties agreed, the female relations and friends of the virgin prepare her for the celebration of the nuptials, and the day is paſſed in feaſting, dancing, and ſinging ſongs adapted to the occaſion.

The following day the ſame perſons go to the houſe of the bride, tear her, as it were, violently away from the arms of her afflicted mother, and triumphantly conduct her to the houſe of the bridegroom. The proceſſion uſually begins in the evening; dancers go before her; numerous ſlaves diſplay the effects deſtined to her uſe; troops of dancing girls keep time with their inſtruments; matrons, richly cloathed, walk with a grave pace; and the young bride appears under a magnificent canopy, borne by four ſlaves, ſuſtained by her mother and ſiſters, and entirely covered by a veil, embroidered with gold, pearls, and diamonds. A long

file of flambeaux illuminate the proceſſion; and the Almai, in chorus, occaſionally ſing verſes in praiſe of the bride and bridegroom.

When they arrive at the houſe of the bride, the women and men repair to their ſeparate apartments, thoſe of the former being ſo contrived that they can ſee what paſſes in the hall were the men are aſſembled. The Almai deſcend and diſplay their agility and addreſs in dances and pantomimical repreſentations ſuitable to the occaſion. This ended, they chaunt, in chorus, the epithalamium (or marriage poem) extolling the allurements of the bride, and the bliſs of that mortal who ſhall enjoy ſo many charms. During the ceremony ſhe ſeveral times paſſes before the bridegroom, to diſplay her wealth and elegance. The gueſts having retired, the huſband enters the nuptial chamber, the veil is removed, and, for the firſt time, he beholds his wife.

Theſe are the laws and ceremonies of marriage obſerved among the Egyptians of rank. The inferior claſſes obſerve the ſame, but the paraphernalia are not ſo pompous. Nearly the ſame ceremonies are obſerved among the Copts; but they have a cuſtom of betrothing young girls only ſix or ſeven years old, which is done by putting a ring on the finger. Permiſſion is often obtained for her friends to educate her till ſhe arrives at years of diſcretion.

We have already obſerved that to bewail the dead is a duty allowed the woman to perform. Diſtracted mothers are often ſeen round Grand Cairo reciting funeral hymns over the tombs they had ſtrewed with odoriferous plants. This cuſtom was not unknown to the Romans, who had their funeral urns ſtrewed with cypreſs.

Beſides the Copts, Egypt is inhabited by Turks, Arabs, Moors, Greeks, Jews, and Franks. The Arabs are a ſwarthy people, and live in tents. The Turks retain all their Ottoman pride and inſolence, with their peculiar mode of dreſs, to diſtinguiſh them from the reſt of the inhabitants. The Jews wear blue ſlippers, the foreign Chriſtians yellow, and the natives red.

Among the inhabitants of Egypt there are two ſorts of a peculiar kind. The firſt are called the Eſtabliſhed Bedouins, and the latter the Wandering Bedouins. The former live in villages, and are to be conſidered as peaſants of the country: the latter occupy tents, and ſhift their habitations for the convenience of paſture. They are repreſented in general as a people free from care and ſtrife, averſe to worldly pomp and avarice, and happy in thoſe enjoyments that reſult from pure nature.

From Egypt came originally that vagrant race called Gypſies, which diſperſed themſelves throughout Europe and Aſia. Being baniſhed Egypt, where the occult ſcience, or black art, as it was called, was ſuppoſed to have arrived to great perfection, they found no difficulty to maintain themſelves by pretending to tell fortunes and future events, and thereby gaining on the minds of the credulous of different nations. In our country this race is nearly extinct.

SECTION IX.

State of the Commerce of Egypt. Revenues.

EGYPT, in her declining ſtate, without arts, ſhipping, or mariners expert in navigation, cannot rival the Europeans in point of commerce. Their greateſt effort is an annual voyage to Mocha, where their veſſels are laden with coffee Yemen, the muſlins and cloths of Bengal, the perfumes of Arabia, and the pearls of the iſles of Beharim. Their profits upon the article of coffee are great, amounting to half a million ſterling. Moſt of it is ſent to Conſtantinople, Greece, and the coaſt of Syria, and the reſt they conſume themſelves.

Notwithſtanding her ſtate of declenſion, Egypt contains within herſelf the true ſource of wealth. The corn with which ſhe ſupplies Arabia, Syria, and a part of the Archipelago; the rice ſent over the Mediterranean; the ſal-ammoniac ſent to divers parts of Europe, the excellent flax eſteemed by the Italians; and the blue cloth which clothes, in part, the neighbouring nations; theſe are objects which muſt render the balance of trade favourable to the Egyptians.

The Abyſſinians bring them gold duſt, elephants' teeth, and other valuable articles, which they exchange for their productions. The cloaths, lead, arms, &c. brought by European veſſels, do not equal what they receive, ſo that the balance is paid in Turkiſh piaſtres. The copper kitchen furniture and ſtuffs which the Turks ſend to Alexandria, are below the amount of corn, rice, lentils, coffee, and perfumes, they take back, moſt of which are paid for in ready money.

Except Mocha and Mecca, where the Egyptians annually leave a great part of their ſequins, all who trade with them bring them ſilver and gold.

In many of the villages on the banks of the Nile the inhabitants are chiefly employed in making ſal-ammoniac. This ſalt is procured from the ſoot which ariſes from the burnt dung of animals that feed only on vegetables: but the dung of theſe animals is only fit to be burnt for that purpoſe during the firſt four months of the year, when they feed on freſh ſpring graſs, which, in Egypt, is a kind of treſoil or clover; for when they feed only on dry meat it will not do. The dung of oxen, buffalos, ſheep, goats, horſes, and aſſes, at the proper time, is as fit as the dung of camels for this purpoſe. The ſoot ariſing from the burnt dung is put into glaſs veſſels, and theſe veſſels into an oven or kiln, which is heated by degrees, and at laſt with a very ſtrong fire for three ſucceſſive nights and days; after which the ſmoak firſt ſhews itſelf, and, in a ſhort time, the ſalt appears, adhering to the glaſſes, and, by degrees, covers the whole opening. The glaſſes being broken, the ſalt is taken out in the ſame ſtate and form in which it is ſent to Europe.

Pebbles are here finely poliſhed for ſnuff-boxes, handles for knives, &c. They are done by a wheel, like jewellery work, and are not to be rivalled any where. At Cairo red leather is made, and a better ſort is prepared at Alexandria; yet the latter is far inferior to that which is made in Morocco.

The revenues of Egypt, when compared to the natural riches of the country, and the deſpotiſm of its government, are very inconſiderable. It is ſaid that they amount to a million ſterling, but that two thirds of the whole is ſpent in the country.

SECTION X.

Government, Religion, and Language of the Egyptians.

THE government of Egypt may be ſaid to be conſtituted of two parts, monarchical and republican. The monarchical part is executed by a pacha, appointed by the Grand Seignior as his viceroy. The republic is by the Mamalukes, or Sangiacs. The appellation of Mamaluke is beſtowed on children, who, carried off by merchants or banditti from Georgia, Circaſſia, Natolia, and the various provinces of the Ottoman empire, are afterwards ſold in Conſtantinople and Cairo. The grandees of Egypt, who have a ſimilar origin, bring them up in their houſes, and deſtine them to ſucceed to their dignities. Theſe foreigners, at preſent, can alone enjoy the title of Bey, and fill the offices of ſtate. They have the advantage of a liberal education, are taught the martial exerciſes, and trained up for the higheſt departments in the army or the ſtate.

The ſovereignty of the pacha is merely nominal: the beys, or ſangiacs, at the head of provinces and armies, in reality enjoy all the power. Twenty-four of theſe compoſe a divan. The head of them is called the chiek-bellet, who is choſen by the divan, and confirmed by the pacha. Each of theſe ſangiacs is arbitrary in his own territory and exerts ſovereign power. The greater part of them reſide at Cairo. If the pacha appointed by the Grand Seignor acts in oppoſition to the

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ſenſe of the divan, or attempts to violate their privileges, they will not ſuffer him to continue in his poſt. They have an extenſive grant of privileges dated in the year 1517, in which the Sultan Selim, having conquered Egypt, and overthrown the Circaſſian Mamalukes, cauſed their head, Thomam Bey, to be hanged at one of the gates of Cairo. Diſguſted at this, they only waited the departure of the Turks to reſume their arms, and Selim perceiving his error, in order to gain the good will of the Mamalukes, granted them very peculiar privileges, as ſpecified in a treaty ſigned by him for that purpoſe. So that by theſe means the Egyptian government partook of monarchy and ariſtocracy.

With reſpect to their military force, two of the corps ſerve on foot, viz. the janiſſaries and Arabs, and the reſt are horſemen under different titles. The janiſſaries are ſuppoſed to form a body of about 20,000, the Arabs about 8000, and the horſe about 20,000; ſo that the whole number amounts to about 40,000.

For the maintenance of the civil government of Egypt the divan is held three times a week at the pacha's palace at Cairo. Puniſhments are in proportion to the offences committed. Murder is puniſhed with death, but inferior crimes with the baſtinado or whipping. Bakers, for making their bread deficient in weight, are ſometimes put into their own ovens when hot, and there ſuffered to periſh; and butchers, for ſelling ſtinking meat, have one of their ears nailed to their ſhop door, with a piece of the fleſh in a wire through the noſe. In this ſituation they are obliged to continue four hours.

The Jews under this government are hated, deſpiſed, and oppreſſed, ſo that they are dwindled into a very inconſiderable number, except at Cairo, and reduced to the loweſt poverty. The inhabitants of the upper parts of the kingdom are not only oppreſſed by their rapacious governors, but expoſed to the ravages of the Arabian chiefs, who take all opportunities of plundering the villagers, by way of reprifal for the hardſhips they ſuffer from petty tyrants. From theſe inſtances of tyranny, the government of Egypt may be ſaid to be equally oppreſſive with that under the arbitrary ſway of the moſt deſpotic prince.

With reſpect to religion, the ancient Egyptians were the groſſeſt idolaters, and are ſaid to have been the firſt who erected idolatrous altars, images, and temples. They had a great number of deities of different ſpecies, ranks, and orders. The celeſtial deities were Jupiter, the all vivifying power; Vulcan, or fire; Ceres, or the earth; Oceanus (by which they meant their Nile) or moiſture; and Neith Minerva, or the air. Their terreſtrial deities, ſome of which bore the ſame names with the celeſtial, were the Sun; Cronus, or Saturn; Rhea; Jupiter, or Ammon; Juno; Veſta; Hermes, or Mercury, &c. &c.

Beſides theſe, the Egyptians worſhipped a number of animals, as the ox, the dog, the wolf, the hawk, the crocodile, the ibis, &c. but that which was held moſt ſacred was the bull, by which they repreſented Oſiris. It alſo appears, from ſome relics of ancient poetry, that they paid religious honours to trees and roots.

As to the modern ſtate of religion in Egypt, the Turks, Moors, and Arabs, are Mahometans. The two latter are zealous devotees, and perform the ſeveral functions with great preciſion. They have among them a ſet of miſcreants called *ſantos*, who are moſt inſolent hypocrites, intruding themſelves, upon pretence of ſuperior holineſs, into the beſt houſes without the leaſt ceremony, and it would be dangerous to turn them out. The ſuperiors in religious matters are the Mufti, who is the principal, and the doctors of the law; theſe are judges in all cauſes of a ſpiritual nature.

It appears from the moſt ancient and authentic records, that Chriſtianity was firſt planted in Egypt by St. Mark. The Copts ſtill profeſs themſelves Chriſtians according to the tenets of the Greek church, being under the juriſdiction of the patriarch of Alexandria.

The Coptic, which was the original language of Egypt, was ſucceeded by the Greek, upon the conqueſt of Alexander the Great, and continued in uſe till the Arabs took poſſeſſion of the country. Since that period the Arabic has been the current language; but the Coptic and modern Greek ſtill continue to be ſpoken.

SECTION XI.

HISTORY OF EGYPT.

IT is generally agreed by writers, that Egypt has been very long a celebrated kingdom. The firſt king that can be mentioned with authority, was Mizraim, the ſon of Ham, who reigned in the year of the world 1816. A number of kings filled the Egyptian throne in due ſucceſſion; but little or nothing is recorded concerning them till the year of the world 2427, when Namaſes Miamum, one of the Pharaohs of the ſacred writings, reigned over the country, and was particularly oppreſſive to the Iſraelites. This prince was ſucceeded by his ſon Amerophis, who was the Pharaoh under whoſe reign the Iſraelites departed out of Egypt, and who was himſelf drowned in the Red Sea.

Mieries, or Myris, was the prince in whoſe reign was dug the famous lake that goes by his name. Seſoſtris, his ſucceſſor, who began his reign in the year of the world 2513, was one of the greateſt heroes of antiquity, and renowned for the extent of his conqueſt. He divided Egypt into nomes or provinces, raiſed a formidable military and naval armament, entered the Red Sea, ſubdued the coaſts, conquered the iſlands, and then turning back, proceeded with equal ſucceſs to India. He carried his victorious arms throughout Aſia, and extended his empire from the Ganges to the Danube. After a victorious reign of 33 years, he left his kingdom, on his demiſe, to his ſon Pherſon, who did not ſucceed to his father's glories, though he did to his territories. His only ſingular tranſaction was the building two magnificent obeliſks, each 100 cubits in height, and eight in breadth.

There is no further authentic hiſtory of Egypt till the reign of Porteus, or Cates, in the year of the world 2800. At that time Paris, the Trojan, was driven by a ſtorm from the Ægean to the Egyptian Seas, which compelled him to put into the port of Tarichæa, ſituated at one of the mouths of the Nile. Thonis, a tributary king, and governor of that part, ſeized his perſon, ſecured his ſhips, and ſent Paris himſelf to Porteus at Memphis. The king underſtanding that he had ſtolen Helen, reproached him with his perfidy; and then ſeizing all the riches which he had brought with him from Greece together, in order to reſtore both to the injured Menelaus, he commanded Paris and his attendants to quit his territories in three days, under pain of being treated as enemies.

Of the eight kings which followed Porteus nothing authentic is recorded, but the immenſe wealth of his immediate ſucceſſor, Rhemphis, till the reign of Nilus, from whence the Nile took that name, as he had exerted his utmoſt endeavours to render that river as univerſally ſerviceable as poſſible.

The next memorable event was in the reign of Sethon, when Sennacherib, king of Aſſyria, invaded Egypt, and committed great depredations, till his whole army was at length deſtroyed.

Sethon was ſucceeded by Tharaca, on whoſe demiſe the Egyptians divided their whole country into twelve diſtricts, and elected a king to reign over each diviſion. This government of twelve kings, however, laſted only fifteen years; for one of the kings, named Pſammatichus, who ruled near the ſea coaſts, having grown opulent by commerce, and contracted ſeveral alliances with foreign powers, at length became ſo formidable, that he conquered the other eleven kings, and reduced the whole country beneath his ſway. This prince reigned ſolely 54 years, 29 of which he ſpent in the ſiege of Azotus, in Syria, before he could reduce that great city. This is the longeſt ſiege commemorated in hiſtory.

Necus succeeded his father Pſammatichus in the year of the world 3388, and 616 years before Chriſt. This monarch is called, in ſcripture, Pharaoh Necho. He began a canal of communication between the Nile and the Red Sea, which Darius, the Perſian, afterwards finiſhed. He built a fleet of gallies in the North Sea, and another in the Arabian Gulph, at the mouth of the Red Sea; after which he got ſome of the moſt expert ſeamen in the Phœnician ſervice, and ſent them out by the Red Sea, through the Straits of Babelmandel, to diſcover the coaſt of Africa, where in three years time, they failed round the continent of Africa, paſſed the Straits of Gibraltar, and returned home by the way of the Mediterranean Sea. Herodotus ſays, that this king fought a battle againſt the Syrians in the plains of Magdolus, where he obtained the victory, and took the great city of Cadytis. Joſephus ſays, that Necus made war upon the Medes and Babylonians, who had diſſolved the Aſſyrian empire, and became ſo formidable thereupon, as raiſed a jealouſy of all their neighbours; and therefore, to put a ſtop to their growing greatneſs, Necus marched with a great army towards the Euphrates, to make war upon them, in the 31ſt year of Joſiah, king of Judah. But the ſcripture expreſsly ſays, "Pharaoh Necho, king of Egypt, went up againſt the king of Aſſyria to the river Euphrates, and king Joſiah went againſt him, and he ſlew him at Megiddo." This valley of Megiddo in the ſcripture is the ſame as the plains of Magdolus in Herodotus; and the whole is related thus by Dean Prideaux. "On Necus's taking his way through Judea, Joſiah reſolved to impede his march, and poſted himſelf in the valley of Megiddo, to ſtop his paſſage; whereupon Necus ſent ambaſſadors to him, to let him know that he had no deſign upon him, that the war he was engaged in was againſt others, and therefore adviſed him not to meddle with him, leſt it ſhould turn to his own hurt. But Joſiah not hearkening thereto, it came to a battle between them, wherein Joſiah was not only overthrown, but alſo unfortunately received a wound, of which, on his return to Jeruſalem, he died." Necus, animated by this victory, continued his march, and advanced towards the Euphrates, where he defeated the Babylonians, and took Charchemiſh, a great city in thoſe parts, where he left a good garriſon, and after three months returned again towards Egypt: but hearing, in his way, that Jehohaz, the ſon of Joſiah had taken upon him to be king of Judah without his conſent, he ſent for him to Riblah, in Syria, and, on his arrival, cauſed him to be put in chains, and ſent him priſoner into Egypt, where he died. Necus then proceeding on his way came to Jeruſalem, where he made Jehoiakim, another of the ſons of Joſiah, king, inſtead of his brother, and put the land to an annual tribute of 100 talents of ſilver, and a talent of gold; after which he returned with great triumph into his own kingdom.

Necus died after a reign of ſixteen years, and was ſucceeded by his ſon Pſammis, who reigned only ſix years, and left the kingdom to his ſon Apries.

Apries, in the ſacred writings, is called Pharaoh Hophra. He reigned with great proſperity, took Sidon, and reduced all Phœnicia and Paleſtine; after which he concluded an alliance with Zedekiah, king of Judah, declared himſelf the protector of Iſrael, and promiſed to deliver it from the tyranny of Nebuchadnezzar, who ſoon after deſtroyed Jeruſalem, and carried away Zedekiah captive to Babylon. Soon after the judgments decreed by the prophets of God againſt Apries began to operate; for that prince having ſent an army againſt the Cyrenians, it was defeated, and the greateſt part of the men ſlain. But this overthrow was not the only misfortune, for the Egyptians conceived, by the imprudent conduct of Apries in the whole affair, that he had intended this army ſhould periſh. Fearing, therefore, that he ſhould devote more of them to deſtruction, they revolted in great numbers, and put him to defiance. In this dilemma Apries diſpatched Amaſis, an officer of his court, to appeaſe the inſurgents, and bring them back to a ſenſe of their duty. But while Amaſis was ſpeaking to them, they put on his head the enſigns of royalty, and declared him their king. Amaſis accepted the dignity, and joined the revolters, which ſo enraged Apries, that he ſent Paterbemis, another of his officers, to apprehend Amaſis. Paterbemis not being able to effect the buſineſs, on his return had his ears and noſe cut off by the king's orders. The wrong and indignity offered to a perſon of his character and worth ſo enraged the reſt of the Egyptians, that the revolt almoſt became general; whereupon Apries was forced to fly, and made his eſcape into the Upper Egypt, where he maintained himſelf for ſome years, while Amaſis held all the reſt. The king of Babylon took advantages of theſe inteſtine diviſions, and ſubdued Egypt from Migdol to Seyne; that is, from one end of the kingdom to the other. He made a miſerable ravage and devaſtation wherever he came, killed a great number of the inhabitants, and made ſuch dreadful havock in the country, that the damage could not be repaired in forty years. Nebuchadnezzar having loaded his army with ſpoils, and conquered the whole kingdom, came to an accommodation with Amaſis, whom he left as viceroy, and returned to Babylon.

Nebuchadnezzar having left Egypt, Apries forſook his hiding places, and hiring an army of Carians, Ionians, &c. marched againſt Amaſis, and gave him battle near the city of Memphis. Being vanquiſhed, however, and taken priſoner, he was carried to the city of Sais, and there ſtrangled in his own palace: whereby the prophecies of Ezekiel and Jeremiah were fulfilled.

Amaſis, who became ſole monarch of Egypt in the year of the word 3435, and 569 before Chriſt, was a native of Sinph, in the province of Sais; he was a worthy king, and an excellent legiſlator. Egypt, in his time, was happy in the fecundity of the Nile, and is ſaid to have contained ſome thouſand populous cities, towns, and villages. To maintain good order in the midſt of ſuch a multitude, Amaſis made a law, whereby every Egyptian was obliged to inform the governor of the province once a year by what means he maintained himſelf; the omiſſion of giving ſuch information being puniſhed with death.

Among other public works, he built an admirable portico before the temple of Minerva at Sais, and erected a coloſſus before the temple of Vulcan at Memphis. This coloſſus lay with its face upwards, was 75 feet in length, and had beſide it two other ſmaller ſtatues cut out of the ſame ſtone. He likewiſe built the ſpacious temple of Iſis at Memphis, which was a ſtructure of aſtoniſhing magnificence.

In the reign of this king, Cambyſes, king of Perſia, conceived the deſign of invading Egypt, but when he arrived on the borders of that kingdom, he received information of the death of Amaſis, who departed this life after a happy reign, which laſted 44 years. His body was embalmed, and then interred in a ſepulchre which he had ſome years before erected for himſelf.

Pſammenitus, the ſon of Amaſis, ſucceeded his father, in the year of the world 3479, and 525 years before Chriſt. This prince had a ſhort and calamitous reign; for Cambyſes, ſtill purſuing his deſign of conquering Egypt, the Perſians and Egyptians came to an engagement, when the latter were defeated, great numbers ſlain, and Pſammenitus himſelf taken priſoner. Cambyſes treated the captive king in a moſt ignominious manner: he made his daughter a ſlave, ordered his ſon to be executed as a common malefactor, and at length put Pſammenitus himſelf to death.

Having received the ſubmiſſion of all Egypt, Cambyſes proceeded to Sais, and, with an unmanly degree of reſentment, ordered the body of Amaſis to be taken out of the ſepulchre and burnt.

The Egyptians were treated with all the inſolence of conqueſt, and reduced to the very loweſt degree of ſubmiſſion. Their royal line was extinct, their religion trampled on, their prieſts perſecuted, and themſelves

deſpiſed

deſpiſed and oppreſſed. And thus the kingdom, after having continued in a regal ſucceſſion above 1600 years fell a prey to Cambyſes, one of the moſt outrageous and violent princes that ever reigned.

The ſucceſſion of the Egyptian kings here ends, and from this period the hiſtory of this nation becomes blended with that of the Perſians and Greeks, till the death of Alexander the great, and after that æra it is intermixed with the hiſtory of other nations. It has been ſubject, ſucceſſively, to the Greeks, Romans, Saracens, Mamalukes, and laſt to the Turks. This period, viz. the year of the world 3480, and before Chriſt 524, is deemed the ſecond period of the Egyptian hiſtory. But, to purſue the hiſtory progreſſively. After the conqueſt of Egypt by Cambyſes, it continued a province of Perſia, till the deſtruction of that empire by Alexander the Great, who having vanquiſhed Darius, it fell under the dominion of that mighty conqueror, who ſoon after built the celebrated city of Alexandria, then the emporium of the rich merchandize of the Indies.

The conqueſts of Alexander, who died in the prime of life, being divided amongſt his generals, the province of Egypt fell to the lot of Ptolemy, when it became an independent kingdom, about 300 years before the Chriſtian æra. His ſucceſſors, who ſometimes extended their dominions over great part of Syria, long retained the name of Ptolemy, and in that line Egypt continued between two and three hundred years, till the famous Cleopatra, the wife of Ptolemy Dioniſius aſcended the throne.

The firſt monarch of the Macedonian race, who reigned in Egypt after the death of Alexander the Great, was called Ptolemy Soter. The name of Soter, or Saviour, was given him by the Rhodians, in conſideration of his friendly offices towards them while their metropolis was beſieged by Demetrius, the ſon of Antigonus. This prince choſe Alexandria as his reſidence, and granted privileges to thoſe who ſettled there, by which means that city became very populous and wealthy. He was a valiant prince, and bravely defended his kingdom from repeated attacks.

Ptolemy Philadelphus, ſon and ſucceſſor of Ptolemy Soter, is deſervedly celebrated for liberty and pious actions. He devoted his attention to the improvement of the noble Alexandrian library, and ſpared neither pains or expence to procure the moſt valuable and curious books from various nations. He alſo cauſed, at an immenſe expence, the Old Teſtament to be tranſlated from the Hebrew into Greek, which arduous taſk having been completed in ſeventy-two days, by ſeventy two elders, is commonly called "The Septuagint." It may not be improper to obſerve, that the moſt ancient and beſt manuſcript of the Septuagint Verſion extant, is the Alexandrian copy which is now in the king's library at St. James's, written all in capital letters, without the diſtinctions of chapter, verſes, or words. It was preſented to King Charles I. by Cyrillus Lucaris, the patriarch of Conſtantinople, who had been patriarch of Alexandria,

About this time the Romans began to flouriſh and obtain a name among foreign nations; whereupon Ptolemy, deſiring to enter into an alliance with them, ſent an embaſſy for that purpoſe to Rome. The Romans received them with the greateſt cordiality, and returned the compliment by ſending ambaſſadors to Egypt, who were treated with the moſt profound reſpect, and preſented, at their departure, with magnificent gifts.

Ptolemy Philadelphus, after his death, left behind him the character of a wiſe, magnanimous, and learned prince, at once endeavouring to promote commerce, and encourage literature, in his kingdom, by which he augmented the fortunes, and improved the minds of his ſubjects. To perpetuate a taſte for literature in his dominions, he erected public ſchools and academies at Alexandria, where they long flouriſhed in great reputation. His intercourſe with learned men, and his care to dignify the ſciences, may be conſidered as the ſource of thoſe meaſures he purſued to make commerce flouriſh in his dominions.

Ptolemy III. ſurnamed Energetes, or the Benefactor, ſucceeded his father in the 246th year before Chriſt. In the commencement of his reign he made preparations to wage war againſt Antiochus Teos, king of Syria, who had divorced his ſiſter Berenice. In th mean time Antiochus was poiſoned by his other wife Laodice; and his ſon began his reign by putting Berenice and her ſon to death.

To revenge the death of his ſiſter, Ptolemy raiſed a conſiderable armament, ſoon made himſelf maſter of Syria and Cilicia, and having taken Laodice he put her to death; then paſſing the Euphrates, he ſubdued all the country from thence to the Tigris. Having provided for the protection of the places he ſubjugated, he returned to Egypt, carrying with him immenſe riches. An accommodation at length taking place between him and his enemies, he applied himſelf to enlarging his dominions ſouthward, which having effected, he was poiſoned by his wife, after he had reigned 25 years.

This profligate prince was ironically called Philopater, a word ſignifying, *Lover of his Father*; whereas his murdering him being univerſally known, he received that appellation by way of deriſion.

He was ſucceſsful in a war he waged with Antiochus, the lineal king of Syria, who attempted the recovery of his dominions, which had been annexed to the Egyptian territories, and having at length concluded a peace with that prince, he gave himſelf up wholly to libertiniſm, and died a martyr to intemperance in the 37th year of his age, and 17th of his reign.

Ptolemy Philopater being ſucceeded by his ſon Ptolemy Epiphanes, or the Illuſtrious, at the age of five years, Philip, king of Macedon, and Antiochus, king of Syria, thinking to avail themſelves of his infant ſtate, entered into a league to divide his dominions between them. The latter accordingly marched into Syria and Paleſtine, both of which ſubmitted to him without oppoſition.

In this critical ſituation the Egyptians ſent an ambaſſy to Rome, praying protection, offering the Romans the guardianſhip of their king, and regency of the kingdom, during his minority. The Romans, deſirous of extending their fame, accepted the offer, and immediately diſpatched ambaſſadors to the two kings deſiring them to deſiſt from invading the dominions of the infant prince, otherwiſe they would make war upon them for his protection. At this time the Egyptians had raiſed an army, and ſent a general, named Scopas, to attempt the recovery of the places which had ſubmitted to Antiochus, but were defeated with great loſs.

Antiochus ſoon after ſent an ambaſſy to Alexandria, with propoſals of marriage between Cleopatra, his daughter, and king Ptolemy, to be conſummated as ſoon as the parties ſhould be of a proper age, promiſing reſtoration of the provinces he had conquered on the day of nuptials, by way of dowry with the young princeſs.

The Egyptians accepting the propoſals, the young king, having attained to the age of fourteen years, and being, according to the cuſtom of the country, declared to be out of his minority, as well as enthroned with the uſual pomp, was married to Cleopatra. Antiochus was ſoon after killed in the province of Elimais, where he had plundered a temple dedicated to one of their deities.

The following year Cleopatra had a ſon, who ſucceeded his father on the throne by the name of Ptolemy Philometer. She had alſo another ſon, and a daughter called after her own name. The king having, contrary to the maxims of policy, juſtice, and humanity, taken the life of Ariſtomenes, a moſt loyal ſubject, and faithful counſellor, the remainder of his reign was one continued ſcene of diſorder and confuſion, till he was at length poiſoned by ſome of his attendants, in the 29th year of his age, and 24th of his acceſſion to the throne.

Ptolemy Philometer being but ſix years old when he ſucceeded to the ſovereignty, Cleopatra was declared regent, and governed well till her death, which happened only one year before the expiration of the king's minority.

The regency appointed after her death, demanding of Antiochus Epiphanes, ſon of Antiochus the Great, the reſtitution of the provinces, according to the promiſe of his father, and that prince refuſing compliance, a war enſued between Syria and Egypt.

Preparations were accordingly made by Ptolemy, who had, by this time, been declared out of his minority, and crowned with the uſual ſolemnity. Antiochus obtained ſignal victories over the Egyptians, and at length inveſted Alexandria; on which Ptolemy Energetes, who had been placed upon the throne on the depoſition of his brother, and Cleopatra his ſiſter who were then ſhut up in the town, ſent ambaſſadors to the Romans to ſolicit their aſſiſtance.

In conſequence of this the Roman ſenate ſent ambaſſadors to Egypt to put an end to the war. In the interim a reconciliation was effected between the two brothers at the inſtance of their ſiſter Cleopatra, and an agreement entered into that they ſhould reign jointly.

Antiochus, enraged at this reconciliation, proſecuted hoſtilities, ſubdued all the country as far as Memphis, and marched towards Alexandria, where he was ſtopped in his progreſs, and all his deſigns fruſtrated, being met at a place near Leuſine, by the ambaſſadors ſent from the Roman ſenate. Among theſe was Popillius, whom, as a perſon he had intimately known when at Rome, Antiochus put forth his hand to embrace; but the ambaſſador declined the compliment, enforced the purport of his meſſage, and peremptorily told him that he muſt give an immediate anſwer to the requiſition of the ſenate. Antiochus heſitating, Popillius drew a circle round the king in the ſand with his ſtaff, and required him to give his anſwer before he ſtirred out of that circle. Antiochus alarmed at this peremptory mode of proceeding, after ſome little heſitation, told the ambaſſador, he would obey the command of the ſenate, whereupon Popilljus accepted his embraces, and acted according to his former friendſhip with him.

Antiochus, after this, went back to Syria, and Popillius returned with his colleagues to Alexandria, where they ratified and fully fixed the terms of agreement between the two brothers.

Philometer dying ſoon after this tranſaction, Ptolemy VII, ſurnamed Phyſcon, or tun-bellied, ſucceeded his brother in all his dominions. He was the moſt iniquitous and cruel, as well as the moſt vile and deſpicable of all the Ptolemies that reigned in Egypt. Such were his cruelty and oppreſſion, that great numbers fled out of Egypt, and amongſt them many learned men, and profeſſors of arts and ſciences, by which means learning (that had been a long time loſt) was revived in Greece, Aſia Minor, the iſles, and in all other places were they went. Phyſcon died at Alexandria in the 67th year of his age, having reigned 29 years from the death of his brother Philometer. He left behind him three ſons; Apion, whom he had by a concubine; and Lathyrus and Alexander, whom he had by his niece Cleopatra, to whom he bequeathed the crown of Egypt, in conjunction with one of her ſons, whom ſhe ſhould think fit to chooſe.

Ptolemy VIII. ſurnamed Lathyrus, had been baniſhed to Cyprus by his father, and his mother wiſhed to keep him from the crown: but a faction being raiſed in his favour, he was ſent for, and placed on the throne, in the year of the world 3887. Nothing worthy of record happened in this reign, which laſted ten years, when his mother contrived to dethrone him, and place his brother Alexander on the throne. Ptolemy Lathyrus then retired to Cyprus, where he was ſuffered to govern unmoleſted.

Ptolemy IX. or Alexander I, began his reign A. M. 3897. From the flagitious diſpoſition of the queen mother, her ſon Alexander became apprehenſive that ſome iniquitous deſign was forming againſt him, as had been againſt his brother, on which account he took the impious precaution of putting her to death. This parricide occaſioned a revolt, and Alexander was driven from the throne by his own ſubjects, and afterwards ſlain in an engagement with the revolters. His brother, Ptolemy Lathyrus, being ſent for from Cyprus, was reinſtated on the throne, and continued to reign over Egypt till his death, which happened 36 years after the death of his father, eleven of which he reigned jointly with his mother in Egypt, eighteen in Cyprus and ſeven alone in Egypt after his mother's death. He was ſucceeded by Cleopatra, his daughter, an only legitimate child. Her proper name was Berenice; *but it is neceſſary to obſerve, that as all the males were uſually had the common name of Ptolemy, ſo all the females had that of Cleopatra, and had likewiſe proper names to diſtinguiſh them from each other. The knowledge of this in view will obviate many difficulties in the Egyptian hiſtory.* This Cleopatra was put to death by Alexander, nephew to Lathyrus, to whom ſhe had been eſpouſed; and this monarch, who was called Ptolemy X. or Alexander II. began his reign about the year of the world 3923, and 81 years before Chriſt. The people at length expelled him the kingdom, and called in Ptolemy Auletes, the illegitimate ſon of Lathyrus.

Ptolemy XI. ſurnamed Auletes, or the Piper, from his priding himſelf on his ſkill in playing upon that inſtrument, began his reign in the year of the world 3939, and 65 years before Chriſt. He was a prince of an infamous character, and at the commencement of his reign Julius Cæſar was conſul at Rome. Willing to enter into an alliance with the Romans, he went thither, and, after having expended vaſt ſums, extorted from his ſubjects, was forced to depart without ſucceſs, and retire to Epheſus; after which the Egyptians placed his brother Seleucus on the throne, who proved a very ſordid prince, which occaſioned the Egyptians to give him the nick-name of Cibioſactes, or the Scullion.

Ptolemy Auletes ſoon after applied to the Romans to aſſiſt him in the recovery of his kingdom, and Gabinius, a Roman general, accompanied by the famous Mark Antony, proceeded directly for Egypt.

As the Egyptians could not withſtand the Roman prowreſs, Auletes was ſoon reſtored to his kingdom, but died four years after, and was ſucceeded by his eldeſt ſon Ptolemy, and his eldeſt daughter Cleopatra, who, according to his will, were to reign in conjunction.

Ptolemy XII. and his ſiſter Cleopatra, jointly ſucceeded to the throne of Egypt in the year of the world 3953, and 51 years before Chriſt. This was the Cleopatra who afterwards became ſo remarkable for the ſhare ſhe had in the civil wars of Rome, and her amours with Mark Antony, the Roman triumvir. Cleopatra, in proceſs of time, being deprived of her ſhare of the ſovereignty, by the guardians of the minor king, went into Syria and Paleſtine, where ſhe raiſed a very conſiderable body to aſſert her right by force of arms. Such was the ſituation of the affairs of Egypt at this period, which was the very time that the unfortunate Pompey, fled thither to beg protection againſt the victorious Julius Cæſar.

Previous to his landing on the Egyptian coaſt, Pompey diſpatched meſſengers to require the aid of Ptolemy; but as he was ſtill a minor, and could, therefore, return no anſwer, it was agreed upon by his miniſters to cut him off, as the only means of ſecuring the favour of the victorious Cæſar. A ſtratagem was deviſed to get Pompey on board a ſmall boat, where ſome executioners, ready prepared, cut off his head, and threw his body on the ſand.

Cæſar then haſtened to Egypt, and exerted the authority of a conqueror. Cleopatra ſoon found means to attach him to her perſon, and their amour was productive of a ſon, who was called Cæſarian. Being attached to her perſon, he was naturally attached to her cauſe, and having ſummoned an aſſembly, he decreed

according to the will of the late king, that Ptolemy and Cleopatra ſhould jointly reign in Egypt. He met with conſiderable oppoſition in the execution of his decree, but at length bore down all before him. Ptolemy attempting to eſcape from the conqueror in a boat, which ſunk, was drowned in the Nile; after which Cæſar went to Alexandria, when the whole kingdom ſubmitted to his victorious arms. He gave the crown of Egypt to Cleopatra, and continued his amour with her till he was obliged to quit Egypt. Cleopatra having taken off her younger brother, ruled Egypt to her death as ſole ſovereign, but in a kind of ſubſerviency to the Roman power.

Cæſar, in the interim, had been aſſaſſinated at Rome by a conſpiracy, at the head of which were Brutus and Caſſius; and immediately afterwards the celebrated triumvirate between Antony, Lepidus, and Octavius Cæſar, was formed, in order to revenge the death of Julius Cæſar. Upon this occaſion Cleopatra declared for the triumvirs; and Antony, after the defeat of Brutus and Caſſius at Philippi, coming into Aſia to eſtabliſh the authority of the triumvirate, was met by Cleopatra at Tarſus, in Cilicia, a circumſtance introductory to his ruin: for her beauty, wit, and art captivated him in ſuch a degree, as to extinguiſh all his military flame. Antony and Cleopatra continually revelled together in every kind of luxurious diſſipation; and in one of their entertainments the latter is ſaid to have diſſolved a pearl, valued at 50,000l. in vinegar, and ſwallowed it.

Having paſſed ſome months in the moſt ſcandalous debauchery, Antony returned to Rome, and married Octavia, the ſiſter of Cæſar Auguſtus. He retained, however, his fondneſs for Cleopatra, met her occaſionally, and made her valuable preſents. She attended him in his progreſs through Greece, where he repudiated Octavia, and declared war againſt Octavius or Auguſtus, who then declared war againſt Cleopatra, though actually intended againſt Antony.

Though the armament of Octavius was far inferior to the combined force of Antony and Cleopatra, he came off victorious at the deciſive battle of Actium, a circumſtance that proved eventually deſtructive to the lovers; for Antony being betrayed by the Egyptian fleet; which afterwards revolted to the enemy, he fell upon his own ſword; and Cleopatra died by the poiſon of an aſp.

At her death ended the reign of the Ptolemies in Egypt, which was reduced to a Roman province. The conqueſt of Egypt occaſioned ſuch an influx of wealth into Rome, that the value of money fell one half, and the prices of proviſion and merchandize were conſequently doubled.

The government of Egypt was committed by Auguſtus, who was proclaimed emperor 23 years before the birth of Chriſt, to Cornelius Gallus. He was ſucceeded by Ælius Gallus, a Roman knight, in which time the Ethiopian queen Candace invaded that country, and carried the Roman garriſons into captivity. She was, however, defeated by Caius Petronius, after which, for ſome years, the world enjoyed a moſt profound tranquillity. Egypt, however, during the reigns of ſeveral ſucceeding emperors, laboured under cruelty, taxation, or neglect; for it was either a perſecuted and oppreſſed, or a diſregarded province.

Egypt remained a Roman province till the reign of Omer, the ſecond caliph of the ſucceſſors of Mahomet, who expelled the Romans, after it had been in their hands 700 years. About the time of the cruſades, between the years of the Chriſtian æra 1150 and 1190, Egypt was governed by Noreddin, whoſe ſon, the famous Saladin, was ſo dreadful to the Chriſtian adventurers. He inſtituted the military corps of Mamalukes, who, about the year 1242, advanced one of their own officers to the throne, and ever after choſe their prince out of their own body.

During the reigns of theſe uſurpers, which laſted about 267 years, Egypt made a conſpicuous figure among the neighbouring nations, and bravely withſtood the power of the Turks under Selim, who, after defeating the Mamalukes in ſeveral bloody conteſts, reduced Egypt to its preſent ſtate of ſubjection.

An attempt was made a few years ſince, to deprive the Ottoman Porte of its authority over Egypt, by Ali Bey, whoſe father was a prieſt of the Greek church, but who having turned Mahometan, and being a man of abilities and addreſs, had rendered himſelf very popular in Egypt. A falſe accuſation having been made againſt him to the Grand Seignior, his head was ordered to be ſent to Conſtantinople; but being appriſed of the deſign, he ſeized and put to death the meſſengers who brought this order, and ſoon found means to put himſelf at the head of an army. Being alſo encouraged by the dangerous ſituation to which the Turkiſh empire was reduced in conſequence of the war with Ruſſia, he boldly mounted the throne of the ancient ſultans of Egypt. He was very attentive to the eſtabliſhment of a regular form of government, and the promotion of commerce, for which purpoſe he gave great encouragement to the Chriſtian traders. In the proſecution of his deſigns, for ſome time, he was very fortunate, and ſucceeded in almoſt all his enterprizes againſt the neighbouring Aſiatic governors and baſhaws, whom he repeatedly defeated; but he was afterwards deprived of the kingdom of Egypt by the baſe conduct of his brother-in-law Mahomed Bey Abudahap, his troops being totally defeated on the 7th of March, 1773. He died of his wounds, and was honourably interred at Grand Cairo. Abudahap afterwards governed Egypt as Chiek-Bellet, and marched into Paleſtine to ſubdue Chiek-Daher, where he was found dead in his bed, and was ſuppoſed to have been ſtrangled. Chiek Daher accepted the Porte's full amneſty, and truſting to their aſſurances, embraced the Captain Pacha's invitation to dine on board his ſhip, when the captain produced his orders, and the brave Daher had his head cut off in the 85th year of his age. The Turks have ſince kept poſſeſſion of Egypt.

CHAP. XX.

BARBARY.

THE moſt northern countries of Africa, comprehended under the denomination of Barbary, from their ſituation and commerce with Europe, are better known than many others of the continent we have already deſcribed. This vaſt track is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean on the ſouth by Zaara or the Deſart, on the Eaſt by Egypt, and on the weſt by the Atlantic Ocean; being in length about 2300 miles, but in breadth very unequal.

The States of Barbary contain the kingdoms of Morocco and Fez, Algiers, Tunis, Tripoli, and Barca, in which order we ſhall deſcribe them.

SECTION

SECTION I.

THE EMPIRE OF MOROCCO AND FEZ.

Boundaries, Extent, Climate, Soil, Rivers, Mountains, &c.

THIS extenſive empire, which now includes the kingdoms of Morocco and Fez, is bounded by the Mediterranean on the north, by Mount Atlas on the ſouth, by Algiers on the eaſt, and by the Atlantic Ocean on the weſt; being 500 miles in length, and 480 in breadth, in the broadeſt part. It extends from 28 to 36 degrees of north latitude, and from 4 to 9 degrees of weſt longitude. The empire is divided into three provinces, Morocco, Fez, and Sus.

The climate is extremely hot, particularly towards the ſouth; but is, in general, tolerably healthy, being cooled by the ſea breezes, and defended by high mountains from the ſultry ſouth winds, which give it a temperature not to be expected from its ſituation ſo near the tropic. Indeed, Mount Atlas, the head of which is covered with ſnow the greateſt part of the year, ſurrounds it in the manner of a creſcent to the ſouthward, and in ſome meaſure prevents the paſſage of the damp vapours and peſtilential blaſts from that quarter. But if the rainy ſeaſon, which begins in October, continues too long, it occaſions peſtilential fevers; and the north weſt winds, which prevail in March, ſometimes greatly affect the lungs and nerves, and injures the products of the earth. In other reſpects the ſky is ſerene, and the air clear and wholeſome. The country is well watered by fine ſprings, that are found in moſt moors, and fine winding rivers, which, in general, have their ſources in Mount Atlas, and diſembogue themſelves into the Mediterranean Sea, or the Atlantic Ocean.

The ſoil of Morocco is ſo good that it generally produces three crops annually; and, it is ſaid, would, with proper management, furniſh every year 100 times more than the inhabitants are capable of conſuming: but cultivation is very little attended to, except a few miles round the different cities and towns.

The chief rivers are the Mulvia, the Taga, the Sebu, the Ommirabih, the Tenſift, and the Sus.

The Great and Leſſer Atlas are not only the principal mountains in Barbary, but ſome of the moſt celebrated in the univerſe. The Great Atlas divides Barbary from Biledulgerid; and the Little Atlas extends along the Barbary coaſt to the Straits of Gibraltar. The coldneſs and inacceſſibility render the Great Atlas in many parts uninhabitable: but ſome places enjoy a milder climate, contain many villages, numerous herds of cattle and flocks, are well cultivated, and inhabited by Arabs Berebers, and other African people, who, in the ſeverer parts of the winter, are obliged to retire into vaſt caverns, to preſerve themſelves and their flocks from being overwhelmed with the prodigious quantities of ſnow that fall, and from the inclemency of the weather. Theſe people are, in general, fierce, cruel, and warlike, and are ſpread in numerous tribes over the various branches of this prodigious mountain. They can bring many men into the field, and have it in their power to be very troubleſome to the neighbouring governments, it being as impoſſible to be entirely upon the defenſive againſt them, as totally to ſubdue them. This mountain gave riſe to many fabulous ſtories among the ancients.

This country has been always famous for its horſes, which, though inferior in ſize, make up that defect by their fine ſhape, fleetneſs, and particularly by their peculiar docility. The inhabitants have been no leſs celebrated for their dexterity in breaking, training, and riding them, ever ſince the time of the Romans; and even to this day are allowed to excel all nations, and to be in ſome meaſure inimitable in both.

A moſt beautiful deſcription of that noble animal the horſe, is thus tranſlated by Dryden, from Virgil's original:

Upright he walks, on paſterns firm and ſtrait;
His motions eaſy, prancing in his gait:
The firſt to lead the way, to tempt the flood,
To paſs the bridge unknown, nor fear the trembling wood:
Dauntleſs at empty noiſes, lofty neck'd,
Sharp headed, barrel belly'd, broadly back'd;
Brawny his cheſt, and deep his colour grey,
For beauty dappled, or the brighteſt bay;
Faint white and dun will ſcarce the rearing pair.
The fiery courſer, when he hears from far
The ſprightly trumpets, and the ſhouts of war,
Pricks up his ears, and, trembling with delight,
Shifts place, and paws, and hopes the promis'd fight:
On his right ſhoulder his thick mane reclin'd,
Ruffles at ſpeed, and dances in the wind:
His horny hoofs are jetty black, and round;
His chine is double: ſtarting with a bound
He turns the turf, and ſhakes the ſolid ground.
Fire from his eyes, clouds from his noſtrils flow;
He bears his rider headlong on the foe.

When the great men travel, their horſes are ſumptuouſly capariſoned, and the horſe and man arrayed in bold and manly attire. The women precede them, conveyed in a kind of covered ſedan, attended by a ſervant, who drives or conducts the mule upon which it is carried.

The Barbary camel is larger and longer than the Aſiatic camel; and the dromedary is very uſeful on account of its docility and ſwiftneſs.

SECTION II.

Various Inhabitants, Perſons and Dreſs of the Moors, principal Cities, &c.

THE inhabitants of this empire are various, as Berebers, Arabs, Moors, Jews, renegadoes of many nations, Chriſtian ſlaves of many nations, Turks, &c. The natives of Morocco, known by the name of Moors, are of a ſwarthy complexion; but from the prodigious number of Negroes imported thither from Guinea, there are almoſt has many blacks as whites. The Mooriſh women are, in general, very handſome, and not being expoſed to the ſun, like the men, are remarkably fair. They marry at eleven years of age, are grandmothers long before they are thirty, and eſteemed old at that age. The Moors are allowed a plurality of wives.

Their dreſs conſiſts of a linen ſhirt, and drawers, over which they tie a ſilk cloth or veſtment, with a ſaſh; and upon that they wear a looſe coat, or rather gown. Their arms and legs are always bare, but they have ſlippers on their feet; and perſons of rank ſometimes wear buſkins. They ſhave their heads, on which they wear a turban made of ſilk or fine linen.

The habit of the women nearly reſembles that of the men, only inſtead of a turban, they wear a round cap made of fine linen. Their drawers are much longer and larger; and when they appear in the ſtreets, their faces are covered with a linen cloth, in the manner of a maſk.

The chief city, Morocco, the capital of the empire, is pleaſantly ſituated on an extenſive plain between two rivers, the Nephtis and Agmed, and watered by a third, the Tenſift. It is, without doubt, one of the moſt opulent, populous, and important cities in Africa. The moſt received opinion is, that it was founded by Abu Techifien, and finiſhed by his warlike ſon Joſeph, who, after obtaining many glorious victories in Spain, brought from thence 30,000 captives, whom he conſtantly employed in ſurrounding it with ſtrong walls, which were 12 miles in circumference. It then contained 100,000 houſes, and ſtill hath 25 magnificent gates, and a great number of moſques, palaces, &c. But at preſent its priſtine ſplendor is much decayed. It is 16 miles north of Mount Atlas, and 150 from the Atlantic

Atlantic Ocean, in 30 deg. 40 min. north latitude, and 7 deg. weſt longitude. The walls are ſo ſtrong, both with reſpect to the ſtones themſelves, and the cement with which they are faſtened, that they are impenetrable to the pick-axe and other inſtruments. They are flanked with ſtrong towers, bulwarks, baſtions, &c. and ſurrounded with a deep ditch.

The imperial palace is within a ſpacious fortreſs, called Al-Capava, which is ſituated on the outſide of the city. It is defended by high walls, ſtrong towers, a deep ditch, &c.

The royal apartments, halls of audience, ſeraglio, &c. are noble ſtructures, highly embelliſhed, and ſumptuouſly furniſhed. The gardens are extenſive, but the ſplendour ſtill remaining is inconſiderable with reſpect to former grandeur. The houſes, in general, are but in an indifferent condition, and many of them gone to decay.

The inhabitants are numerous. The Jews, the number of whom is about 4000, live in a particular quarter of the city. Though highly taxed they acquire wealth, but artfully pretend to poverty, and, for obvious reaſons, make a very mean appearance.

There is a handſome bridge over the Teniſt, which runs through the city, and ſupplies the inhabitants with water.

Fez was originally the capital of the kingdom of the ſame name, and is ſtill a rich and populous city. It comprizes two parts, the Old and the New Fez, and, at preſent, they form one city.

Old Fez is nine miles in circumference, ſtands between two hills, is ſurrounded by ſtrong walls, and flanked with magnificent towers. It is without ſuburbs, contains many excellent gardens, has narrow ſtreets, ſeven gates, and two caſtles; the one old, and gone to decay; the other new, and in good condition. The latter is garriſoned with blacks; but neither have any cannon to defend them. The houſes are of ſtone or brick, three ſtories high, flat roofed, encompaſſed with galleries, adorned on the outſide with moſaic work, and embelliſhed within with carving, painting, and handſome furniture: but it is to be obſerved, that, in general, the ſeraglios are upon the turrets of the houſes, from whence the women have a fine proſpect; but they are never permitted to ſtir abroad.

The river Fez, in paſſing through the city, divides itſelf into ſix canals, over the various parts of which are 250 ſtone bridges, and 370 mills are turned by the ſeveral ſtreams. In the city 336 ovens are daily employed. The moſques are computed at 500, fifty of which are of the firſt rank; and one, in particular, is a moſt amazing ſtructure: it is a mile and a half in circuit, including the cloiſter and college belonging to it. The roof is 150 cubits high, and 50 in breadth. The ſtately gates are 30 in number; and the pillars, which ſupport the minaret or tower, are 30 cubits in length, and 20 in breadth. The roof is ſuſtained by 1500 pillars of white marble, and 17 arches; and two curious lamps, continually kept burning, adorn every arch. In the cloiſter belonging to this moſque are 42 galleries, and 400 ciſterns for the people to perform their ablutions. The college is the moſt eminent, and contains the beſt library in the empire. Here are ſeveral other hoſpitals and colleges, which are large, magnificent, and well endowed; 600 water-conduits, and 200 ſpacious inns. The principal magiſtrate of the city is ſtiled provoſt of the merchants; beſides whom there is a governor, a cadi, and their ſubornidate officers.

Fez is uſually deemed the grand magazine, and principal mart of Barbary. Merchants and tradeſmen are numerous, and the warehouſes are filled with great variety of commodities. The articles of exportation are hides, leather, ſkins, furs, wool, dried fruits, olives, honey, wax, ſilk, cotton, flax, oſtrich feathers, gold-duſt, &c. &c. Thoſe of importation are ſpices, cochineal, vermilion, iron, braſs, ſteel, arms, ammunition, drugs, watches, quickſilver, opium, allum, aloes, linens, woollens, muſlins, callicoes, tuſſians, &c.

Mequinez is ſituated in a capacious pleaſant plain, on the river Sebu. It is ſurrounded with ſtrong walls, environed by gardens, and embelliſhed by many moſques, colleges, baths, &c. The palace is large, and, though decayed, ſtill ſuperb. The parks and gardens that ſurround it, with the number of halls, rooms of ſtate, offices, pavilions, &c. are ſurpriſing to the beholder. It ſtands upon the moſt elevated ground in the city, conſiſts of ſeveral ſquares, contains two moſques, an extenſive ſeraglio, large magazines, and ſtorehouſes, an armoury, barracks for the guards, and apartments for various mechanics, who are continually retained by the emperor to do buſineſs immediately belonging to the palace. The Jews in this city have their peculiar quarter to themſelves, in which, as in moſt other towns of the empire, they are ſhut up at night. They are plundered, abuſed, and beat, even by the meaneſt of the Moors, and dare not reſent the ill treatment they receive. The great men horſewhip or cudgel them whenever they come in their way; and they are not permitted to come out of their quarter with ſhoes and ſtockings on, being obliged to walk barefooted in the ſtreets frequented by the Moors.

Adjoining to Mequinez, being only ſeparated by a road is Negroe town, ſo called from the black troops in the emperor's ſervice, being quartered in it.

Sallee ſtands on the river Gueron, which divides it into two parts. The northern part, encompaſſed with a ſtrong wall, and defended by battlements, towers &c. Is Salla or Salle, properly ſo called: but the ſouthern part, named Rabat, comprizes many farm-houſes, orchards, gardens, and corn-fields, the latter being ſufficiently extenſive to yield wheat enough for the ſuſtenance of 15,000 perſons: yet the whole is ſurrounded by walls, which were erected by the captives Almanzor brought from Spain. On the ſouth-eaſt part there is a tower, which ſerves for a land-mark in the day time, and a light-houſe at night. Beneath the tower are two docks, the one for wintering, and the other for building of ſhips. The harbour is large, but ſo ſhallow that the piratical veſſels are obliged to put into the iſland of Tedal, near its mouth. The town is defended by two caſtles, which communicate with each other, but the fortifications are irregular and ill deſigned. All articles of commerce here pay a tenth to the emperor, but the chief ſupport of the place is the piratical trade.

Magazan, 30 miles ſouth of Sallee, is a ſtrong, well-built town, poſſeſſed by the Portugueſe, who have a numerous garriſon here. The piratical ſhips often intercept the proviſion veſſels, which puts the garriſon to great ſtraits, and obliges them to make excurſions and rob the Moors, in order to obtain a ſubſiſtence.

Alcaſſar and Arzila were formerly places of importance, but are now gone to decay.

Tangiers is ſituated on a good bay. Its ancient name was Tigris, being the capital of Mauritania Tingitana. It was once a noble city, containing many ſumptuous edifices. The Portugueſe took it in 1471, and conſiderably increaſed its ſtrength, though they deſtroyed much of its beauty. They afterwards ceded it to the Engliſh, as part of the dowry of Catherine, princeſs of Portugal, upon her marriage with Charles II. king of Great Britain, when a mole was made at an immenſe expence, which ran 300 fathoms into the ſea; but the Parliament deeming it too chargeable an incumbrance upon the nation, it was abandoned in 1684, and the fortifications blown up. It ſtill continues but a mean little fiſhing-town, though the Moors have attempted to re-people it. The few inhabitants are great thieves, whenever they can find an opportunity, and are exceeding cruel to thoſe they can get into their power.

Melille is ſituated at the bottom of a bay, called Entrefolcos, 120 miles ſouth-weſt of Oran. It received its name from the great quantity of honey which the neighbouring territory yields. It was anciently the capital of the province, and is ſtill a conſiderable place, containing 2000 houſes. It is defended by a citadel, and is now in the hands of the Spaniards.

Ceuta is advantageouſly ſituated at the entrance of the Mediterranean, on a kind of peninſula, which is the neareſt point of land to the Spaniſh coaſt. It has a ſtrong garriſon, a magnificent cathedral, and a noble palace. It belongs to the Spaniards, is a place of great trade, and has a good harbour. Near this city is a mountain with ſeven heads, which the ancients diſtinguiſhed by the appellation of Septem Fratres, or the Seven Brothers.

Tetuan is built on the declivity of a rocky hill, at the mouth of the Straits, and ſurrounded by a wall of mud and water. The caſtle is ſtrong, ſquare, and flanked with towers. The garriſon conſiſts of 1500 men, that is 1100 infantry, and 400 cavalry. The Chriſtian ſlaves are here very numerous, very ill uſed, and nightly locked up in a ſmall diſmal dungeon, called Mortimore. The houſes in general are white-waſhed both within and without. The palace of the baſhaw, in the city, and his villa, at about two miles diſtance, are magnificent ſtructures: and the moſques are elegant. The ſantons, or monks, have about twelve cloiſters, which are places of refuge for all criminals, except thoſe guilty of treaſon. The Jews are about 5000 in number, and have ſeven ſynagogues. All the inhabitants viſit each other over the tops of the houſes, which are flat roofed, as is the cuſtom in Algiers and other parts of Barbary. The proſpect, either towards the ſea or land ſide, is very noble, the circumjacent country being exceeding fertile, and finely interſperſed with orchards, gardens, lawns, villas, groves, &c.

Meſſa is ſituated at the foot of Mount Atlas, on the river Suz, at the place where it diſcharges, itſelf into the ſea. It is divided into three diſtinct parts, each being ſurrounded by a wall, and about a mile diſtant from each other.

The adjacent country is fertilized by the overflowing of the river, and whales have been frequently caſt upon the ſhore.

Teſſut, like Meſſa, is divided into three parts. A branch of the river Suz waters it, and paſſes through a large moſque in the center of it, by which means the people have an opportunity of performing their ablutions in a running ſtream. The town contains about 4000 families. The principal commodities are ſugar and Morocco leather, and the neighbouring territory is extremely fertile.

Tamdant is a ſmall, but handſome, populous, and flouriſhing place.

Tedſi, famous for its ſugar manufactory, contains about 5000 houſes.

Tagoſt, the largeſt city in the province of Suz, is ſituated in a fertile plain, and contains about 8000 families, 400 of which are Jews. Here are two markets weekly, to which the Arabs and Moors reſort with their commodities, and the negroes to buy apparel.

Taphilet, or Tafilet, was once a kingdom of itſelf, but never very conſiderable: the limits and extent are uncertain, and, in general, the whole country is a long, dry, barren track of land. The people here are miſerably poor, the common ſort living principally upon dates and camels fleſh, the chief produce of the country being an excellent kind of indigo. Moſt of the dates which are ſent to Europe come from hence, as the emperor will not permit them to be exported from any other part of his dominions. About 4000 horſe are retained in this diſtrict, to keep the people, who are chiefly Berebers, in ſubjection.

The city of Taphilet, which ſtands on a river of the ſame name, is the reſidence of the governor, and has a ſtrong caſtle to defend it. The inhabitants, about 2000 in number, are induſtrious in the manufactures of leather, ſilk, and linen, and, in general, poſſeſs a competency in camels, horſes, cattle, date trees, &c. It is a great rendezvous of both Africa and European merchants, and the people are very ſociable, though extremely ſuperſtitious.

Subordinate to the governor of Tafilet is the province of Gefula, a dry, barren country, the limits of which are not perfectly known. The mountains, however, yield plenty of iron and copper, and the inhabitants are famous for working in thoſe metals, by the exchange of which they procure horſes, linens, woollens, ſpices, &c. They have annually ſeveral fairs, but one in particular, which is kept on a large plain, laſts two months, and is reſorted to by merchants from all ſorts of Barbary; and this fair is, perhaps, better regulated than any other in the univerſe: as the people, though naturally bruti[ſh], are under ſuch reſtrictions, that a quarrel was never known to happen during fair-time.

SECTION III.

Government, Navy, Army, Commerce, Coins, Language, Cuſtoms, Religion, Language, &c.

GOVERNMENT in Morocco can hardly be ſaid to exiſt, the emperors being judges, and often executioners with their own hands, in caſes by them deemed criminal. Nor is their barbarous mode of puniſhing than the ſubmiſſion with which their ſubjects bear it.

The following circumſtances will diſplay the rapacity, and ferocity of the natives in general, as well as the inexorable cruelty of an emperor in particular.

In the year 1746 an Engliſh veſſel, called the Inſpector privateer, having ſprung a leak, was under the neceſſity of running aſhore in the Bay of Tangier. The crew not doubting a favourable reception from the Moors, as Muley Abdullah, then emperor of Morocco, was under a treaty of peace with the crown of Great Britain. In this, however, they were fatally diſappointed, as many of them were inhumanly put to death, ſeveral periſhed in the water, and many of thoſe who eſcaped were ſtripped and plundered. Out of 183 only 87 ſurvived. Theſe, with great difficulty, obtained permiſſion to go to the Britiſh conſul, in order to procure relief in their unhappy ſituation. The conſul applied to the alcaid for permiſſion for his countrymen to go over to Gibralter, but received for anſwer, that it could not be granted without orders from the emperor.

The captain of the veſſel, and four of the crew, alarmed at this diſappointment, effected their eſcape by means of getting on board a man of war that had lately brought the conſul from Gibralter. This was no ſooner known, than the Moors, finding part of their booty irrecoverably loſt, ſwarmed down in legions on the Engliſh, and drove them immediately to priſon. When their condition was laid before the alcaid, he only anſwered with a malicious ſmile, "If the unbelieving dogs are hungry, let them eat the ſtones."

At length a native of rank, not wholly deveſted of humanity, obtained permiſſion of the alcaid for them to beg about the town in the day-time, under the conduct of a guard: but at night they were obliged to return to their diſmal dungeon. The ſubſiſtence ariſing from theſe means was very ſcanty; till at length they were driven to the brink of diſpair by being informed that they would ſoon be conducted to the emperor, whoſe preſence they dreaded to ſuch a degree that they determined to attempt their eſcape; but in this they were unhappily diſcovered, and prevented from carrying their deſign into execution.

This attempt to eſcape being deemed an act of rebellion, large iron chains were faſtened round their necks, and twenty of them were linked together in one chain. After having been confined a conſiderable time in a moſt loathſome and gloomy dungeon, and almoſt periſhed with hunger, they were conducted by the alcaid, his officers, and attendants, to the emperor's camp. As they waited the emperor's orders within half a mile of his tent, they could obſerve, by the countenance of the alcaid and others, that there was ſomething very dreadful to be expected.

A meſſenger then came from the emperor, commanding their immediate appearance before his tent, on which

which the Moors were drawn up in one line, and the Engliſh in another, the guards immediately ſurrounding them. When his Majeſty, by a meſſenger, commanded the alcaid and his attendants to advance nearer him, they ran to him with the utmoſt haſte, and, proſtrating themſelves, informed him that they had brought him a preſent, beſides the Engliſh captives. Having accepted the preſent, Muley Abdallah aſked the alcaid where the captain of the Chriſtian captives was? To this it was anſwered that he had made his eſcape. He then aſked for the officers, and being anſwered as before, vehemently exclaimed againſt the alcaid and his attendants, and upbraided them in the moſt opprobrious terms. Four officers of his guard were ordered to conduct the new captives to a caſtle at a little diſtance from the camp till farther orders. Soon after the alcaid, and all his guard, were driven to the ſame place, and put in irons. The Engliſh captives were then conſigned to the ſevereſt toil during the whole day, nor permitted a moment's intermiſſion, or a drop of water, though the ſun ſhone ſo hot that their heads and backs were an entire bliſter.

The emperor one morning having ſurveyed the Engliſh ſlaves for about three hours, took a view of the alcaid and his miſerable companions, and then turning about ſixty paces from the caſtle, gave orders for their being brought before him, which being done, the alcaid, and four of the principal people, were ſet apart from the reſt.

After this, with the utmoſt compoſure, he called for his ſcymetar, which being delivered to him, he drew it out of the ſcabbard with a peculiar air, and ordered one of the delinquents to be taken out of his chain, and brought before him. This unhappy victim now fell proſtrate on the ground, and with tears implored his pardon; but the emperor, deaf to all his entreaties, ſtretched out his arm, and crying, "In the name of God," ſtruck off his head at one blow. This being done, he delivered his ſcymetar to the ſword-bearer, to whom, and others he gave orders for their following the example he had ſet them, and then retired to a ſmall diſtance to ſee his commands punctually obeyed. At this time there were no leſs than 335 miſerable wretches of his own ſubjects that loſt their lives in this arbitrary manner. In order to ſtrike the greater terror into the minds of his ſurviving ſubjects, the emperor ordered the heads that had been cut off to be collected in hampers, nailed on the walls of the city of Mequinez, and expoſed to the public view, while their bodies were dragged about a mile from the place of execution, and there left to moulder into duſt, or be devoured by birds or beaſts of prey.

Our unfortunate countrymen, after a ſeries of the moſt acute ſufferings, through a long and miſerable captivity, at the interpoſition of the conſul, and by means of the payment of an extravagant ſum, demanded by the emperor, were put on board an Engliſh man of war, and conveyed to Gibralter, from whence, in a ſhort time, they found means to return to their native country.

The emperor has not only unbounded power over the property of the people during their lives, but is the univerſal heir to all his ſubjects upon their demiſe; ſo that the greateſt part of the wealth of the empire centers in the royal coffers. His titles are very pompous, being called, The moſt glorious, mighty, and noble Emperor of Afric, King of Fez and Morocco, Taphilet Suz, Dahra, and all the Algarbe, and its Territories in Afric, Grand Sharif (that is deſcendant) of the Prophet Mahomet, &c. &c. &c.

His revenue is conſiderably increaſed by the piratical trade: for he is at no expence in fitting out the corſair veſſels, yet has a tenth part of the effects and captives which they take; and after his tythe is deducted, is at liberty to purchaſe the remainder of the priſoners, if he thinks proper, at only 50 crowns per head. This produces immenſe profit to him, either by their ranſom or labour, for he makes them all work, and ſupplies them with nothing but a ſcanty allowance of coarſe bread and oil. If they fall ſick he gives them no aſſiſtance, but leaves them to the fathers of a Spaniſh convent, who ſupply them with neceſſaries, and medicines; but even the benevolence of theſe is taxed, as they pay him a conſiderable annual ſtipend, for a toleration to act with humanity to their fellow creatures. Another branch of his revenue is a tenth part of the cattle, corn, fruit, honey, wax, hides, rice, &c. extorted from the Arabs and Berebers, by his governors and baſhaws, who levy this tax with the utmoſt ſeverity. The Jews pay a capitation tax: and all the commodities in which the Chriſtians deal are heavily aſſeſſed.

The navy of Morocco ſeldom conſiſts of above 12 veſſels, the largeſt of which carry no more than 20 guns, and about 200 men, who are badly provided for, poorly armed, and very indifferently manned. It is happy for the Chriſtians that the whole coaſt of Morocco does not afford a ſingle good harbour. Sallee, which is the beſt of any, is but very indifferent, and at low water is almoſt dry.

Moors, renegadoes, and negroes, who are badly paid, and worſe diſciplined, compoſe the army. The negroes, however, are deemed the beſt ſoldiers, being brought from Guinea very young, and always educated for a military life.

The commerce of Morocco is carried on chiefly by Jews and Chriſtians in Engliſh and French bottoms, as few of the Moors either underſtand it, or have any trading veſſels of their own. Roguery is ſo univerſal in Morocco, that an expert cheat is looked upon as a very ingenious, uſeful, and reſpectable perſon; and frauds in trade are ſo common, that cheating is ſtudied ſyſtematically as a moſt neceſſary art. The land commerce is carried on by caravans, which go yearly to Mecca, Medina, and Guinea.

The coins of this country are the fluce, which is a copper coin leſs than a farthing, 20 of which makes a blanqueen. The laſt is a ſilver coin of about two-pence value; and the ducat is a gold coin worth about 9s.

The learning of the people of this country is confined to reading, writing, and arithmetic, as few of them attempt any thing higher, except the prieſts and doctors of law.

The common people admire, without underſtanding the ſcience of aſtrology; ſo that ſuperſtition, and a belief in omens, predictions, &c. are general throughout the nation. Moſt of the towns have public ſchools and academies, in which children are taught to read, write, caſt accounts, and repeat a ſhort catechiſm, which contains the principles of their religion. The Mahometan is the eſtabliſhed religion here, but they have introduced a variety of innovations, and added ſeveral ridiculous ceremonies. Every Friday, which is their ſabbath, both ſexes viſit the ſepulchres of their anceſtors and relations, in blue habits, blue being their mourning colour. They greatly venerate the dead, embelliſh their tombs as much as their circumſtances will permit, and ſuffer no Chriſtian to approach within a certain diſtance of them. They are very particular in the obſervation of the following ſuperſtitious and whimſical notions.

To place victuals and drink upon the tombs of their anceſtors and relations, at certain times, that the dead may not ſtarve in their graves.

To bury gold, ſilver, jewels, &c. with the corpſe that he may not be in bad circumſtances in the other world.

To dig the grave very wide, that the defunct may not be incommoded for want of room; and never to bury two perſons in the ſame grave.

The Mahometans here venerate both the pilgrims and their horſes who have been in Mecca: but they profeſs the utmoſt abhorrence of Chriſtians of all denominations. They ſeldom mention them without a curſe, and the mildeſt epithet they beſtow on them is that of dogs. They enforce the attendance on public worſhip with great rigour. Women are, however, excluded from places of public worſhip; and the prevailing

ing opinion of the Moors is, that all perſons, of any nation or religion, and of either ſex, are ſecure of ſalvation prior to the age of fifteen: but after that period, they imagine that none but Muſſulmen can be ſaved. Idiots and madmen are deemed ſaints, and their ſepulchres, as well as thoſe of the Mecca pilgrims, are ſanctuaries for all crimes but treaſon. Games of chance are ſtrictly forbidden; and thoſe who are detected in playing for money are liable to be ſeverely puniſhed. They are ſtrict obſervers of the ceremonials of their religion, particularly of the great faſt of Ramadan.

Their language is modern Arabic, which prevails throughout the whole empire.

To their honour it is ſaid, that they never uſe the name of God irreverently, or upon trivial occaſions, and abhor the very idea of ſwearing, unleſs when they mention a Chriſtian, when the execrations they uſe are chiefly in deriſion of, and to expreſs their contempt for, the Chriſtians, on account of their propenſity to this very vice.

They ſeldom wrangle or quarrel with each other, very rarely come to blows, and murders (thoſe committed by the emperors excepted) are never heard of. They are ſcrupulouſly obedient to their parents, pay the moſt profound reſpect to their ſuperiors, and are loyal to their ſovereigns even in a moſt abſurd degree of veneration. They are, in general, very temperate in eating and drinking; though ſome of the great men lead abandoned lives; but the people in general uſe a great deal of opium. It is ſingular that in the moſt civilized nations in Europe, vaſt crowds of natives flock to ſee public executions, with a kind of unfeeling curioſity; but in Morocco it is quite the reverſe, for all ranks of people carefully keep out of the way, and a criminal is often executed without any perſons being preſent except the officers of juſtice, who attend officially.

SECTION IV.

HISTORY OF MOROCCO.

MOROCCO and Fez, the ancient Mauritania, were little known till the time of their conqueſt by the Romans, Begud, the firſt prince of whom we have an authentic account, was cotemporary with Julius Cæſar. On the demiſe of Begud, this country became a Roman province, and was afterwards conferred by Auguſtus Cæſar upon the younger Juba, whoſe ſon Ptolemy was put to death by the tyrant Caligula. The country was then over-run by the Goths, who poſſeſſed it till they were driven out by the Saracens A. D 600. The Saracens were ejected by the Arabians, who divided Barbary into many petty kingdoms till the year 1068, when they were all united into one ſovereignty under the family of the Almazarides; for Joſeph, the ſecond monarch of that race, founded Morocco, and not only ſubdued Fez, but the Mooriſh dominions in Spain. The race of the Almazarides became extinct without a memorable tranſaction in either of the reigns.

Alboacen, the ſixth monarch of the Merins, was defeated by the kings of Caſtile and Portugal; and in 1540 that race becoming extinct, the Shereiffs, or Cheriffs, the ſuppoſed ſucceſſors of Mahomet, were advanced to the imperial dignity. Nothing remarkable happened till the reign of Siden, the eighth monarch, who applied to the court of England for aid againſt a gang of pirates who had poſſeſſed themſelves of the port of Sallee. The reigning monarch, Charles I. complied with his requeſt, and ſent ſome ſhips to his aſſiſtance by which means the pirates were taken or deſtroyed; and the emperor, in return, ſent 300 Chriſtian ſlaves as a preſent to king Charles. This monarch died in 1630, and was ſucceeded by his eldeſt ſon, Muley Abdelmelech, who was remarkable for his cruelty and drunkenneſs, and was, after having reigned four years, murdered by a Chriſtian ſlave.

He was ſucceeded by his brother Muley Elwaly, a prince of a ſweet diſpoſition, and generous ſpirit, who began his reign by releaſing all ſtate priſoners, and increaſing the pay of his troops, and died much regretted after having poſſeſſed the crown twelve years.

His brother, Muley Hamed Cheyk, ſucceeded him; but being murdered by the Arabs, they raiſed one of their own chiefs, named Crumel Hack, to the throne, who was, on his demiſe, ſucceeded by Sharifi Muley, king of Taphilet. The reign of this prince was but ſhort; for, drinking immoderately, he one day mounted a ſpirited horſe in a drunken frolic, and riding furiouſly into a grove of orange trees, he was thrown againſt the trunk of a tree, fractured his ſkull, and expired of the wound.

He was ſucceeded by Muley Iſhmael, who was remarkable for an odd jumble of policy, abſurdity, and cruelty. In his adminiſtration of juſtice, in which province he always ſhewed himſelf very ready, and eaſy of acceſs, he was very rigid, yet would ſometimes run into wild extravagancies, of which the following inſtance may ſerve as a ſpecimen. A poor farmer having complained that ſome of the emperor's negroes, whom, by the way, he was noted for keeping at ſhort allowance, had ſtolen from him a yoke of oxen, which were his ſoul dependence, he ordered the whole of his negroes to paſs before him, and ſhot every one that the farmer accuſed; but aſking him afterwards what recompence he could make him for the loſs of ſo many ſtout negroes, and the man being at a loſs what to anſwer, he made him undergo the ſame fate as the robbers.

He was for ever building and pulling down again, alledging, that he did it to keep his ſubjects buſy, that they might have no time to mutiny or rebel. "For (ſays he) if I have a bag of rats, unleſs I keep the bag ſtirring, they will eat their way through it." He had 3000 wives, 5000 concubines, 900 ſons, and 300 daughters; all of whom, at times, felt the effects of his cruelty and caprice. He would frequently ſhoot, ſtab, or behead both ſlaves and ſubjects for his amuſement; and was ſo avaricious, that he ſpent his whole life in plundering his people, and amaſſing wealth. Every thing was made ſubſervient to his miſerable temper. If any body complained to him of having been robbed or defrauded, the criminal was firſt ordered to make reſtitution of the property in queſtion, not to the perſon aggrieved, but to himſelf, as he aſſerted that he was the only ſufferer, his dignity being inſulted by the crime; and then a conſiderable fine was levied upon the culprit, as a recompence to offended juſtice: but all went into his own coffers. Money was the moſt dangerous thing that a man could poſſeſs, as it was ſure to be extorted from him, not only by unjuſt, but by cruel means.

Muley Mahomet raiſed a rebellion againſt him, but being taken priſoner, his right hand and left foot were cut off by the emperor's order, of which wounds he died. At length Muley Iſhmael, one of the moſt infernal monſters of cruelty and avarice that ever exiſted, died a natural death in 1727, having reigned 55 years, which is truely aſtoniſhing in a country where inſurrections, dethronements, and aſſaſſinations were ſo common.

Muley Hamet Deby, one of Muley Iſhmael's ſons, ſucceeded him, having been appointed by that emperor, not for any particular merit, but becauſe he was the moſt diſſolute of all his children; for Muley Iſhmael fancied that his ſon's drunkenneſs and intemperance would be foils to ſet off his own ſobriety and abſtemiouſneſs.

Muley Hamet was depoſed by his favourite eunuch, and his brother Abdelmelech proclaimed emperor; but the latter ſoon rendering himſelf odious by his cruelties, Muley Hamet was again reſtored to the throne. Abdelmelech was kept in cloſe confinement for ſome time, but at length ſtrangled, by order of his brother; and Muley Hamet died five days after through drunkenneſs, and was ſucceeded by Muley Abdullah.

From that period nothing remarkable occurred till the ſiege of Ceuta, which commenced October 23, 1774, and the ſiege of Melilæ, which began on the 8th of December of the ſame year by the troops of Morocco. But the emperor's army, through their total want of diſcipline and experience, the conduct of the Spaniſh officers, and bravery of the men in the garriſon, not only failed of ſucceſs in the attempt, but were repulſed with great loſs. Warlike preparations were continued till March 1775, when the Moors abandoned the enterprize.

SECTION V.

ALGIERS.

Situation, Extent, Climate, Animal Productions, &c.

THIS kingdom is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean, on the ſouth by Mount Atlas, on the eaſt by Tunis, and on the weſt by Morocco. It extends in length 480 miles, in breadth about 100, and lies between 30 and 37 deg. north lat. and between 1 deg. weſt and 9 deg. eaſt long. It is divided into 18 provinces.

The climate of Algiers is ſerene and fine, and the people are unacquainted with the extremes of heat and cold. This is to be underſtood only of the parts toward the ſea, the inland parts being principally wild and barren, and very little inhabited except by a great variety of wild creatures, particularly lions, tygers, leopards, buffaloes, wild boars, ſtags, porcupines, monkies, oſtriches, &c.

Of the beaſts the moſt extraordinary and worthy of notice is the lion. This animal has a head remarkably large, fourteen teeth in each jaw, a ſtrong neck, rough tongue beſet with prickles, and bright ſhining eyes; the ſtructure of the paws, teeth, eyes, and tongue is the ſame as thoſe of the cat.

The difference betwixt the lion and lioneſs is this: the latter hath no long hair about the neck, but the muzzle is more taper, the head flatter, and the claws leſs than thoſe of the lion.

The characteriſtics of a lion are the ſtrength of his limbs, the majeſty of his appearance, the dignity of his pace, the fire of his eyes, and the nobleneſs of his diſpoſition; he ſlights a weak enemy, but attacks a ſtrong one with the moſt impetuous fury. He expreſſes his anger by erecting his mane, and beating his ſides with his tail; but his hunger and ferocious temper often give way to his generoſity.

> For when the gen'rous lion has in ſight
> His equal match, he rouſes for the fight;
> But when his foe lies proſtrate on the plain,
> He ſheaths his paws, uncurls his angry mane,
> And, pleas'd with bloodleſs honours of the day,
> Walks over, and diſdains th' inglorious prey.

The tyger has a ſhort neck, and ſkin full of blackiſh ſtreaks, or yellow ſpots encompaſſed with black hair; ſhining eyes, ſharp teeth, crooked claws, feet like thoſe of a cat, and long tail without any tuft at the end, like a lion. The fleſh is white, tender, and well taſted. The tyger will not feed upon any animal but what he kills himſelf; and when he meets with ſeveral animals, he kills all if he can, and ſucks a little of the blood of each.

A panther, or leopard, is like a tyger in all reſpects except the ſize and ſkin, being a ſmaller animal, and ſpotted inſtead of ſtreaked: the body is long, the eyes bright, the mouth large, the teeth ſtrong and white, the ears round, and the ſpots of ſeveral colours.

The porcupine is about the ſize of a badger, and not unlike that animal in ſhape, being about two feet and a half from the end of the noſe to the tail; the feet are ſhort, the neck is about five inches in length, and the head the ſame. On the back and ſides he is covered all over with quills; on the back part of the head, and on the neck, there is a broad tuft, conſiſting of many flexible quills: ſome of the quills are a foot, and many of the wiſkers ſix inches long.

Deſcription of the reſpective Diſtricts of Algiers.

ALGIERS is divided into three diſtinct diſtricts or governments, viz. the Eaſtern, or Levantine; the Weſtern, and the Southern government. The towns in the firſt are Bona, Conſtantina, Gigeri, Bugia, Steſſa, Tebeſ, Zamoura, Biſcara, Necanz, and Couco. Of theſe places it may be ſaid in general, that though they exhibit ſome traces of former ſplendor, they have now every appearance of poverty and deſolation. There are garriſons in ſome of them, but the people are ſavage and brutal. They moſtly lead a roving life, and ſubſiſt chiefly by rapine.

The towns of the Weſtern government are Oran, Tremecen, Moſtagar, Tenez and Sherſhel.

Oran, the moſt important of them, was taken by the Spaniards in 1505, and recovered by the Algerines in 1708; but the former re-took it in 1732, and are ſtill in poſſeſſion of it.

The reſt are in a ſtate of decay; ſome of them have garriſons, and the inhabitants in general come under the foregoing deſcription of thoſe of the laſt deſcribed diſtrict.

The Southern diſtrict, or third government, is inhabited by a ſet of wild people, who roam from place to place, and live in tents while they reſide in any particular ſpot. The territory itſelf is hilly, a part of Mount Atlas running through it; the only riches of the people are their numerous flocks and herds. They pay a tribute to government, but the bey is obliged to come at the head of an army to collect it annually, and many then evade the payment by retiring to inacceſſible places till the troops are withdrawn.

Deſcription of the City of Algiers and its Environs.

ALGIERS ſtands in 36 deg. 30 min. north latitude, and 34 deg. 15 min. eaſt longitude, and is ſituated upon the Mediterranean Sea, which waſhes it upon the north, and north eaſt ſides. It is built upon a declivity, on which account, and the whiteneſs of the terraces, the proſpect of it from the ſea is admirable. It is about three miles in circumference, and the walls are in general 30, and towards the ſea 40 feet in height, 12 feet in thickneſs, and flanked with ſquare towers. The ditch is 20 feet wide, and ſeven deep. Many of the gates of Algiers have been walled up; but ſix remain open, viz.

1. The Alcaſſava, which forms the weſtern angle of the higheſt part of the city, is of an octagonal figure, and has embraſures on every ſide.
2. The Babjiddeed, or New Gate, towards the ſouth.
3. Bab-Azoone towards ditto.
4. The Fiſher's Gate, which forms the eaſtern angle of the city.
5. The Mole, or Dowan Gate, towards the north.
6. The Babel-wed, or River Gate, facing the river El-ved towards the north.

On the weſtern ſide of the river El-ved is a ridge of hills, on which are erected two fortreſſes. Theſe are the ſtrength on the land ſide, but the fortifications towards the ſea are much ſtronger, and more conſiderable.

The mole was the work of Cheredin the ſon of Barbaroſſa, as well as many of the other fortifications; for that monarch employed all the Chriſtian ſlaves in the improvement of the old, and conſtruction of new fortifications in and about Algiers; and by perſonally inſpective their proceedings, had the ſatisfaction to ſee all he wiſhed for compleated in the ſpace of three years.

The city of Algiers is ſuppoſed to contain 100,000 Mahometans, 15,000 Jews, 2000 Chriſtian ſlaves, and ſome renegadoes. There is one ſtreet which is broad and handſome, and paſſes quite through the town from

eaſt to weſt, in which the houſes and ſhops are elegant and capacious, and the markets are here kept; but all the other ſtreets are narrow, incommodious and dirty; ſo that paſſengers are forced to ſqueeze themſelves continually againſt the houſes, to give way to camels, horſes, aſſes, mules, &c. and perſons of all denominations are obliged to make room, if they meet with a Turkiſh ſoldier, till he is paſt, otherwiſe they are ſure of being inſulted and ill treated.

The houſes, which are about 15,000 in number, are built either of ſtone or brick, upon a ſquare plan, with a paved court in the center. Round the court is a double range of galleries one above the other, and both ſupported by columns. All the houſes are flat-rooted; the terraces in general ſerve either to walk upon, or dry linen, but many embelliſh them with neat gardens, and a ſummer-houſe in one corner. The people are obliged, by the laws of the place, to white-waſh their houſes inſide and out, at leaſt once a year; but all who can afford it do it much oftener. The inhabitants may paſs from one end of the town to the other over the roofs of the houſes, and moſt of them viſit each other this way. Though the houſes in general are mean, many of the principal people have very fine edifices, the pillars and pavements of which are of a very beautiful marble, and the ceilings and folding-doors finely carved, painted and gilt. Of theſe the palace of the dey ſtands in the center, and is the moſt magnificent building in the city. It is very extenſive, and ſurrounded by two ſuperb galleries, one above the other, ſupported by marble pillars. It has two grand halls, in one of which the dowan meets every Sunday, Monday and Tueſday.

The barracks for the troops are noble ſtructures, adorned with fountains, and contain many ſpacious and convenient apartments. Married men are precluded from lodging here, but take up their habitations either in private houſes, or in one of the four fondacas of the town; the latter being large commodious buildings, conſiſting of ſeveral ranges of apartments, warehouſes, &c. which are let indiſcriminately to all who chuſe to take them, and ſerve inſtead of caravanſeras, or inns. Chriſtian ſtrangers, if of any conſideration, are uſually accommodated at the conſul's houſe of the nation to which they belong; but the poor Levantine, or other traders, lodge as above, and may eat and drink according to their circumſtances or inclinations, as there are many cook-ſhops, taverns and other public houſes kept either by the Chriſtian ſlaves, or the Jews, who will accommodate any perſon, or deal in any commodity.

The moſques are numerous, ſuperbly built, and chiefly ſituated near the ſea-ſide. The baths in general are large, ſumptuous, paved with marble, and well furniſhed with the conveniences requiſite in ſuch places. The Mahometans are obliged, by their religion, to uſe them five times daily, but their pleaſure often prompts them to go ſtill more frequently.

A number of baths are appropriated to the uſe of women only, who do not reſort to them for the benefit of bathing alone, but for the ſake of intriguing: for tho' the moſt dreadful puniſhments attend detection, yet the Algerine women venture every thing to purſue their inclinations.

"The female ſex (ſays a celebrated traveller) are ſtill more devoted to gallantry in this country than in Conſtantinople: the climate inſpires fondneſs, and the ſcorching air raiſes in the heart ſuch a flame as nothing can extinguiſh; an African woman will brave every ſort of danger to ſatiate her paſſion."

As a proof of the violent lengths to which love will carry the African women, we ſhall preſent our readers with the following circumſtances, which are related by a gentleman who reſided here at the time they took place.

The only daughter of one of the richeſt Moors in this country entertained a paſſion for a Portugueſe ſlave. The girl, purſuant to the cuſtom eſtabliſhed in Africa, made the firſt advances; neither the large fortune ſhe juſtly expected, nor the groveling condition of her lover, could divert the reſolution ſhe had taken to marry him; and notwithſtanding the obſtacles ſhe ſaw with regard to the execution of her project, nothing could make her loſe the hopes of giving ſucceſs to it. The Portugueſe, ſtruck with the thoughts of his good fortune, offered the fond maid the moment ſhe diſcovered her paſſion, to run away with her to Lisbon; which might have been done, and the Chriſtian might have eſcaped by the aſſiſtance furniſhed him by Zulima, for ſuch was the name of our beautiful female African. She was ſenſible that the expedient propoſed by her lover was the moſt rational one, and almoſt the only one that could bring her to her wiſhed-for happineſs; but being a jealous Mahometan, and bigoted to her religion, ſhe could not conſent to retire to a country were ſhe would have been forced to quit her faith. I love you, Sebaſtiano, ſaid ſhe to her lover, much more than I do myſelf, grief will kill me if I am not made your wife, and yet I can never prevail upon myſelf to purchaſe my happineſs at the price of my faith. It is not impoſſible but we may be happy in this country, without running the hazard of being diſcovered, in caſe we ſhould fly: change your religion; remove, by turning Mahometan, the chief obſtacle that keeps us aſunder, and leave the reſt to me. The Portugueſe was much leſs attached to his religion than the female Mahometan, not to mention that the fear of totally loſing his miſtreſs, the deſire of recovering his liberty, and the hope of acquiring a great fortune, had the ſtrongeſt influence on his reſolutions. He promiſed to comply with any thing ſhe might require of him, and upon a ſolemn promiſe made by him to quit his religion whenever it ſhould be neceſſary, the charming Moor indulged him with whatever love was capable of beſtowing.

"Theſe favours ſerved only to ſtrengthen the paſſion which Sebaſtiano felt for her; the fear he was under one day loſing his dear Zulima increaſed his fondneſs, and his miſtreſs was in the like frame of mind. Her whole attention was to give ſucceſs to the deſign ſhe had in view, but ſhe found new obſtacles every moment; when on a certain day, at a time ſhe leaſt expected it, her father declared that he intended to marry her to one of the principal men of the country. Theſe words were as a thunderbolt to the maiden; in the firſt tranſports of her grief ſhe reſolved to fall at her father's feet, and open her whole ſoul to him; nevertheleſs, ſhe did not yet dare to comply with her firſt impulſes, for fear of expoſing her lover to the anger of an exaſperated maſter, which might probably carry him to the greateſt lengths.

"In this dilemma, Zulima reſolved to make uſe of an expedient, which was equally extraordinary and infallible; in order to ſucceed in her deſign, ſhe bade her lover meet her at a certain place, whither ſhe went on pretence of going to the bath, and was attended only by one woman; Sebaſtiano being come to the place appointed, had like to have died with ſorrow, upon hearing his miſtreſs was going to enter into the marriage ſtate: however, Zulima bade him take heart, telling him, that ſhe hoped fortune would ſoon become more propitious to him; ſhe then ordered the woman who had accompanied her, and was her confidant, to go and inform the cadi, that her miſtreſs was in ſuch a place in the arms of a Chriſtian: the attendant obeying, the judge came with his ſubaltern officers, and ſurpriſed the two lovers in the midſt of their warmeſt tranſports, when they were inſtantly conveyed to the priſon where criminals are tried; Zulima's father being told the accident which had happened to his daughter, was ſeized with deſpair; upon which he flew to the priſon in order to ſee her, but he was told that he could not be admitted to ſpeak with her till ſuch time as her trial was over; that enquiry was then making whether the Chriſtian ſlave would turn Mahometan, and that if he would comply, on that condition the

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Engraved for BANKES's New System of GEOGRAPHY Published by Royal Authority.

Algerine method of EXECUTING *a* CHRISTIAN *for attempting to escape from Slavery.*

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Algerine method of PUNISHING *a* CRIMINAL *found guilty of committing Burglary.*

two lovers ſhould be married together purſuant to the laws: but that in caſe of his refuſal, he ſhould be impaled, and his daughter drowned in the ſea.

"Muſtapha, for this was the name of Zulima's father, knew but too well what puniſhment would be inflicted upon his daughter, in caſe the Portugueſe refuſed to turn Muſſulman; and, indeed, the only motive which prompted Muſtapha to deſire a ſight of them, was to offer his wealth, and engage the Chriſtian to change his religion. He had no occaſion to make uſe of rhetoric to exhort them to prefer life to a cruel death: for the moment he made the overtures, Sebaſtiano anſwered, that he would gladly embrace the religion propoſed by Zulima, and marry her; and the father thought himſelf happy in having the opportunity of preſerving the life of his only daughter upon theſe conditions."

There are ſeveral tolerable edifices without the walls of the town, which add to the beauty of the environs, particularly the marine officers public hall, a marabout's ſuperb dwelling, and a variety of Turkiſh ſepulchres and monuments. Among the latter ſix magnificent tombs, of a circular figure, are the moſt conſpicuous. Theſe were erected to the memory of ſix deys, who were ſucceſſively elected, and then murdered in the dowan within a few days. It is to be obſerved, that the tombs of deys and baſhaws are diſtinguiſhed by a ſtone, on which a turban is carved in relievo; thoſe of the agas, and other military officers, by a pike fixed in the ground cloſe to the coffin; thoſe of the ſea captains by a ſtaff, with a gilded ball at the top; and thoſe of the common people by ſtones laid on the grave in the form of a coffin.

The city of Algiers formerly had none but rain water, and the inhabitants were often greatly diſtreſſed upon that account; till a Moor, who had been driven from Spain, contrived, by means of two aqueducts, to introduce as much water into the city as was requiſite to ſupply 100 fountains with water.

The country about Algiers is very fertile, and the gardens, groves, and villas numerous. In their gardens they uſe little art, but truſt to nature in moſt productions of the earth, which occaſions a wild exuberance to reign throughout the whole, and many of the fruits and vegetables not to arrive at the perfection they might be brought to by means of engrafting, pruning, tranſplanting, &c. The gardens are not walled, but ſurrounded by enclоſures of Barbary fig-trees, which, from their compactneſs and prickles, are more ſecure than any other kind of fence. Among other rich ſpots in Algiers, the great plain of Metaijah is admired for its aſtoniſhing fertility: it is 50 miles in length, and 20 in breadth, includes many delightful villas, fragrant groves, and pleaſant gardens; and produces ſuch a profuſion of the moſt delicious fruits of all kinds, rice, roots, and grain of every ſpecies, that the inhabitants enjoy always two, and frequently three crops in the year.

The only natural curioſities in the vicinity of this city are the hot baths of Meereega, the principal of which is 12 feet ſquare, and 4 deep. The waters are exceeding hot, and, when they have filled the above baſon, diſcharge themſelves into a ſmaller, where the Jews bathe, as they are not permitted to uſe the ſame bath as the Mahometans. Theſe hot baths proceed from the great quantity of ſulpher, nitre, and other inflammable bodies in the bowels of the earth; from whence, likewiſe, originate the frequent earthquakes that diſturb the kingdom in general, and the city of Algiers in particular.

Inhabitants, Habitations, Dreſs, Marriage Ceremonies, Weapons, Diſpoſition, Government, Language, Commerce, Religion, Revenues, Puniſhments, Cuſtoms and Manner of Living, Funeral Rites, Armament, &c. of the Algerines.

ALGIERS may be ſaid to compriſe a mixture of moſt nations; but the moſt numerous of its inhabitants are the Moors and Arabians. The Moors are divided into two orders, viz. thoſe who live in towns and follow piracy, or various profeſſions by land or ſea, and thoſe who wander about without being poſſeſſed of houſes, land, or riches. The firſt are the citizens of the kingdom, the latter the bulk of the inhabitants.

The wandering ſort are diſtinguiſhed into various tribes, each forming an itinerant village, and every family living in a portable hut. They live by the produce of the lands, which they farm of thoſe of the firſt order. They pay their rent to their landlords in corn, herbs, fruit, honey, wax, &c. and a tribute to the dey, according to the number of the family in each moving village, or rather camp. Their tents are mean, their utenſils trifling, their circumſtances poor, and their manner of living filthy. They have no chimnies to theſe habitations; the fires are made in earthen pots, which are placed near the door to let out the ſmoke. The family and all domeſtic animals lie promiſcuouſly in the hut together, dogs excepted, theſe being placed on the outſide, as centinels. They live chiefly on rice, bread, fruit, and plain water; and their principal employ is huſbandry, or breeding bees or ſilk-worms.

The dreſs of the men is only a long piece of coarſe cloth wrapped round their ſhoulders, and falling down to their ancles, with a cap of the ſame. The women wear a piece of woollen ſtuff that covers them from their ſhoulders to their knees. They braid their hair, and adorn it with glaſs beads and fiſhes teeth. Their arms and legs they ornament with bracelets of ivory, horn, and even wood; and blacken their cheeks, foreheads, arms, legs, &c. The children are ſuffered to go naked till ſeven or eight years old, when they cover them with a few rags, rather for ornament than decency. The dreſs of the chiek, or chief, of every tribe, is a ſhirt and coat, all of one piece, hanging from the ſhoulders half way down the leg, and he wears a cap of fine cloth.

Theſe Moors are of a ſwarthy complexion, and robuſt habit of body. The men are active, the women fruitful, and the children healthy. When a youth is diſpoſed to marry, he drives a number of cattle to the hut where the intended bride reſides. The girl and her parents, on viewing the ſtock, immediately conſent. All the young women of the village are then invited to the feaſt. The bride is afterwards placed on a horſe belonging to the bridegroom, and led home amidſt the ſhouts of all preſent. When ſhe arrives at the door of the bridegroom's hut, a mixture of milk and honey is given her to drink, while a nuptial ſong is ſung. She then alights, and, to ſhew her willingneſs to perform any duty he may aſſign her, drives his flock to water and back again. Theſe previous ceremonies being ſettled, all the company enter the hut, and the evening concludes with the greateſt feſtivity that theſe poor people are capable of enjoying. Subſequent to the marriage the wife is obliged to wear a veil, and never ſtir from the hut during a month, and ever after is excluded from all concern in, and knowledge of public affairs.

The Moors are of a warlike diſpoſition, excellent horſemen, and ſometimes give the government great trouble. They are armed with a zagay, or ſhort lance, and a ſcymitar, or broad cutlaſs. They are great thieves, ſo that it is dangerous traveling without a marabut or prieſt, in company, to whom they ſhew ſuch reſpect, that they will not rob any perſon thus attended.

The Arabians of Algiers are divided into tribes, wander up and down, and profeſs the ſame religion, cuſtoms, and manners, as thoſe of Arabia.

The Algerines are the moſt cruel and dangerous pirates of all Africa; baſe, perfidious, and rapacious to the laſt degree. No oaths or ties, human or divine, will avail to bind them when their intereſt interferes. In ſhort, whatever reſpect they may pretend to pay to their prophet Mahomet, gold is the only true idol which they worſhip. Gold, that

Inſidious bane that makes deſtruction ſmooth,
The foe to virtue, liberty, and truth;

Whoſe

Whoſe arts the fates of monarchies decide;
Who gild'ſt deceit, the darling child of pride.
How oft, allur'd by thy perſuaſive charms,
Have earth's contending powers appear'd in arms!
What nations brib'd have own'd thy powerful reign!
For thee what millions plough'd the ſtormy main,
Travell'd from pole to pole with ceaſeleſs toil,
And felt their blood alternate freeze and boil!

Thoſe who reſide on the coaſt are very ſavage to ſuch as unfortunately fall into their hands by ſhipwreck; ſo that it appears that the Algerines in general are as much ſtrangers to humanity, as they are to an elegant taſte or polite behaviour.

They are governed by a bey or dey, who is as abſolute as any eaſtern monarch.

The next in dignity and power is the aga of the janiſſaries. The other officers of importance are, a ſecretary of ſtate; 24 chiah bathaws, or colonels ſubordinate to the aga; 800 bolluk bathaws, or ſenior captains; and 400 oldak bathaws, or lieutenants. In all theſe offices the right of ſeniority is ſtrictly obſerved in Algiers. There are alſo purveyors to the army, a body guard to the dey, &c. and the officers of the Turkiſh forces, who are diſtinct from the reſt.

The general language of Algiers is a compound of Arabic, Moreſco, and the remains of the ancient Phœnician; but all public buſineſs is tranſacted, and records kept, in the Turkiſh tongue; though moſt of the Algerines of all denominations underſtand the Lingua Franca.

Though the people in general are fond of the piratical trade, yet they admit free Chriſtians, Jews, Arabians, Moors, &c. to trade in ſilk, wool, cotton, leather, carpets, &c. in the country. To import gold and ſilver ſtuffs, damaſks, cloths, ſpices, tin, iron, braſs, lead, quickſilver, linen, cordage, ſail cloths, bullets, rice, allum, tartar, cochineal, ſugar, ſoap, raw and ſpun cotton, aloes, copperas, brazil, logwood, arſenic, vermilion, gum-lack, opium, ſulphur, aniſe and cummin ſeeds, ſarſaparilla, frankincenſe, galls, honey, paper, combs, cards, dried fruits, &c. And to export oſtrich feathers, wax, hides, wool, copper, rugs, ſilk faſhes, embroidered handkerchiefs, dates, and Chriſtian ſlaves, who, for large ranſoms, are allowed to be ſent home. But commerce is greatly injured by the oppreſſions of the government, the ſuſpicions of the merchants, who are always afraid of being deprived of their properties, and the perfidy of the common traders.

The religion of Algiers is Mahometan; and the principal officers who preſide over eccleſiaſtical matters are the mufti, or high prieſt; the cadi, or eccleſiaſtical judge; and the grand marabut, or ſuperior of the monkiſh orders.

The Algerine Turks dreſs with as much elegance as the inhabitants of Turkey. The free Chriſtians are permitted to dreſs in the faſhions of their reſpective countries; but the ſlaves are obliged to wear a coarſe grey ſuit, and a ſeaman's cap. The ſhariffs, or thoſe who pretend to be deſcended from Mahomet, are diſtinguiſhed by a green turban: but the common Algerines wear ſhirts, linen drawers, an open woollen jacket with a hood behind, and a black cloak, which reaches to their knees, when they go abroad.

As the revenues of the dey are founded on rapine and plunder, and depend chiefly on caſual robberies, they muſt fluctuate continually, and be at all times uncertain. Juſtice is venally adminiſtered, favour publickly ſold, and corruption ſo general, that it is not looked upon as a vice.

Capital crimes are puniſhed by ſtrangling with a bow ſtring, or hanging on an iron hook. Leſſer offences by fine, degradation, or the baſtinado. Women detected in adultery are faſtened by their necks to a pole, and held under water till they are ſuffocated. But the moſt dreadful puniſhments are inflicted on the Chriſtians and Jews for various offences; ſuch as ſpeaking againſt Mahomet, for which the offender muſt either turn Mahometan, or be impaled alive; changing to the Chriſtian faith again, after having turned Mahometan, for which the puniſhment is roaſting alive, or being thrown from the city walls, when the unhappy ſufferer is caught upon ſharp pointed hooks, and hangs ſeveral days in the moſt exquiſite tortures before he expires. Fomenting a revolt, or killing a Turk, is puniſhed by impaling or burning. Thoſe who attempt to eſcape from ſlavery are put to death in the following ſingular and cruel manner: the criminal is hung naked on a high gallows by two hooks, the one faſtened quite through the palm of one hand, and the other through the ſoal of the oppoſite foot, where he is left till death relieves him of his cruel ſufferings. A Moor convicted of burglary hath his right hand cut off, and faſtened about his neck, and then is led through the city on an aſs, with his face towards the tail: and perſons of diſtinction, for crimes againſt the ſtate, are placed between two boards, and ſawed aſunder.

Beſides the grand dowan, there are inferior ones in ſome of the diſtricts, in all which the proceſs is very conciſe, the charge is heard, the witneſſes ſworn, the defence attended to, and ſentence immediately given. Chriſtian ſlaves in Algiers are very numerous, every eighth of whom is the property of the dey. Thoſe who come of good families, and can procure a conſiderable ranſom, and ſuch as have trades, or can make themſelves otherwiſe uſeful, are treated tolerably well; but ſuch as are of poor parentage, and have not learned to perform any thing which can procure favour, are terribly uſed.

O ſlavery! thou fiend of hell's receſs,
Profuſe of woes, and pregnant with diſtreſs;
Eternal horrors in thy preſence reign,
And meagre famine leads thy doleful train.
To each curſt load ſubjection adds more weight,
And pain is doubled in the vaſſal's fate,
O'er nature's ſprightly face thou ſpreadſt a gloom,
And to the grave doſt every pleaſure doom.

In the metropolis none but the principal people are allowed to ride on horſeback; others either ride on aſſes or walk on foot. Women throw a veil over them when they go abroad, ſo that they are unknown to all but the ſlaves who attend them.

The principal employment of the women is dreſſing, lolling on their ſofas, bathing, converſing, viſiting the tombs of relations, and ſauntering in their gardens. The men paſs moſt of their vacant time with the women in their gardens, in converſation, drinking coffee, ſmoaking, &c.

Polygamy is allowed among the Algerines. Marriage contracts are generally left to the interference of friends. When the marriage is agreed upon the bridegroom ſends a preſent to the bride, and gratifies her relations with a feaſt or muſical entertainment. The marriage ceremony is concluded with another entertainment.

The Algerines are very inexpert in the medical art. After death, the corpſe being waſhed and clad in a ſhirt, drawers, ſilk robe and turban, is laid in a kind of ſquare coffin, and carried on mens ſhoulder by means of poles to the place of interment, attended by relations and friends.

Mourning is expreſſed by the women going veiled for ſome days, and the men wearing their beards for a month. During three days after the funeral the neareſt relations viſit the tomb, diſtribute alms to the poor, and ſuffer no fire to be lighted in their houſes. The better ſort have epitaphs on their tomb ſtones.

The Algerines have an armament military and naval, and are ſupplied with warlike implements and ſtores by the Europeans.

The Algerine ſailors are very filthy, and pretend to deſpiſe the nicety found in moſt of the veſſels belonging to the Chriſtians.

HISTORY

HISTORY OF ALGIERS.

THE Algerines were ſucceſſively ſubject to the Romans, Vandals, Greeks, and Arabs, till the year 1051, when they were brought under the government of divers rulers from their own tribes. But theſe falling out among themſelves, Ferdinand V. king of Arragon, took advantage of their civil diſſentions, ſent a powerful armament to Algiers, and rendered it tributary to Spain.

This ſubjection continued till the death of Ferdinand, which happened in 1516, when the famous Barbaroſſa, on pretence of undertaking their deliverance from the Spaniſh yoke, cauſed himſelf to be proclaimed ſovereign, and became formidable not only to the neighbouring ſtates, but alſo to the Europeans, till he was at length oppoſed by the emperor Charles V. and loſt his life in an action with the Spaniards and Arabs. His ſucceſſor, of the ſame name, as the moſt effectual barrier againſt his numerous enemies, propoſed to cede the kingdom of Algiers to the Grand Seignior, Selim I. on condition that he ſhould rule it as viceroy, and be aſſiſted with ſome Turkiſh forces. Selim complied with the propoſal, in conſequence of which Barbaroſſa laid ſiege to the Spaniſh fort, took it by ſtorm, repaired it, put a garriſon in it, and rendered Algiers more ſecure than it had ever been before. The Algerines, emboldened by this ſucceſs, making depredations on the territories on the coaſt belonging to the Spaniards, Charles V. ſailed with a formidable armament, larded his forces, and built a fort on an eminence, which ſtill goes by the name of the Emperor's Fort. He then cloſely inveſted the city, and turned the courſe of the ſtream that ſupplied it with water, which greatly diſtreſſed the inhabitants, who nevertheleſs held out, till the emperor was obliged to raiſe the ſiege, after ſuſtaining a great loſs of ſhips and men.

Since the miſcarriage of Charles V. the kingdom of Algiers continued a province of the Grand Seignior's, governed by a viceroy of his nomination. Theſe viceroys abuſing their power, and oppreſſing the people in general, and the ſoldiery in particular, the latter obtained permiſſion from the Porte to chuſe a dey out of the troops, as a check upon the baſhaw or viceroy, and to ſuperintend the diſtribution of the money raiſed for their payment, as well as ſeveral other public affairs. The power of the deys greatly increaſing in proceſs of time, they are now become independent ſovereigns, and are, properly ſpeaking, only allies of the Ottoman Porte.

In 1682 the Algerines entered into a treaty of alliance with England; and that year and the following hoſtilities were carried on between the Algerines and French, attended with horrid maſſacres on both ſides, till at length a peace was concluded between them.

The treaty between the Engliſh and Algerines was often broke and often renewed, from the time of its commencement, for ſeveral years, as the latter could never refrain from their piratical practices. They were at length, however, brought to reaſon, and a treaty was ſigned at Algiers in 1760, comprizing articles for the ſecurity of the veſſels of Great Britain and all its dependencies.

The Spaniards attacked Algiers with a formidable armament in 1775, but failed in their deſign, with the loſs of about 800 killed, and 2000 wounded.

SECTION VI.

TUNIS.

Situation, Boundaries, Extent, Climate, Soil, Productions, Rivers, Iſland, Capes, Gulphs, Mountains, &c.

TUNIS is part of the country formerly belonging to the republic of Carthage, and exhibits a melancholy proof of the fleeting nature of human grandeur, having ſcarcely a ruin that can mark out the place of the once celebrated Carthage. It is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean, on the ſouth by Biledulgerid, on the eaſt by Tripoli, and on the weſt by Algiers; being 220 miles in length, and 170 in breadth; and lies between 33 deg. 30 min. and 37 deg. 12 min. north lat. and between 8 deg. and 11 deg. 20 min. eaſt longitude.

The air of Tunis is clear, pure, and healthy. The ſoil in many places is barren, except the weſtern parts, where it is well watered. Some of the vallies produce corn, oil, grapes, and various fruits in abundance. The country is full of mulberry-trees. The animals, &c. are the ſame as in Algiers.

This kingdom is divided into eight diſtricts, viz. Tunis Proper; Byrſa, or Carthage and Goletta; El-Medea, Sufa; Kayr-wan, or Cairvan; Hammet, Bizerta; and Porto Farino. But theſe are included in two grand circuits, which the dey makes annually, accompanied by his principal attendants.

The inland towns have, in general, been deſtroyed by the Arabians, who will not ſuffer them to be rebuilt, that their rambles may not be impeded, or their depredations prevented. The principal cities and towns are therefore on the ſea-coaſt, but they are not above 14 in number, ſmall of extent, and moſt of them but thinly inhabited. The other places, either near the coaſt, or in the interior part of the country, are ſo inconſiderable as not to merit mentioning.

To deſcribe the country it will be moſt convenient to mention the dey's ſummer and winter circuits. In ſummer the dey takes the northern circuit, which is by far the moſt agreeable, as he then paſſes through the pleaſant, fertile, and populous places; and in the winter he purſues his journey through the other parts of his dominions.

The principal rivers are the Zaine, which ſeparates the Tunifian from the Algerine dominions; the Mejerda, or Megerada, the Miliana, which forms the Bay of Tunis; and the Gabbs, or Triton of the ancients.

There are a few iſlands belonging to this ſtate, viz. a ſmall one in the river Zaine, rented by the Genoeſe; Cape Negro Iſland, rented by the French African company; the Jalta, and the iſlands of Cani, remarkable only for the dangerous ſhoals near them. The principal capes are Cape Serra, 15 miles from Cape Negro; the Three Brothers, which are three rocky capes near the continent; Cape Bianca, or the White Cape, famed for being the place where Scipio firſt landed in Africa; Cape Zibeed, celebrated for the great quantities of raiſons made upon it; and Cape Bon, or the Promontory of Hercules.

The principal gulphs of this kingdom are thoſe of Bizerta and Tunis.

The moſt remarkable mountains are the Zowaan, which is very high, and gives name to a town ſituated at its foot, the inhabitants of which are particularly ſkilled in dying ſcarlet caps, and bleaching linen; the Gueſſet, the Nefara, and the Bene-te-fren.

Deſcription of Tunis, the Metropolis of the Kingdom, Inhabitants, Cuſtoms, &c.

TUNIS is ſituated at about the diſtance of 300 miles from Algiers. This capital is unhealthy, from the marſhes and lakes that ſurround it, and the deficiency of freſh water. The former inconvenience the inhabitants remedy as much as poſſible, by burning prodigious quantities of aromatic woods and herbs; and the latter, by procuring ſweet water from the ſprings of Bardo, at about a mile diſtance, and catching rain water in large reſervoirs.

The city of Tunis is about three miles in circumference, excluſive of the ſuburbs, which are not very large; the main ſtreets are capacious, but the lanes very narrow. The houſes, which are built of ſtone, are but one ſtory high, and have flat roofs. There are but few handſome buildings, the great moſque and bey's

palace excepted. In the treasury chamber, besides other valuable articles, the book containing the Tunisian code of laws is kept. The grand mosque is remarkable for its size and magnificent tower. The city has five gates; and without the walls are the Turkish sepulchres, which have an agreeable look from the intermixture of marble tombs and flower plats.

The staple commodities here are woollen and linen, in which articles the manufacturers excel all others in Barbary. The colleges and academies are numerous and large, the janissaries barracks spacious, the custom-house tolerably handsome, and the exchange for the merchants very convenient. The dock is tolerable, and the arsenal pretty well stored with materials for the building of gallies.

Tunis is defended by a strong castle, erected on an eminence, by the fort of Coletta, and by a fortress built on an island in the neighbouring lake. The inhabitants of Tunis are a mixture of Turks, Moors, Arabians, Jews, and Christians of various nations; but their general character does them singular honour, as they are reputed to be more polite, more kind to their slaves, and much less haughty, insolent, and mercenary, than most of the other inhabitants of Barbary. In fine, the generality of them prefer the fruits of honest industry to unlawful plunder, and seek wealth from commerce rather than from plunder.

The women are remarkable for their beauty and the delicacy of their complexions. The men are sun-burnt, but tall and well shaped. Both sexes are clean in their persons, and neat in their dresses, use perfumes very much, and bathe frequently. The women, when they go abroad, are veiled; but at home they are permitted to be seen by, and converse with strangers.

The inhabitants have plenty of palms, figs, dates, citrons, lemons, olives, &c. but feel a great scarcity of corn, and are not even secure of what little they are able to raise; for it is no uncommon thing, in harvest time, for the Arabs to come suddenly upon the husbandmen, and plunder the whole territory of all the ripe grain. The rich are, however, supplied by commercial means with wheat, with which they make fine cakes, and an excellent kind of vermicelli. The poor are obliged to content themselves with barley, and even that they cannot at all times procure; but when they are so happy as to obtain a little, they regale themselves by making it into a dumpling, which they eat raw, only dipping it into a little oil and vinegar, or plain water, if those are not to be got. They have, however, plenty of honey and fruits, but seldom eat meat, except upon festivals, or some very singular occasion.

Cities, Towns, Villages, &c. of the Kingdom of Tunis.

NABEL is a flourishing town, situated in a low ground, at about a mile and a half from the sea shore, and nine miles from Tunis. It is famous for potatoes.

Marsa, or El-Mersa, which implies a haven, is situated where the port of ancient Carthage stood. It contains a magnificent mosque, a capacious college, about 800 houses, and several palaces, built by the most considerable Tunisians for pleasure, as the territory is exceedingly agreeable and fertile. This pleasant district was once the seat of the celebrated city of Carthage, the center of commerce, mistress of the sea, and rival of imperial Rome, when that city was in its most flourishing state.

Carthage stood on a gulph in a peninsula of between 40 and 50 miles in circuit. In the center of the city was the citadel, called Byrsa, on the summit of which was a temple dedicated to Æsculapius. On the land side the city was defended by a very high triple wall, flanked with towers, 480 feet distant from each other. The towers, walls, &c. contained stables, store-houses, and barracks for 20,000 foot, 4000 horse, and 300 elephants, with the requisite food, fodder, &c. which, though lodged within the walls, did not in the least incommode the trading part of the inhabitants.

Carthage had two harbours, which communicated with each other, and had only one common entrance of 70 feet in breadth. The one was for merchant ships, and the other for ships of war. The latter harbour, and the island of Cothon in the midst of it, had many magnificent warehouses, full of stores, appertaining to them.

A modern author says, "The number of inhabitants of this city (Carthage) at the beginning of the third Punic war was 700,000; a prodigious number, considering the many terrible blows received from the Romans during the first and second Punic wars, as well as from their own mercenaries betwixt these wars, and in their destructive broils with Massinissa. The forces they could bring into the field, as well as their power by sea, was very formidable; those under Hamilcar against Glon consisting of 300,000 men, and the fleet of more than 2000 ships of war, and 3000 transports."

At this time, the Roman historians inform us, that the city was 23 miles in circuit, and that the temple of Apollo was lined with plates of gold, and the statue of that fabulous deity was of massy gold; but these treasures, as well as many other valuable articles, became the plunder of the Romans when Scipio took the city.

It may not be improper to observe, that the Carthaginians were addicted to the most gross idolatry, and their sacrifices were replete with the most horrid cruelties. Diodorus Siculus informs us, that their principal deity was Chronus, the Saturn of the Romans, to whom they sacrificed the children of the best families, as a certain law enjoined them to offer up none but such as were nobly born. At length, however, they substituted the children of slaves, prisoners, &c. to gratify their supposed bloody idol, till Agathocles made war upon them, and reduced them to the utmost extremity, when fancying that their misfortunes were owing to the improper offerings made to Chronus, they barbarously sacrificed 200 well descended children: but their barbarous cruelty availed them nothing, for their army was soon after totally defeated. This so surprised them, that they imagined the sacrifice was not sufficiently great; when, influenced by the same ridiculous idea, 300 of the principal citizens voluntarily offered up their sons as oblations to the sanguinary idol. Their cruel sacrifices were, however, useless, for their misfortunes still continued to increase.

This idol of the Carthaginians is frequently mentioned in the sacred writings under the name of Moloch, and these very execrable sacrifices are strictly forbidden, particularly in the following passages: Leviticus xviii. 21. *And thou shalt not let any of thy seed pass through the fire to* Molech, *neither shalt thou profane the name of thy God: I am the LORD.* Leviticus xx. 2. *Again, thou shalt say to the children of Israel, Whosoever he be of the children of Israel, or of the strangers that sojourn in Israel, that giveth any of his seed unto Molech, he shall surely be put to death; the people of the land shall stone him with stones.* 2 Kings, xxiii. 10. *And he defiled Topheth, which is in the valley of the children of Hinnom, that no man might make his son or his daughter to pass through the fire to* Molech. Psalm cvi. 38. *And shed innocent blood, even the blood of their sons and of their daughters, whom they sacrificed unto the idols of Canaan: and the land was polluted with blood.*

From the abominable practice of sacrificing children to Chronus, or Saturn, the fable of Saturn's devouring his children originated. But the custom was so shocking to humanity, that the Roman poets and fabulists thought proper to drop the literal meaning for an allegorical one; and changing, therefore, the mythological Saturn into Time, the idea appeared without any horror annexed to it; and they represented thereby a pleasing and instructive fable; for Saturn was said to consume all things, devour his own children, and vomit them up again. This alludes to Time, which consumes all things that it produces, till they are revived, and, as it were, again renewed: thus days, months,

and

and years are the children of Time, which he conſtantly devours and re-produces. Sometimes Saturn is painted between two boys and two girls, implying, that as parents are ſurrounded by their children, Time is encompaſſed by the four ſeaſons of the year. In his left hand is a ſcythe, with which he mows down all things. He holds an hour-glaſs in his hand, to expreſs the viciſſitudes of life.

The ſtrange viciſſitudes of human fate,
Still altering, never in a ſteady ſtate;
Good after ill, and after pain delight,
Alternate, like the ſcenes of day and night.
Since ev'ry man who lives is born to die,
And none can boaſt ſincere felicity,
With equal minds, what happens let us bear,
Nor joy, nor grief, too much beyond our care:
Like pilgrims, to th' appointed place we tend;
The world's an inn, and death the journey's end.
Ev'n kings but play, and when their part is done,
Some other, worſe, or better, mount the throne.

And in his right hand he holds a ſerpent, twiſted into a circular form, with the tail in its mouth to denote eternity, which revolves into itſelf; and is

A gulph, whoſe large extent no bounds engage,
A ſtill beginning, never ending age.
Eternity, that boundleſs race,
Which Time himſelf can never run,
(Swift as he flies with an unwearied pace,)
Which, when ten thouſand thouſand years are done,
Is ſtill the ſame, and ſtill to be begun.

The inhuman cuſtom of ſacrificing children to idols did not, however, ceaſe with the deſtruction of Carthage, but continued among the Africans till the time of Tiberius Cæſar, emperor of Rome, who was ſo ſhocked at the horrid practice, that he not only prohibited it under ſevere penalties, but deſtroyed the idols, and hanged the prieſts.

The extenſive, opulent, and populous city of Carthage was finally deſtroyed by Scipio Æmilianus, in the third year of the 158th Olympiad, in the year of the world 3857, and 147 years before Chriſt: and no veſtiges of it remain at preſent, except ſome fragments of the noble reſervoirs which received into the city freſh water for the uſe of the inhabitants, and the ruins of the expenſive aqueducts, by which the water was conveyed. The latter reach about 30 miles in the country, are near 12 yards over, finely arched, and in moſt places faced with ſtone, or coated with a ſtrong cement.

There are divers other cities, towns, and villages, in the kingdom of Tunis, all of which are greatly decayed: but ſome few are eſtimated for natural productions, commerce, baths, and other valuable conſiderations. Among theſe are Arradez, Sonſa, or Suſa, Kayrwan or Carvan, Hamamel, Bizerta, Porto Farino, Bayjah Tuberbo or Urbs, &c. The moſt remarkable of theſe are the following:

Sonſa or Suſa, the capital of the province of the ſame name, is one of the moſt conſiderable cities in the kingdom. It has a flouriſhing trade for oil, linen, wax, honey, and pickled fiſh. The town is ſituated on a high rock, behind which runs an extenſive plain country, fertile in barley, figs, olives, fruit, and paſturage. Though it hath greatly fallen from its priſtine grandeur, it is ſtill wealthy and populous, and the inhabitants are polite and courteous to ſtrangers. A Turkiſh baſhaw reſides here. The ſuperior people are merchants, ware-houſemen, and mechanics; the lower claſs are huſbandmen, herdſmen, and porters. It is divided into the upper and lower city, has a good port, and pays 12,000 ducats to the governor of the province.

Kayrwan, or Cerwan, is the capital of a province of the ſame name; and what is ſingular, it may be deemed one of the moſt populous and flouriſhing towns in the kingdom, though ſituated in a barren deſart, deſtitute of freſh water, and without the leaſt article which can ſuſtain life, except what is brought in carts from ſeveral miles diſtance. It is 24 miles from Sonſa, and has, about half a mile from the town, a reſervoir and a pond for the reception of rain water: the inhabitants are ſupplied from the firſt, and the caſtle from the laſt. The waters of both, but more particularly the latter, are unwholeſome, and occaſion many diſorders, not only in the beaſts, but in the human ſpecies.

A late author ſays, from good authority, "This city was rebuilt by Hukba, generaliſſimo of Ottman, or Hatman's forces, which laſt was the ſucceſſor of Mahomet III. caliph of Damaſcus, in the year 652, and had ſent him from Arabia into thoſe parts, to make what conqueſts he could in them. Hukba, having landed his forces in ſome of the neighbouring ports, made choice of this barren and deſolate ſpot for the place of their rendezvous, and of the ruinated city for his retreat, which he accordingly cauſed to be ſurrounded with lofty and ſtrong brick walls, flanked with ſtately towers; and, among other noble edifices, built a moſt magnificent moſque, ſupported by an incredible number of ſtately columns of fine granite, two of which were of ſo exquiſite and lively a red, beſpangled all over with little white ſpots like the porphyry, that their price was reckoned ineſtimable, and the whole ſtructure the moſt magnificent in all Africa. It had likewiſe a very conſiderable revenue and endowments, and the title and privilege of a head metropolis, as being the firſt Mahometan moſque built in this part of the world, upon which account it is likewiſe become the burying-place of the Tunitian monarchs; and not only they, but all the grandees and wealthy men of the kingdom, are ambitious of having their remains depoſited in it, from a ſuperſtitious notion that the prayers of the head pontiff, and ſucceſſor of Mahomet, will procure them a plenary pardon of their ſins, and ſend them by the neareſt way into paradiſe. The very city itſelf is held ſo ſacred among them, that thoſe great perſonages uſually pull off their ſhoes before they enter it, and cauſe ſome ſtately chapels and oratories to be erected over the graves of their dead relations; and ſometimes ſettle a yearly ſum upon them, not only to keep them in repair, but likewiſe to retain a number of idle prieſts and monks, to reſort thither at proper times. It is moſt probably upon the account of this ſuperſtitious concourſe, and vaſt donatives, that this city is ſtill ſo thriving, notwithſtanding the dearneſs and ſcarcity of proviſions."

Hamamel is a ſmall but opulent city, ſituated upon a promontory near the ſea, and ſo well ſecured on the land ſide, by rugged and inacceſſible rocks, that a very ſmall expence would render it totally impregnable. It is 51 miles from Tunis by land, and 60 leagues by ſea.

Bizertà is ſituated upon a canal, between a lake of the ſame name and the ſea, eight miles from Cape Blanco, and ten miles from Tunis. It is well fortified, particularly on the ſide neareſt the ſea, and contains two towers to defend the haven, a conſiderable magazine, and two large priſons for ſlaves. It has plenty of freſh water, and is well ſupplied with fiſh. Eight inconſiderable villages belong to the governor of this place, whoſe inhabitants, as well as thoſe of Bizerta itſelf, are miſerably poor, though the territory is pretty fertile. Their only dreſs is a coarſe cloth wrapped round their bodies, and another about their heads in lieu of a turban. They are, however, admirable horſemen, but do not ſhoe their horſes, or uſe either bridles or ſaddles.

The Bizertines are deemed by all travellers the moſt ſuperſtitious people in the kingdom of Tunis, and by ſome in all Barbary. They will not undertake the moſt trivial affair without hanging a great number of amulets or charms about them; and, if they travel, they load their horſes with the ſame kind of ſuppoſed ſecurities, which are only pieces of parchment or paper inſcribed with ſtrange characters, and ſewed in leather or ſilk.

Porto Farino is much fallen from its ancient ſplendor, and is now only remarkable for its fine cotton, and where the Tuniſian navy is kept. The town ſtands between the Cape of Bizerta and the Cape of Carthage, the promontory of Apollo: it is called by the natives

Garel-

Garel-Mallah, or the Cave of Salt, from the falt-works in the vicinity. Lewis, king of France, commonly called St. Lewis, died here in his expedition to the Holy Land.

Bayjah, or Baia, is the chief mart in the kingdom for corn, which the neighbouring territory produces in fuch plenty, that the Tunifians proverbially fay, *if they had but fuch another market town, corn would be as cheap as ſand all over the kingdom.* This town, which is about 30 miles from the northern coaſt, and 108 W. S. W. from Tunis, is ſurrounded by a wall, and defended by a citadel.

Tuberbo, or Urbs, is 180 miles ſouth of Tunis. It has a caſtle with ſome cannon, and a garriſon and is inhabited by Andaluſian Moors. Many veſtiges of its former ſplendor are here to find: and Maham Bey, from the ruins of a magnificent theatre, cauſed a very lofty bridge, or rather dam, to be erected, in order to raiſe water from the river Mejerda ſufficiently high to water a beautiful plantation of oranges, lemons, citrons, pomegranates, nectarines, peaches, apricots, dates, figs, and other fruit-trees, which were ſet in diſtinct ſpots, that they might grow without intermixture with each other. Between the caſtle and the town a chryſtalline ſtream of freſh water ran through an alabaſter conduit, and turned ſeveral mills in its courſe; but this valuable work is now almoſt ruined.

Along ſome part of the coaſt of this kingdom the ſandbanks are very dangerous, as ſhips which approach too near are drawn in by the vortex, and often loſt.

There are hot ſprings in many parts of the country. There is a mountain of ſalt, named Jibbel Hadileſſa, which is as hard as a rock, of a dark red colour, and bitter; but when it is waſhed from the precipices by the rains, it loſes its bitterneſs, and becomes ſoft and white. Beſides this, there are ſome ſmall rocks of a bluiſh caſt, the ſalt of which is much admired, and ſells at a high price.

Among the artificial curioſities in this kingdom is a threefold moſaic pavement, which is a noble piece of workmanſhip, exhibiting a great number of objects in the animal and vegetable creation, beautifully diverſified, finely variegated with the moſt admirable colours, and wrought with a ſymmetry that is truly aſtoniſhing. This place is called Seedy-Doude, or the Sanctuary of David. Another piece is the amphitheatre of Jemine, or rather fragment, which conſiſts of 64 arches, and four orders of columns; but they have ſuffered conſiderably from the Arabs, and from one of the beys, who ordered four of the arches to be blown up. There are alſo the remains of the triumphal arches of Spaita, which greatly evince their ancient magnificence: and a mauſoleum near Hamamel, which is an admirable building, in the form of a cylinder, vaulted beneath, and 60 feet in diameter.

Government, Revenue, Forces, Religion, Cuſtoms, &c.

THE bey of Tunis is ſupreme, but choſen by the divan, and under the protection of the Ottoman Porte, which keeps a baſhaw here, but his power is ſo curtailed, that he may be deemed a mere cypher.

The Beys of Tunis, through motives of fear, keep up a good correſpondence with their neighbours of Algiers and Tripoli, and, from policy, aim to cultivate a friendſhip with the ſubjects of England and France; though they are at perpetual variance with the Spaniards, Sardinians, Venetians, Malteſe, the ſubjects of the Eccleſiaſtical State, &c.

The annual revenues of the kingdom amount to 100,000l. and the forces to about 5000 men in peace, and 40,000 in war.

Their maritime power is much leſs than what might be imagined, conſidering their admirable ſituation. Their capital ſhips are ſeldom above four in number, the largeſt carrying only 40 guns. Beſides which they have about 30 galliots of various burthens, that are manned with from 20 to 120 men each, who are renegadoes, Turks, and Couloglies, or the ſons of married ſoldiers. The command is, however, always given to renegadoes; at leaſt very few inſtances have been known to the contrary. They generally cruiſe twice a year, and are furniſhed with biſcuit, butter, oil, and vinegar, by the bey. The galliots are fitted out by private perſons, who pay a certain ſtipulated quota of whatever they acquire to the bey. The merchantmen of this are very numerous, and the merchants purſue trade with great avidity.

When a ſhip brings in a prize, the hull of the veſſel, and half the cargo, after all expences are deducted, belong to the bey, and the remainder is divided between the captain and the ſhip's company.

During the whole time that a Chriſtian man of war is in the road, the conſul, and the merchants of the nation to which it belongs, keep colours flying on the tops of their houſes. If a ſlave eſcapes, and gets on board a man of war, the bey cannot reclaim him; on which account it is uſual, as ſoon as a ſhip of force appears in the road, to keep all the Chriſtian ſlaves very cloſe confined, and abridge them of the liberty of the wife allowed them till their departure. previous to which the bey ſends to the commander a preſent of oxen, ſheep, poultry, and other refreſhments.

The Tunifians export corn, oil, wax, wool, hides, Morocco leather, beans, lentils, &c. and import Spaniſh wool, Languedoc cloth, pepper, ſugar, vermilion, cloves, wine, brandy, hardware, iron, ſteel, paper, gold and ſilver tiſſue, damaſks, ſilk, and woollen ſtuffs, &c. They likewiſe trade for a variety of articles to Egypt, Arabia, the Levant, and the neighbouring piratical ſtates.

The Engliſh, French, Dutch, Genoeſe, and Germans, have their conſuls in Tunis, who are treated with great reſpect.

All public writings are in the Arabian language, which is here much corrupted from its purity and elegance; but commerce is carried on in that jargon of tongues known by the name of Lingua Franca.

Jews are very numerous in this kingdom: it is affirmed that there are upwards of 10,000 in Tunis only: but as they are very much addicted to cheat all with whom they deal, keep falſe weights and meaſures, make fraudulent bankruptcies, and adulterate moſt articles in which they trade, the laws are particularly levelled againſt them, and they are, when detected, more ſeverely puniſhed than any other foreigners.

The ſame religion, manners, and cuſtoms prevail here as in Algiers, except in the following inſtance: If a renegado ſhould turn Chriſtian again, they wrap him up in a cloth dipped in pitch, and burn him; or elſe pile ſtones, mud, mortar, &c. all round him, and having walled in all but his head, they rub that over with honey, which attracts waſps and other inſects, to torment the poor wretch with their ſtings till he expires, which ſometimes does not happen for ſeveral days. If a ſlave is caught in attempting to eſcape, or murders his patron, his limbs are all broken, and then he is faſtened to a horſe's tail, and dragged through the ſtreets, till he dies.

HISTORY OF TUNIS.

THE firſt monarch of Tunis, whoſe tranſactions are worthy of record, was Abu Ferez, who, poſſeſſing great wealth and power, aſſumed the title of king of Africa, ſtrengthened and embelliſhed Tunis, and gave it the name of the metropolis of Africa, in the year 1294. Anarchy and confuſion prevailed during the reigns of ſeveral of his ſucceſſors, of which the famous Barbaroſſa before mentioned availed himſelf, by fitting out a ſtrong armament, and making himſelf maſter of ſeveral towns, forts, &c. of the kingdom of Tunis. This ſo terrified Muley Haſſan, the reigning monarch, that he quitted his dominions, and applied for ſuccour to the emperor Charles V.

Thus

That prince undertook his defence, fitted out a powerful armament, totally vanquiſhed the haughty and perfidious Barbaroſſa, and re-eſtabliſhed Muley Haſſan upon his throne, under conditions honourable to himſelf, and advantageous to the Chriſtian cauſe.

Barbaroſſa, however, in proceſs of time, renewed his attacks upon Tunis; ſo that Muley Haſſan went again to Europe to apply for ſuccours; and, during his abſence, his ſon Hamida revolted againſt him, and raiſed a dangerous commotion at home. Haſſan, appriſed of this revolution, returned home with about 2000 European forces; but his ſon defeated him, took him priſoner, and deprived him of his ſight. Hamida had been ſo ſucceſsful in forming alliances with the Arabian and Mooriſh chiefs, that he recovered Tunis, from which he had been driven by Abdelmelech, Haſſan's brother, and reigned without moleſtation till the year 1570, when Hali, baſhaw of Algiers, diſpoſſeſſed him of it.

The unfortunate Haſſan, during this interval, had found means to make another voyage to Europe, and remained in the emperor's court till that monarch had prepared a powerful armament to drive Barbaroſſa, and other formidable pirates, from the places they poſſeſſed on the Barbary coaſt. At length the grand imperial fleet arrived on the coaſt of Africa, with the unfortunate Haſſan, old and blind: but the wretched monarch ſoon after died of a fever in the Chriſtian camp.

The European admiral ſoon made himſelf maſter of moſt places on the ſea-coaſt; but the emperor ordering them all to be evacuated, the Goletta excepted, having occaſion for his troops in Europe, Hali, the Turk, poſſeſſed himſelf of Tunis: but the baſhaw Sinan made a total conqueſt of the kingdom, in the reign of the Grand Seignior Selim II. and deſtroyed all the Chriſtians but fourteen, whom he ſent in chains to Conſtantinople. Having brought the whole beneath the Ottoman yoke, he appointed for its government a baſhaw or viceroy, a divan, ſeveral governors or beys over the different provinces, 4000 janiſſaries, and a number of garriſons in the different cities, towns, and fortreſſes. This revolution terminated the ſplendor of the kings of Tunis in 1574, after 280 years continuance from its firſt eſtabliſhment by Abu-Ferez.

Tunis now began to be governed by deys choſen by the divan; but the ſtate was in ſuch confuſion, the jealouſies were ſo great, the intrigues ſo various, and new deys ſo frequently elected, that in the ſpace of 120 years no leſs than 23 reigned, all of whom, five excepted, were either dethroned or murdered.

During the reigns of the ſeveral deys, Tunis was involved in anarchy and confuſion, till Haſſan-Ben-Hali, a political and formidable prince, freed it from a dependence on the Porte, rendered himſelf ſo powerful as to ſtand in no awe of his neighbours, the Algerines and Tripolitans, reſtrained his ſubjects from acts of piracy, and concluded commercial treaties with the Chriſtian powers, particularly the Dutch and Engliſh, about the cloſe of the laſt century, ſince which nothing of importance has occurred.

SECTION VII.

TRIPOLI.

TRIPOLI was once the richeſt, moſt populous, and opulent, of all the ſtates on the coaſt of Barbary, but it is now greatly reduced. It is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean, and on the ſouth by Zaara or the Deſart, on the eaſt by Barca, and on the weſt by Tunis and Biledulgerid. It extends along the coaſt about 700 miles, that is from 10 deg. 13 min. to 25 deg. 27 min. eaſt longitude.

The air is clear, but leſs healthy than that of Tunis. The ſoil is the richeſt in Barbary: and the valies, where cultivated, produce large quantities of corn, grapes, olives, dates, and the various fruits natural to warm climates. The animals are the ſame as thoſe of Algiers

The capital of the kingdom is Tripoli, which, tho' ſmall, is populous. It is ſituated on a ſandy ſoil near the margin of the ſea: ſtrong walls, defended by formidable ramparts, and flanked by pyramidical towers, ſurround it. Here are but two gates; the north gate towards the ſea, and the ſouth gate towards the country; and the whole city forms the figure of a creſcent, the concave part of which encloſes the haven. At the extreme points of the harbour, which is very commodious, are ſome military works: thoſe to the eaſt are in bad condition; but on the weſtward there is a ſtrong caſtle, well fortified. The houſes in general are very mean, and low built, and the ſtreets narrow and crooked. But there are ſome remaining monuments of magnificence which ſeem to confirm the prevailing opinion of the inhabitants, that it was once remarkable for the ſplendor of many of its publick buildings.

The deficiency of freſh water, and great ſterility with reſpect to grain, under which this city labours, are both ſuppoſed to have been occaſioned by the encroachments of the ſea, which has frequently been known to overflow the neighbouring territory to a very conſiderable diſtance; ſo that through the injurious effects of theſe inundations, the inhabitants of Tripoli could not ſubſiſt upon the produce of their country, without the additional proviſions continually brought in by their piratical veſſels.

The environs abound with the country houſes of the principal inhabitants, the gardens belonging to which are uſually managed by the Chriſtian ſlaves, who are, however, at night all confined in a ſingle bagnio or gaol in the city itſelf.

Tripoli is frequently viſited by the plague, on which account the Franciſcans, who are ſettled here, have, beſides their church and convent, an hoſpital, in which they adminiſter relief to the Tripolines, as well as thoſe of their own perſuaſion.

The city is far leſs conſiderable than Algiers, and not comparable to Tunis. The government is the ſame with that of the reſt of the cities of Africa. The Moors are in as little credit here as at Algiers. The Nazarene renegadoes enjoy by far the greateſt ſhare of authority of any ſect of people in the country, and fill the chief employments. Of all the corſairs of Barbary, none are leſs cruel, though none are ſo much addicted to theft, as the people of Tripoli.

Capez, or Yabs, as the Moors call it, is ſituated on the ancient river Triton, to which the moderns have given the ſame name as the town. Being the frontier town between Tripoli and Tunis, it is large, and well fortified; and in its neighbourhood are found the ruins of the ancient city called by the Romans Tacapa. Capez, however, is but poor, and thinly inhabited by fiſhermen, and a few huſbandmen, the latter of which cultivate a ſmall quantity of barley, a conſiderable number of palm-trees, and a root which reſembles a potatoe. The natives are as black as negroes, and ſo poor, that they look upon a few pecks of barley, and half a dozen of palm-trees, as a conſiderable fortune. It is proper to obſerve, that the river Capez riſes in a ſandy deſart, and diſembogues itſelf into the Mediterranean; hence the waters are ſo hot, that they cannot be drank till they have been put into ſome cool place for about the ſpace of two hours.

El-Hammah was remarkable for its Roman walls, its hot ſulphurous ſprings, the aqueducts by which they were conveyed, and of which ſcarce any veſtiges remain. The inhabitants are a few fiſhermen, who are pirates when occaſion offers; and ſome huſbandmen, who are thieves at all opportunities.

Zaara, or, as it is commonly called, Zares, is ſuppoſed to be the ancient Piſidau, being ſituated on the ſea coaſt, near 19 miles from the Iſland of Zarbie: it is ſurrounded by an old wall almoſt in ruins. The inhabitants, who are but few in number, live by fiſhing, and burning quick-lime and pot-aſh, or, when opportunity ſerves, by piracy.

These towns, which are all situated on the western coast of the Gulf of Sidra, are the best in the country; those on the eastern side, and within the gulf, are in a wretched condition indeed, and present a dreadful picture of the devastations of time.

Nature knows
No steadfast station, but or ebbs or flows;
Ever in motion she destroys her old,
And casts new figures in another mould;
Ev'n times are in perpetual flux, and run
Like rivers from their fountains rolling on;
For time no more than streams is at a stay;
The flying hour is ever on her way;
And as the fountain still supplies her store,
The wave behind impels the wave before:
Thus in successive course the minutes run,
And urge their predecessor minutes on;
Still moving, ever new, for former things
Are set aside, like abdicated kings;
And ev'ry moment alters what is done,
And innovates some act till then unknow.
Time is th' effect of motion, born a twin.
And with the world did equally begin:
Time like a stream that hastens from the shore,
Flies to an ocean, where 'tis known no more:
All must be swallow'd in this endless deep,
And motion rest in everlasting sleep.

These parts of Africa have been subject to a great variety of revolutions from the various inundations of Goths, Vandals, Arabs, Mahometans, &c. who have over-run the country at different times, to which may be added the depredations of the Europeans, and tyranny of the government. The island of Malta is a perpetual thorn in the sides of the piratical states, particularly to those of Tripoli and Tunis, from the vicinity of its situation; and the Maltese knights merit the thanks of all commercial nations, for having so greatly circumscribed the power, and restrained the piracies of the Barbary rovers.

After the Moors were driven out of Andalusia in Spain, they built the town of Derne on the western side of the gulph of Sidra, which, indeed, is the only place worth mentioning in the district of that name. It is situated at the distance of about half a mile from the sea, and is better supplied with sweet water than most of the towns in the Tripoline territories; nevertheless the inhabitants are few in number, and wretchedly poor in circumstances. The most remarkable produce is great quantities of admirable honey, the delicacy of which is occasioned by the bees feeding upon a kind of shrub peculiar to this country, that bears a fragrant yellow flower, and blossoms all the year.

The district of Mesratata was anciently very flourishing, but at present is much reduced.

The beys of Tripoli are not mere nominal vassals to the Turkish government, like those of Algiers and Tunis, but are obliged to pay a considerable tribute, which puts them under the necessity of tyrannizing over the poor, and reducing them to the utmost indigence and misery, in order to obtain a sufficient sum to discharge their quota.

The revenues are raised by an impost on the corsairs, which are usually about eight in number, by a tax on commercial imports and exports, and by a subsidy which the Jews are obliged to furnish. The bey likewise taxes the wild Arabs and inland Moors; but these frequently refuse to pay the tribute, when he is obliged to send his flying camp of janissaries among them to reduce them to obedience: but neither the Porte, or the Turkish bassa, trouble themselves about the government, provided the bey pays with punctuality his stipulated tribute to the first, and gratifies the avaricious cravings of the last.

The principal article of commerce is in slaves, which are either taken by the corsairs at sea, or stolen by the wild Arabs and Moors from the neighbouring states. Both are, however, usually sent to Turkey, and sold there at the best market, unless they imagine that they belong to a distinguished family, when they are kept in expectation of a considerable ransom.

Besides the above, the only article of trade worth mentioning is the sale of ashes, which are disposed of to the Europeans for the purposes of making soap and glass. It is to be observed of this regency, that with respect to commerce and treaties, the people are much greater observers of their word, and perform their promises with more punctuality, than any of their piratical neighbours.

Concise History of Tripoli.

TRIPOLI, for a succession of years, devolved from power to power, having being subdued by the Vandals, Saracens, and the sovereigns of Morocco and Tunis. It at length fell into the hands of the Turks, and the Grand Seignior deputed a bassa to govern it.

The two most remarkable transactions relative to this kingdom are the bombardment of the capital by the French in the reign of Lewis XIV. and the treaty of peace and commerce between the Tripolitans and English in 1716.

The first of these occurrences happened in consequence of the Tripolitans having taken a ship under French colours, and detained several French subjects in a state of slavery. This occasioned Lewis XIV. to order his officers to make reprisals upon the vessels of Tripoli wherever they met them. These orders were strictly obeyed by the French captains; in particular, Monsieur d'Anfreville attacked six vessels of Tripoli near Cape Sapienca. Three of the corsairs fled in the beginning of the engagement, and the other three, after having been much shattered in the fight, took refuge in the island of Chios. The French commodore Monsieur du Quesne, who commanded in the Levant, having intelligence thereof, immediately proceeded to block them up with seven ships of war: but, previous to the commencement of hostilities, he sent a message to the governor aga to the following purport: "That he was in perfect amity with the Chians, and the Porte of Constantinople, but came in search of some Tripolitan pirates, who, contrary to the most solemn treaties had committed the most outrageous depredations on the subjects of France, and therefore hoped that the aga would not protect such infamous robbers." The aga, however, refused to give up the pirates, which so exasperated the French commodore, that he began immediately to bombard the place, against which he threw upwards of 7000 bombs, made a dreadful havock both of the houses and Tripolitan ships, and killed a great number of the people; but he could not enter the port on account of a strong staccado the Tripolitans had contrived to lay in his way. The court of Constantinople thought proper to interfere, in order to get matters adjusted, when at length it was agreed between the grand vizir and the Gallic ambassador, that matters should be compromised, and settled according to articles agreed upon by both parties.

The treaty of Peace and Commerce calculated, in every instance, to secure the lives and properties of the subjects of his Britannic Majesty, was concluded and ratified by the English admiral Baker on the one hand, and the proper officers of Tripoli on the other, in the month of July 1716.

SECTION VIII.

BARCA.

THIS inhospitable country, which is a mere desert, extends 400 miles from north to south, and 300 from east to west; comprizing those districts which the ancients termed Marmarica and Cyreniaca.

It is stiled, by the few Arabs who inhabit it, Cey-

rari,

rart Barka, or the Defert of Whirlwinds and Hurricanes. The territory about the towns and villages produce a ſcanty pittance of corn, millet and maize; all other parts of this wretched region are totally barren, and the whole labours under a great ſcarcity of water. Small as the quantity of grain is, the poor people are under the neceſſity of battering ſome of it for camels, ſheep, dates, &c. Perhaps the moſt pleaſant place in the whole country is that ſmall diſtrict on which the temple of Jupiter Ammon antiently ſtood; yet this is ſurrounded with horrid plains of burning ſands, which move under the traveller's feet like waves; or, being raiſed by the winds, overwhelm him with clouds of duſt. If any are obliged to journey through this diſagreeable region, they muſt travel with a compaſs, or they would be loſt in the deſert, and wander about till they are periſhed with hunger and thirſt. The ancient Cyrenaica is the deſart part, and that called Marmarica the inhabitable diſtrict: thoſe who live near the ſea-coaſt are all given to piracy; and the maritime part itſelf is called the Coaſt of Derna, from the chief city remaining, all the other towns known to the ancients being either totally ruined, or dwindled to the moſt inconſiderable villages. The authors of the Univerſal Hiſtory ſay thus concerning the principal places of this country, "What condition they are in, what commerce they drive, or how and by whom governed, we cannot find any ſatisfactory account of." And as we have not any information relative to them, more recent than what thoſe gentlemen have adverted to, we can only further add, that the people are moſt determined, ferocious, and cruel robbers both by ſea and land; and that they are ſo poor as to be obliged frequently to ſell their wives and children to their neighbours, in order to augment their means of ſubſiſtence and to get rid of all that they may deem an incumbrance.

In order to expoſe the ferocious and rapacious diſpoſition of the people of this part of the globe, in which they exceed thoſe of all others, we ſhall cloſe our account of Barbary with the following narrative of the loſs of his Majeſty's ſhip the Litchfield, and the unexampled ſufferings of the crew during their ſlavery in Morocco.

On the 11th of November 1758, the Litchfield, commanded by Capt. Barton, departed from Ireland, in company with ſeveral other men of war and tranſports, intended for the reduction of Goree, under the command of Commodore Keppel.

They met with a proſperous voyage till the 28th of the month, on the evening of which day the weather turned out very ſqually, with rain. At nine o'clock it was exceeding dark, with much lightning, and at half an hour after nine they had an extreme hard ſquall, at which time Capt. Barton came upon deck; and ſtaid till ten, when he left orders to keep ſight of the commodore, and to make what ſail the weather would permit.

At one o'clock in the morning of the 29th the light which they took to be the commodore's was right a-head bearing ſouth, and the wind blew very hard at weſt ſouth-weſt. At ſix o'clock in the morning the author of this account was awaked by a great ſhock, and a confuſed noiſe of the men upon the deck; on which he ran up, thinking ſome ſhip was ran foul of them, having no thoughts of being near land, ſince, according to every perſon's reckoning they were at leaſt 35 leagues from it; but before he could reach the quarter deck, he was too ſenſibly convinced of their diſmal ſituation, by the ſhip giving a great ſtroke on the ground, and the ſea breaking all over them.

Juſt after this he could perceive the land, at the diſtance of about two cables length, appearing rocky and uneven. The ſhip lying with her broadſide to windward, the ſea broke entirely over them; the maſts ſoon went over board, and ſome of the men were carried off with them.

It is impoſſible to conceive their diſtreſs at this time; the maſts, yards, and ſails hanging along-ſide in a confuſed heap, the ſhip beating violently upon the rocks, the waves curling up to an incredible height, and then daſhing down with ſuch force as if they would have ſplit the ſhip to pieces; which they every moment expected.

But now Providence favoured them greatly; for ſome of the large waves breaking without the ſhip, the remainder of their force came againſt the ſtarboard quarter; and the anchors that were cut away as ſoon as they ſtruck, now aſſiſted in bringing the ſhip's head towards the ſea.

This gave a proſpect of prolonging life, perhaps, a few hours, which was all at that time they could expect: however, their ſcattered ſenſes now recovering a little, they ſaw it neceſſary to get every thing they could over to the larboard ſide, to prevent the ſhip from heeling off, and expoſing the deck again to ſea: and the waves for the moſt part breaking forwards, they ſeized the opportunity, and got moſt of the ſtarboard guns on the upper deck over, with what elſe they could come at.

Some of the people, contrary to advice, were very earneſt to get the boats out; and at length, after much intreaty, one of the boats was launched, and eight of the beſt men jumped into her; and though at this time the ſea was rather abated, ſhe had hardly got to the ſhip's ſtern, when ſhe was inſtantly whirl'd to the bottom, and every man in her periſhed; and the reſt of the boats were ſoon waſhed to pieces upon deck.

They now made a raft of the capſtern bars, ſome boards, &c. which being done, they had only to wait with reſignation for the aſſiſtance of Providence.

The ſhip was ſo ſoon filled with water, that they had no time to get any proviſions up. The quarter-deck and poop were now the only places they could ſtand on with any ſecurity, the waves being far ſpent by the time they reached thoſe parts, owing to their being broke by the fore part of the ſhip.

At four o'clock in the afternoon, the ſea being then much abated, as it was almoſt low water, and as there was reaſon to imagine that the ſhip could not withſtand the violence of the next flood, one of the people ſwam ſafe aſhore.

There were numbers of Moors upon the rocks, who beckoned much for them to come on ſhore; which they at firſt took for kindneſs, but they were ſoon undeceived, as theſe wretches had not the humanity to aſſiſt any one who was intirely naked, but fled to thoſe who had any thing about them, whom they ſtripped before they were well out of the water, wrangling among themſelves about the plunder, while the poor man was left to crawl up the rocks if he was able; if not, they gave themſelves no concern about him.

Mr. Sutherland, with the ſecond lieutenant, and about 65 others, got aſhore before dark, where they were expoſed to the weather upon the cold ſand, and to keep themſelves from periſhing, were obliged to go down to the ſhore to bring up pieces of the wreck to make a fire, and if they happened to pick up a ſhirt or an handkerchief, and did not deliver it to the Moors on the firſt demand a dagger was inſtantly offered to their breaſts.

The Moors having allowed them a piece of an old ſail, which they did not think worth carrying off, they made two tents, into which they crouded, ſitting one between the other's legs, to preſerve warmth, and make room.

In this uneaſy ſituation, continually bewailing their own fate, and that of their poor ſhip-mates on the wreck, they paſſed a moſt turbulent, dark and rainy night, without a drop of water to refreſh them except what they catched in their ſail-cloth covering.

On the 30th of November, at ſix in the morning, they went down on the rocks to aſſiſt their ſhip-mates in coming aſhore, and found the ſhip had been greatly ſhattered in the night. It being now low water, many attempted to ſwim on ſhore, ſome of whom got ſafe, while others periſhed.

Thoſe on board got the raft into the water, and about 15 men upon it; but they were no ſooner put off from the wreck than it was quite overturned; but moſt of the men recovered it again, when it was inſtantly overſet a ſecond time, and all periſhed except three or four.

About this time a good ſwimmer brought a rope aſhore, and Mr. Sutherland running haſtily over the rocks into the water, catched hold of it juſt as the man was quite ſpent, and had thought of quitting it; and ſome others coming to his aſſiſtance, they, by the help of that, pulled a large rope aſhore, and made it faſt round a rock.

They found this gave ſpirits to the poor people on the wreck; for the rope being hauled tight from the upper part of the ſtern, made an eaſy deſcent for any one who had art enough to walk or ſlide upon the rope, with another above to hold by, in which manner they proceeded almoſt half way aſhore.

The under rope was intended for a traveller to pull people aſhore, being faſtened to the large rope with an iron ring, to go backwards and forwards, but there being a knot in the large rope, when once they had pulled it over it would not return. However, it was of great ſervice, and was the means of ſaving a number of lives.

They continued coming by the rope till about eleven o'clock, though many of them were waſhed off and periſhed. The flood then coming on raiſed the ſurf, and prevented any more coming at that time, and the ropes could be of no further uſe.

They now retired to the rocks, and being extremely hungry, they began to broil ſome of the drowned turkies, &c. which, with ſome flour mixed, and baked among the coals, made their firſt meal on this barbarous coaſt: and at about half a mile diſtant they found a well of freſh water, which was of the utmoſt ſervice to them.

They had ſcarcely finiſhed their meal when the Moors, who were now grown numerous, drove them all down to the rocks, beating them if they lingered, (though ſome were hardly able to crawl,) to bring up empty iron-bound caſks, pieces of the wreck which had iron about them, and other things.

About three o'clock in the afternoon they had another meal upon the drowned poultry; and finding this was the beſt food they were likely to have, ſome of them were ordered to ſave all they could find upon the ſhore, others to raiſe a larger tent, and the reſt were ſent down to the rocks to look out for people coming aſhore.

The ſurf greatly increaſing with the flood, and breaking upon the fore part of the ſhip, ſhe was now divided into three pieces. The fore part was turned keel up; the middle part was ſoon daſhed into a thouſand pieces. The fore part of the poop likewiſe fell at this time, and about 30 men with it, eight of whom got ſafe on ſhore, but ſo bruiſed that their recovery was deſpaired of.

A moſt melancholy proſpect now appeared: nothing but the after part of the poop remained above water, with a very ſmall part of the other decks, on which was the captain, and about 130 more, expecting every wave to be their laſt; for the wreck ſeemed as if it was inſtantly going to throw them all to the bottom, and every ſhock threw ſome off, hardly any of whom came on ſhore alive.

During this diſtreſs the Moors laughed very loud, and ſeemed much diverted when a wave larger than common threatened the deſtruction of the poor tottering ſouls upon the wreck.

Between four and five o'clock the ſea was much decreaſed with the ebb; and the rope being ſtill ſecure they began to venture upon it, when ſome fell off and periſhed, but others got ſafe on ſhore.

About five o'clock thoſe on ſhore made ſigns for the captain to come upon the rope, as that appeared to be as good an opportunity as any they had obſerved: but ſome who came lately off, ſaid, that the captain was reſolved to ſtay till all the men had made the beſt of their way to land, or at leaſt had quitted the wreck; which bravery of his they at once admired and lamented.

However, they ſtill continued to beckon him, and, juſt before it was dark, they had the pleaſure of ſeeing him come on the rope. He was cloſe followed by a good able ſeaman, who did all he could to keep up his ſpirits, and aſſiſt him in warping.

As the captain could not ſwim, and had been ſo long without any refreſhment, he was no longer able to reſiſt the violence of the waves, but had loſt his hold of the great rope, and muſt unavoidably have periſhed, had not a wave thrown him within the reach of the ropes held by thoſe on ſhore, which he had barely the ſenſe left to lay hold of. They pulled him up, and, after reſting a little while upon the rocks, he came to himſelf and walked up to the tent, deſiring the others to aſſiſt the reſt of the people in coming aſhore.

The Moors were for ſtripping the captain, though he had nothing on but a plain waiſtcoat, and a pair of breeches; but his people, plucking up their ſpirits upon this occaſion, oppoſed them; on which they thought proper to deſiſt.

The people ſtill continued to come on ſhore pretty faſt, though many periſhed in the attempt: but they plainly ſaw that their caſe was deſperate, as the wreck muſt inevitably fall to pieces with the next flood.

The Moors at length growing tired with waiting for ſo little plunder, would not let them remain any longer upon the rocks, but drove them all up; whereupon Mr. Sutherland, with the captain's permiſſion, went and made ſupplication to the baſhaw, who was in his tent with many other Moors, dividing the plunder.

Mr. Sutherland having by ſigns made himſelf underſtood, the baſhaw gave them leave to go down to the ſea-ſide, ſending ſome Moors with them. They carried fire-brands down, to let the poor creatures on the wreck ſee that they were ſtill ready to aſſiſt them.

Mr. Sutherland ſays, that he has no doubt but many periſhed while they were gone, for want of their help: for they had been but a few minutes on the rocks when one came very near them before they ſaw him; and this was frequently a circumſtance of as much horror as any they met with; for juſt as the poor wretches appeared in ſight, they were waſhed from the rope, and daſhed to death againſt the rocks cloſe to their more fortunate companions.

About nine at night, finding that no more men would venture upon the rope, as the ſurf was again greatly increaſed, they retired to their tents with hearts full of ſorrow, leaving, according to the laſt man's account, between 30 and 40 upon the wreck.

They now thought of crowding all into the tent, and began by fixing the captain in the middle. They then made every one lie down on his ſide, as they could not afford him a breadth: but, after all, there were many that took eaſier lodgings in empty caſks that had been thrown on ſhore.

On the firſt of December, in the morning, the wreck was all in pieces upon the rocks, and the ſhore quite covered with lumber.

The people upon the wreck periſhed about one in the morning, as we learnt from one who was toſſed up and down nearly two hours upon a piece of the wreck, and at laſt thrown upon the rocks ſenſeleſs, but recovered, and got to the tent by day-light, though greatly bruiſed.

The Moors were very buſy in picking up every thing of value, but would not ſuffer the Engliſh to take the leaſt thing, except pork, flour, and liquor, all of which they ſecured as much as they could in the tent.

Some were now employed in enlarging the tent, and raiſing another; ſome in trying to make bread, and ſome in cleaning the drowned ſtock.

At one in the afternoon they muſtered the men, and placing them in ranks, found the number to be 220; ſo that there were 130 drowned, among which number was the firſt lieutenant, the captain of marines, his lieutenant, the purſer, gunner, carpenter, and three midſhipmen. They now returned publick thanks to Almighty God for their deliverance.

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On the ſecond of December, at five in the morning, they found one George Allen, a marine, dead cloſe by the tent, which they imagined was occaſioned by drinking brandy among the rocks, as ſeveral had got drunk that way, though they uſed what means they could to prevent it.

This day two men were whipped, by order of Capt. Barton, for their inſolence, which was highly neceſſary, both to convince the Moors, and their own people, that they were ſtill under command.

At two in the afternoon there arrived a black ſervant from one Mr. Butler, at Saffy, a town about thirty miles diſtant, to enquire into their ſituation, and give them aſſiſtance. This man having brought pens, ink, and paper, the captain wrote a letter to Mr. Butler; and they finding there was even one perſon who offered them help, was a circumſtance which gave the higheſt ſatisfaction.

On the morning of the third of December they aſſembled the people, and read prayers of thankſgiving. In the afternoon they received a letter from Mr. Butler, with ſome bread, and a few other neceſſaries, which were extremely acceptable. They now heard that one of the tranſports, and a bomb-tender, were wrecked about three leagues to the northward of them, and a great many of the men ſaved.

On the fourth of the month the people were employed in picking up pieces of the ſails, and what elſe the Moors would permit them. They now divided the people into meſſes, and ſerved them with the neceſſaries they received the day before. In the afternoon they received another letter from Mr. Butler, who was factor to the Daniſh African Company, and himſelf a Dane; and at the ſame time they had a letter from one Mr. Andrews, an Iriſh gentleman, who was a merchant at Saffy.

On the fifth the people were employed to gather muſcles at low water, the drowned ſtock being all exhauſted. Mr. Andrews arrived this morning, and brought with him a French ſurgeon, and ſome medicines and plaiſters, which many of the bruiſed men ſtood in great need of. In the afternoon one of the ſeamen died by his bruiſes mortifying.

The next day was delivered one of the country blankets to every two men, and a pair of ſlippers to ſuch as ſtood in need of them. Theſe ſupplies were brought by Mr. Andrews. The people were now forced to live on muſcles and bread, the Moors having deceived them, though they promiſed to ſupply them with cattle.

On the ſeventh the Moors began to be ſomewhat civil, for fear the emperor ſhould puniſh them for their cruelty to the Engliſh; and in the afternoon a meſſenger arrived from the emperor of Sallee, with orders in general to the people to ſupply them with proviſions. They accordingly brought ſome poor bullocks and lean ſheep, which Mr Andrews purchaſed; but at this time they had no pots to make broth in, and the cattle were hardly fit for any thing elſe.

On the ninth, in the morning, they ſaw ſeveral dead bodies upon the rocks. This day the people were employed in bringing up the oak timbers, &c. from the ſea ſide, the emperor having ſent orders to ſave whatever might be of uſe to his cruizers,

On the morning of the tenth they got every thing ready to march to Morocco, the emperor having ſent orders for that purpoſe, and camels to carry the lame, and the neceſſaries. At nine o'clock they ſet out with about 30 camels, and at noon were joined by the crews of the two other wretched veſſels, when they were all mounted on camels, except the captain, who was furniſhed with a horſe. They did not ſtop till ſeven in the evening, when the Moors procured them only two tents, which would not contain one third of the men; ſo that moſt of them lay expoſed to the dew, which was very heavy and cold. They now found their whole number to be 338, including officers, men, boys, three women, and a young child, which one of the women had brought aſhore with her teeth.

They continued their journey on the eleventh, attended by a number of Moors on horſeback: and the alcaid, who had the conducting of them, now furniſhed ſeveral of the officers with horſes. They did not travel ſtrait for Morocco, being informed that they muſt meet the emperor coming from Sallee. At ſix in the evening they came to their reſting place for the night, and were furniſhed with tents ſufficient to cover all the men.

On the twelfth they ſet out at five in the morning, and at two in the afternoon ſaw the emperor's cavalcade at a diſtance. At three a relation of the emperor's, named Muli Adriſs, came to them, and told the captain, it was the emperor's poſitive orders that he ſhould inſtantly write a letter to the governor of Gibraltar, to ſend to his Britannic majeſty, to know whether he would make a peace with him or not.

Captain Barton ſat down immediately on the graſs, and wrote a letter, which being given to Muli Adriſs, he returned to the emperor. At ſix in the evening they came to the reſting place for the night, and were well furniſhed with tents, but had very little proviſion.

On the thirteenth they had proviſion brought them, and were deſired to remain in their preſent ſituation till the men were refreſhed.

Having waited till the ſixteenth, and the men being greatly recovered of their fatigues, they continued their journey as before; and at four in the afternoon came to their reſting place, pitched their tents, and refreſhed themſelves with proviſions.

Here ſome of the country Moors uſed the Engliſh ill as they were taking water from the brook. The Moors would always ſpit in the veſſel before they would let them take any away. Hereupon a party of the Engliſh went to enquire into the affair, and were immediately ſaluted with a ſhower of ſtones. They then run in upon the Moors, beat ſome of them, put them to flight, and brought away one, who attempted to defend himſelf with a long knife. This fellow was ſeverely puniſhed by the alcaid who had the conducting of the Engliſh.

On the morning of the ſeventeenth each of the people had a dram, as had been uſual, and they then continued their journey; and at four in the afternoon came to the reſting place for the night, and, after ſome difficulty, got tents and a proper ſupply of proviſion.

On the eighteenth of December, at three in the afternoon, they came to the city of Morocco, without having ſeen one dwelling-houſe in the whole journey. They were here inſulted by the rabble as they paſſed, and at five o'clock were conducted to the emperor, who was on horſeback before the gate of his palace, ſurrounded by five or ſix hundred of his guards.

He told Captain Barton, by an interpreter, that he was neither at peace or war with the Engliſh, and that he would detain him and his people till an ambaſſador came from England to ſettle a firm peace.

The captain then deſired that they might not be uſed as ſlaves; to which the emperor haſtily replied, that they ſhould be taken care of; and they were then directly thruſt out of his preſence, conveyed to two ruined houſes, and ſhut up amidſt dirt and innumerable vermin of ſeveral ſorts.

Mr. Butler, who was mentioned before, being at Morocco on buſineſs, came and aſſiſted them with victuals and drink, and procured liberty for the captain to go home with him to his lodging. He likewiſe ſent ſome blankets for the officers, with which they made a ſhift to paſs the night pretty comfortably, as they were greatly fatigued.

On the morning of the nineteenth their centinel was taken off, and the people had liberty to go out. The Moors likewiſe ſent them ſome bread, and towards night ſome beef; but they had yet no convenience to dreſs it; and the people were all day employed in clearing out the rubbiſh, and deſtroying the vermin.

On the twentieth ſome of their neceſſaries which they had on the road were brought to them, after being

rummaged, and the captain's trunk robbed of 19 ducats, feveral rings, filver buckles, a watch, and other things, moftly belonging to the foremaft-men. Mr. Butler, and his partner, Mr. Dekon, did every thing in their power to aflift them; and the people now had pots to boil their victuals, nor were they in any want of bread.

On the morning of the twenty-firft the emperor fent money to the captain for the fupport of the men, at a blanqueen a day each, or two-pence fterling; but that being infufficient, Captain Barton got money from Mr. Butler to make it up four-pence fterling, which he managed himfelf for them to the beft advantage, allowing them one pound of beef or mutton, with broth, and one pound of bread every day.

At nine o'clock in the morning of this day, the emperor fent for the captain and every officer to appear before him, and they inftantly repaired to his palace, where they remained two hours waiting in an outer yard. In the mean time he diverted himfelf with feeing a clumfy Dutch boat rowed about a pond by four of the petty officers.

About noon they were fummoned before him, and placed in a line, about thirty yards from him. He was fitting in a chair by the fide of a pond, with only two of his chief alcaids near him. Having viewed them fome time, he ordered the captain to come forward; and after having afked him fome queftions concerning the Engliih navy, and the deftination of the fquadron, of which the Litchfield made a part, he called forward the reft of the people by two and three at a time, as they ftood according to the rank. Then afking moft of them fome very infignificant queftions, and taking fome of them to be Portugueie, becaufe they had black hair, and others to be Swedes, becaufe they had white hair, he judged none of them to be Englifhmen except the captain, the fecond lieutenant, the enfign of the foldiers, and Mr. Sutherland; but on their affuring him that they were all Engliih, he cried bono, and gave a nod for their departure; to which they returned a very low bow, and were glad to get to their old ruined houfes again.

On the 2d of December Captain Barton provided the people with ftuff for frocks, trowfers, and mats and pillars to lie on, with every other neceffary that could be got; and they were all employed in making themfelves cloaths in the beft manner they were able.

On the next day the captain received a meffage from the emperor, with orders, that if any of the Engliih fhould be guilty of a crime, he fhould puniih them the fame as if they were on board his fhip; but if they fhould quarrel with the Moors, they muft abide by the Mooriih laws, which were very fevere againft the Chriftians.

On the twenty-fourth, being Sunday, they were all aflembled, and prayers were read in the fame manner as if they had been on board, and they returned unfeigned thanks to God for the many favours he had beftowed on them. They had but one bible among them all, and that was a prefent from Mr. Andrews; and though they had no clergyman, Captain Barton never omitted a fingle Sunday to aflemble the men, and have fervice performed.

On Chriftmas day prayers were read to the people as ufual in the church of England: and this day the captain received a prefent of fome tea and loaves of fugar from one of the emperor's queens, whofe grandfather had been an Engliih renegado.

The next day they heard the difagreeable news that the emperor would oblige all the Engliih to work in the fame manner as the other Chriftian flaves, excepting the officers that were before him on the twenty-firft of the month.

On the twenty-feventh, at feven in the morning, an alcaid came and ordered the people all out to work, except thofe who were ficl; and, by interceffion, eight were allowed to ftay at home every day as cooks for the reft which they took by turns throughout the whole.

At four in the afternoon the people returned, fome of whom had been employed in carrying wood, fome in turning up the ground with hoes, and others in picking weeds in the emperor's garden. Their food was provided by the time they came home.

Next day all the people went to work as foon as they could fee. They were allowed to fit down an hour and a half in the middle of the day; but had many a ftroke from their drivers, when they were doing their beft to deferve better ufage. The captain endeavoured all that was in his power to get that remedied, which, with the aflifiance of their good friend Juan Arbona, he was in hopes of effecting.

This Juan Arbona, who had been in the country eight years, was taken under Engliih colours and had a pafs figned by General Blakeney at Minorca. For two or three years paft the emperor had kept him near his own perfon, and put much confidence in him. He was much attached to the Engliih, and did every thing in his power to aflift them.

On the twenty ninth the people were allowed a hot breakfaft of porridge, fweetened with honey, before they went to their work. This work was fometimes to hoe the ground, and at other times to carry wood or ftones for building, and fuch other things as the flaves are commonly employed in.

The next day Captain Barton received an obliging meffage from the emperor, with his permiffion for him to ride out, or take a walk in his gardens, with any of the officers.

The thirty-firft of the month was Sunday, but the people were obliged to go to work as before, the captain not being able to obtain permiffion for them to ftay at home on Sundays. At four o'clock they returned, and at five prayers were read to them as ufual.

On the firft of January 1759 the people were continued at their work as ufual, but had not fo much bad ufage, and were in a fair way of having lefs, owing chiefly to the good offices of their friend Juan Arbona, who took all imaginable pains to make their work as light as poffible. He now obtained leave for the Chriftians to quit their work at twelve o'clock on Sundays, which was no fmall favour, and fuch as was never granted in this country before.

The people kept their health as yet pretty well, having a cool air to work in at this time of the year; but it is fcorching hot in the fummer, when there is feldom any wind to refrefh the labourers.

On the fecond of January a new moon commenced, whereupon the emperor fent Captain Barton the money for the fupport of the people till the next moon.

By this time they were got into a fettled way of living, fo that it will be unneceffary to take notice of thofe things that occurred daily: we fhall, therefore, only remark any extraordinary occurrences.

Nothing material happened till the beginning of February, when two foldiers died within a few days of each other; and the emperor enquiring into the caufe of their deaths, Juan Arbona told him that it was occafioned by catching cold for want of cloaths; upon which he received immediate orders to give every Engliih flave as much white linen as would make two fhirts.

In the month of march a Spaniard having fome words with a Moor, who had firft ufed him ill, was carried before the emperor, who ordered him to be immediately knocked on the head before his face, and the dead body to be expofed for two days afterwards; during which time the Moors and Jews fhewed the brutality of their difpofitions, by daihing the body to pieces with ftones as they paffed.

About the middle of April the Engliih received letters which gave them hopes of fpeedy relief; but the men were not now fo healthy as they had been, fome being afflicted with a fever, and fome with the flux.

On the 26th of May the emperor received a letter from Lord Home, offering 170,000 dollars for the freedom of the Engliih, with which his Majefty feemed very well pleafed, and promifed to fend immediately

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for the ambaſſador, and let them go; but they found that there was no truſting to any thing he ſaid.

On the fifteenth of June a courier ſet out with the emperor's letter to the ambaſſador. He was a Jew, named Tolenado, and had orders to proceed to Gibralter, and return with the ambaſſador.

About ten days after this, the emperor ordered that the Engliſh ſhould work only from day-light till nine o'clock, and then go home till three in the afternoon, when they ſhould return and work till ſun-ſet. The number that went to work was likewiſe limited to 100, which might ſoon enable them to make two gangs; for the people being kept from working in the exceſſive heat of the ſun, the number of ſick decreaſed daily.

On the ſecond of July the emperor ſet out from Morocco with an army of 6000 men, which was ſoon increaſed to 30,000, as great numbers joined him continually. He went to ſubdue ſome part of his dominions that would not acknowledge his ſovereignty.

In about eight days time he ſent to the city of Morocco the heads of 70 men, which were placed againſt one of the great gates of the city. There were alſo about 200 priſoners, the chief of whom, to the number of 40, were put into one of the towers of the wall, and about one third of their number put on the top of it, with large wooden rammers. They were then ſupplied with earth, which they were obliged to beat till the roof gave way with the load, and then they all periſhed together.

About the 10th of Auguſt orders came for 50 men more to go to work, by which the Engliſh found that the emperor was uneaſy that their ambaſſador did not come.

On the eighteenth they heard from Gibralter that the ambaſſador deferred coming; but on the twentieth they had the agreeable news that he would ſet ſail from Gibralter in a few days. This good news kept their hopes alive till the latter end of Auguſt, when a courier arrived from Tetuan, who brought the news of Admiral Boſcawen's having beat the French fleet, and that the ambaſſador's ſhip being in the engagement, was obliged to ſtay ſome time at Gibralter to refit.

During all this time the emperor's cruizers had paſſports from Lord Home, and were all out, and conſtantly ſending in prizes, which gave the captives but little hope of bringing matters to an accommodation that ſummer; as the keeping his cruizers in port is the readieſt way of making them hearken to reaſon.

Moſt of the cruizers being returned ſucceſsful into port by the middle of September, the Engliſh had the aſſurance of the long expected ambaſſador being at Sallee, with his majeſty's ſhips Guernſey and Thetis, having the money on board for their redemption, which the emperor was informed of at his camp; but being elated with his ſucceſs both by land and ſea, and having nothing to fear from the Engliſh till the next ſpring, he only trifled with the ambaſſador, by making extravagant demands, to detain him upon the coaſt, which is very dangerous in the winter time.

His laſt demand was 250,000 dollars, 30 pieces of cannon, and a large quantity of powder and ſhot. The ambaſſador had come up to 200,000 dollars to ſatisfy him for every pretenſion; but on hearing this laſt demand, he ſent the emperor word that it never would be complied with, and immediately left the coaſt, having firſt loſt two anchors in Sallee road.

When the emperor found there was nothing to be done by keeping the ſhip, he diſpatched one of his alcaids to Gibralter with more moderate propoſals; and deſired that a gentleman might be ſent to him, with authority from the ambaſſador to treat on the ſubject, and carry back his determined reſolution.

Accordingly Mr. Haſler, the ambaſſador's ſecretary, was ſent with anſwers to the emperor's laſt demands, who uſed every argument to convince him that it was not in the ambaſſador's power to grant him any ſupplies of warlike ſtores, as that was contrary to treaties firmly ſubſiſting between England and other nations then at peace with her; but the emperor would not be convinced, and ſuffered Mr. Haſler to return to Gibralter, without giving him his determined reſolution.

During this interval, there were eight or nine Engliſh paſſengers taken under Portugueſe colours, and brought to Morocco, which the captives apprehended would be an additional ſubject of diſpute.

About the middle of October the emperor again ſent Toledano, the Jew, with more moderate propoſals than any of the former, and with authority to accommodate all differences.

In the beginning of February, 1760, Toledano returned with Lord Home's determined reſolution to give 200,000 dollars for the redemption of every Britiſh ſubject in the emperor's dominions, and 20,000 dollars to purchaſe warlike ſtores, which he might do by ſending a veſſel of his own to England.

About this time Captain Barton was uſed very ill, which happened in the following manner. He had been allowed to keep a mule for ſome time paſt, and commonly uſed to ride from his houſe, which was near the palace, to the houſe where the men were lodged. The emperor happened to ſee him; but Capt. Barton thinking himſelf ſo far diſtant that he ſhould not be taken notice of, only put his hat under his arm, and rode on, as he was at that inſtant obſcured by a wall.

The emperor ſent two of his guards after him, and he was juſt going to alight at the houſe when they came up with him, and pulled him from off the mule, giving him ſeveral ſtrokes with their ſtraps, which they always have ready for that purpoſe. They ſeized him, one on each ſide, by the collar, and in that manner hurried him to one of the gates, and ſhut him up in a hole behind the door.

The mob would hardly allow his officers to follow him. However Mr. Sutherland got in with him; but they had not been there a quarter of an hour, before the ſame two fellows that ſeized him came and ſet him free, and wanted money for that favour, agreeable to the cuſtom of the country; but Captain Barton would not give them a blanqueen, and bid them go and tell their maſter ſo.

The men were now kept more ſtrictly than ever to their work, and the alcaid came oftner to ſearch the houſe; but the vigilance of Captain Barton, and their good friend Juan Arbona, got the better of a number of difficulties and impoſitions, which would otherwiſe have rendered the lives of the people very unhappy.

For a fortnight paſt the emperor had conſidered on the laſt propoſals; and having diſcourſed with Toledano ſeveral times on the ſubject, he at length reſolved to ſend him once more to Gibralter, with his determined reſolution to accept of two hundred thouſand dollars for the redemption of all the Engliſh ſubjects, and twenty-five thouſand dollars for every other pretenſion: and as he now ſeemed to be more in earneſt than ever he had been before, they began to think their deliverance was at hand.

Toledano ſet out for Gibralter about the middle of February, with orders to write to the emperor, immediately upon lord Home's agreeing to his propoſals: and upon receipt of this letter the captives were to ſet out for Sallee, to be ready for embarking when the ambaſſador arrived there.

On the 25th of March the emperor received aſſurances from Gibralter that his demands ſhould be duly complied with, on the embarkation of the captives at Sallee, for which place the ambaſſador would ſail with the firſt fair wind, with the money and preſents.

Hereupon his majeſty ſent to Captain Barton, who had alſo received letters, to inform him that he, and all the people who were caſt away, ſhould ſoon ſet out for Sallee. The joy they felt on this occaſion may be better imagined than deſcribed. Captain Barton took up money from the merchants, with which they ſoon provided every thing that could be wanted in a journey of ten days, for three hundred and twenty men; but they were ſtill kept to their work.

On

On the 11th of April the men left off going to work: and on the evening of the 12th the emperor sent for captain Barton, Mr. Sutherland, and the second lieutenant, and told them they were to go away on the next morning, and that he would make peace with the English nation, if they were willing; if not, he did not care. He then gave a nod for their departure, on which they made a low bow, and walked off with much lighter hearts than ever they had felt before.

The next morning they were all ready before sun-rising, but waited till nine o'clock for the mules and camels: then they were all mounted, generally two upon a camel, and immediately went without the city, and when all were come, they proceeded on their journey, attended by a bashaw and one hundred soldiers on horseback.

They were now treated in a more agreeable manner than when they came thither near eighteen months before. Mr. Barton was now consulted how fast he chose to travel, and when to stop. In the evening they pitched their tents, which were all properly numbered, and formed an exact oval. In this good order they pursued their journey without wanting for any thing.

On the fourth day of their march they had a skirmish with some of the Moors. It was occasioned by some of the men in the rear stopping to buy milk at a country village, for which the Moors wanted to make them pay an extravagant price after they had drank it, which they would not comply with. Hereupon the Moors began to beat them, which the English returned, and others going to their assistance, they maintained a smart battle, till the Moors grew too numerous. In the mean time some of the English rode off to call their guard, who instantly repaired to their assistance with their drawn scymetars, and dealt round them pretty briskly: in the interim the English were not idle, but made the blood stream down the faces of many Moors.

The guards then seized the chief man of the village, and carried him to the bashaw, who conducted the English, who having heard the whole affair, dismissed him without further punishment, in consideration of his having been already well drubbed.

On the 22d of April they got to Sallee, and pitched their tents in an old castle, from whence they had the long-wished-for happiness to see three English ships lying at anchor, ready to receive them; but when they viewed the bar of the harbour, with a large roaring surf upon it, they began to think their embarkation would probably prove tedious, which accordingly happened; for it was the 4th of May before the bar was smooth enough for the boats to go out, and then only half the people could go, as there were not boats enough for all.

Captain Barton judged it proper to send off first all the soldiers, inferior officers, and some sailors, to make up one hundred and sixty-two in number, over the bar. They came to grapling, and waited till half the money was brought from the ship, and put into their boat, which returned over the bar, and the men got safe on board, where those who remained on shore cast many a wishful eye, till the 13th, during which interval they had much uneasiness, as the Moors were suspicious of the ambassador's not coming to shore, and wanted to detain some of the officers for a security; but at last the ambassador, and captain Barton's sagacity, surmounted this difficulty, and they all got over the bar, where they waited till the money was put into the Moor's boat, upon which they proceeded on board the Guernsey, with hearts full of gratitude to God and their country, for their deliverance from so barbarous a people.

They were most chearfully welcomed by the ambassador and all his officers, whose kindness they experienced a full month, while they waited for the passengers, to the number of twenty-five men and women, whom the emperor wanted to keep till the ambassador came to him. This could not be complied with; but at length the emperor, after sending a person to settle that point with the English ambassador, consented to let them all go, except Juan Arbona and Pedro Umbert, whom he absolutely refused to part from; which occasioned a general grief, on account of the former, as he had been a steady friend to them in their adversity, and kindly assisted them in all their difficulties.

They arrived at Gibralter on the 27th of June, and on the 29th sailed for England in his majesty's ship Marlborough, where they arrived in good health on the 7th of August, but remained in quarantine till the 19th of September 1760, and on the 20th had leave to go on shore: captain Barton and all his people being honourably acquitted by a court-martial for the loss of the Litchfield.

CHAP. XXI.

AFRICAN ISLANDS.

SECTION I.

THE CANARY ISLANDS.

THE Canaries, formerly called the Fortunate Islands, are situated in the Atlantic Ocean between the 12th and 19th degrees of west longitude, and between the 27th and 29th of north latitude, about 150 miles south-west of Morocco. They are seven in number, and their particular names are, Teneriffe, Canaria, Palma, Ferro, Gomera, Fuerteventura and Lancerota.

The Canary Islands have been subject to the crown of Spain since the war in 1417, at which time they were discovered by John de Betancourt, a Frenchman in the service of Castile, who subdued Fuerteventura and Lancerota, as others after him did the rest from that time to the year 1496. In the days of Ferdinand, king of Castile, and Alphonso V. of Portugal, each of them claiming a right to the others dominions, and assuming each others titles, there ensued a bloody war between the Spaniards and Portuguese, till both sides being spent, a peace was concluded in 1479 at Alcobazas, on the 4th of September, by which they reciprocally renounced their pretentions; and it was therein stipulated, that the Canary Islands should entirely belong to the crown of Castile, and the commerce and navigation of Guinea to that of Portugal, exclusive of the Castilians.

The Canaries enjoy a pure and temperate air, and such is the nature of the soil that it frequently yields two crops in a year. They abound in the most delicious fruits, especially grapes, which produce those rich wines known to us by the name of Canary, and of which, it is said, that in times of peace not less than 10,000 hogsheads are annually exported to England.

We shall describe the Canary Islands distinctly, beginning with

TENERIFFE.

TENERIFFE.

THE Iſland of Teneriffe is about 50 miles in length, and 20 in breadth. The country is fertile, tho' much encumbered with mountains, particularly that called the Peak, which, according to the accounts of ſome navigators, may be ſeen in clear weather at the diſtance of 120 miles. The Peak is an aſcent in the form of a ſugar loaf, about 15 miles in circumference, and, according to the account publiſhed in the Philoſophical Tranſactions, near three miles perpendicular.

Captain Cook made the Peak of Teneriffe on his firſt voyage, in the account of which the following particulars are mentioned.

"The height of this mountain has been deſcribed by Dr. Heberden, who has been upon it, to be 15,396 feet, which is but 148 yards leſs than three miles, reckoning the mile at 1760 yards. Its appearance at ſun-ſet was very ſtriking; when the ſun was below the horizon, and the reſt of the iſland appeared of a deep black, the mountain ſtill reflected its rays, and glowed with a warmth of colour which no painting can expreſs. There is no eruption of viſible fire from it; but a heat iſſues from the chinks near the top, too ſtrong to be borne by the hand when it is held near them."

The air and climate are ſaid to be remarkably healthful, and particularly adapted to afford relief in phthiſical complaints. By reſiding at different heights in the iſland ſuch a temperature may be procured as is beſt ſuited to the conſtitution. Perſons may continue where the air is mild and ſalubrious, as they may aſcend till the cold becomes intolerable; but no perſon, it is ſaid, can live comfortably within a mile of the perpendicular height of the Peak, after the month of Auguſt.

Captain Cook touched at this famous iſland in his laſt voyage, and gave the following deſcription of it:

The road of Santa Cruz, ſays that navigator, is ſituated on the ſouth-eaſt ſide of the iſland, before the town of the ſame name. It is ſaid to be the principal road of Teneriffe for ſhelter, capacity, and the goodneſs of its bottom.

The water to ſupply the ſhipping, and for the uſe of the inhabitants of Santa Cruz, is derived from a rivulet that runs from the hills, which is conveyed into the town in wooden troughs. As theſe troughs were repairing at the time Captain Cook viſited the iſland, freſh water was extremely ſcarce.

From the appearance of the country about Santa Cruz, it might be naturally concluded that Teneriffe is a barren ſpot. Captain Cook was convinced, however, from the ample ſupplies his people received, that it not only produced ſufficient to ſupply its own inhabitants, but alſo enough to ſpare for viſitors. Though wine is the chief produce of the iſland, beef may be had at about three-pence ſterling a pound. The oxen, however, are ſmall, lean, and boney. Sheep, goats, hogs, and poultry, may be had on terms equally reaſonable. A great variety of fruits are to be had in plenty; as pears, figs, grapes, mulberries, muſk-melons, &c. beſides others that were not then in ſeaſon. The pumpkins, potatoes, and onions, which grow here, are excellent.

Indian corn is produced on this iſland, and ſold at about three ſhillings and ſix-pence per buſhel. The fruits and vegetables are, in general, very cheap. Tho' the inhabitants are but indifferently ſupplied with fiſh by the adjoining ſeas, they are engaged in a conſiderable fiſhery on the coaſt of Barbary, and the produce of it ſells at a very moderate price.

Teneriffe is certainly a more eligible place than Madeira for ſhips to touch at which are bound on long voyages: but the wine of the latter is infinitely ſuperior to that of the former. The difference of their prices is almoſt as conſiderable as their qualities; for the beſt Teneriffe wine was ſold for 12l. a pipe, whereas a pipe of the beſt Madeira was worth conſiderably more than double that ſum.

Behind the town of Santa Cruz the country riſes gradually to a moderate height: afterwards it continues to riſe ſouth-weſtward towards the celebrated Peak of Teneriffe. But our voyagers were much diſappointed in their expectations with reſpect to its appearance, and particularly as to its height.

The iſland, eaſtward of Santa Cruz, appears perfectly barren. Ridges of high hills run towards the ſea, between which are deep vallies, terminating at mountains that run acroſs, and are higher than the former.

Mr. Anderſon went on ſhore to one of theſe vallies, intending to reach the top of the remoter hills, but time would not permit him to get farther than their feet. The lower hills produce great quantities of the *Euphorbia Canarienſis*. The people on the ſpot imagine its juice to be ſo cauſtic as to corode the ſkin; but Mr. Anderſon convinced them to the contrary, by thruſting his fingers into a plant full of it. The inhabitants dry the buſhes of euphorbia, and carry them home for fuel.

Santa Cruz, though not large, is a well-built city. The churches have not a magnificent appearance without, but they are decent and tolerably handſome within.

Almoſt facing the ſtone pier, which runs into the ſea from the town, is a marble column, lately erected, enriched with human figures, which reflect honour to the ſtatuary.

Mr. Anderſon, and three others, hired mules to ride to the city of Laguna, about the diſtance of four miles from Santa Cruz. They arrived there between five and ſix in the evening; but the ſight of it did not reward them for their trouble, as the roads were very bad, and their cattle but indifferent. Though the place is extenſive, it hardly deſerves to be dignified with the name of a city. There are ſome good houſes, but the diſpoſition of the ſtreets is very irregular. Laguna is larger than Santa Cruz, but much inferior to it in appearance.

The road from Santa Cruz to Laguna runs up a ſteep, barren hill; but lower down they ſaw ſome fig-trees and corn-fields. The corn, however, is not produced here without great labour, the ground being greatly encumbered with ſtones. Nothing elſe preſented itſelf deſerving notice, except a few aloe plants in flower on the ſide of the road.

The laborious work in this iſland is chiefly performed by mules, horſes being ſcarce, and reſerved for the uſe of the officers. Oxen are alſo much employed here. Some hawks and parrots, were ſeen, which were natives of the iſland; as alſo the ſea-ſwallow, ſea-gulls, partridges, ſwallows, canary-birds, and black-birds. There are alſo lizards, locuſts, and three or four ſorts of dragon flies.

Mr. Anderſon was informed, by a gentleman of acknowledged veracity, that a ſhrub is common here, agreeing exactly with the deſcription given by Linnæus of the tea ſhrub, as growing in China and Japan. It is conſidered as a weed, and large quantities of it are rooted out of the vineyards every year. The Spaniards, however, who inhabit the iſland, ſometimes make uſe of it, and aſcribe to it all the qualities of the tea imported from China.

The ſame gentleman mentioned to Mr. Anderſon another botanical curioſity, which is called the *impregnated lemon*. It is a diſtinct and perfect lemon incloſed within another.

There is alſo a certain grape growing here, which is deemed an excellent remedy in phthiſical complaints.

Smoak continually iſſues from near the top of the Peak; but they have had no earthquake or eruption ſince 1704, when the port of Garrachica was deſtroyed, being filled up with the burning lava that flowed into it; and houſes are now built where ſhips formerly lay at anchor.

The trade of Teneriffe is very conſiderable, 40,000 pipes of wine being annually made there, which is conſumed in the iſland, or made into brandy, and ſent to the Spaniſh Weſt Indies. Indeed, the wine is the only

conſiderable article of the foreign commerce of Teneriffe, unleſs we reckon the large quantities of filtering ſtones brought from Grand Canary.

The race of inhabitants found here when the Spaniards diſcovered the Canaries, are no longer a diſtinct people, having intermarried with Spaniſh ſettlers; their deſcendants, however, may be known from their being remarkably tall, ſtrong, and large boned. The men are tawny, and the women are pale. The inhabitants of Teneriffe, in general, are decent, grave, and civil, retaining that ſolemn caſt which diſtinguiſhes thoſe of their country from others.

The ancient inhabitants of this iſland were called Guanches. The origin of them is not certainly known; but their ſepulchral caves are very remarkable. They had an uncommon veneration for the corpſes of their anceſtors, which were depoſited in caves formed by nature in the rocks. They were preſerved in goat ſkins, bound round by belts of the ſame, ſo exactly and uniformly encloſing the body as to excite admiration, each round being juſt proportioned to the part: and this method preſerved the bodies. The eyes, which are cloſed, the hair, ears, noſe, teeth, lips and beard, are found entire. They are placed on wooden couches, which the natives had the art of rendering ſo hard, that they are impenetrable to iron. Some of the caves contained two or three hundred bodies. We ſhall conclude the account of theſe ſepulchres in the words of a learned gentleman, who reſided ſeveral years on the iſland. "Being one day hunting, a ferret, having a bell about his neck, ran after a coney into a hole, where the ſound of the bell was loſt. The owner being afraid he ſhould loſe his ferret, in ſeeking about the rocks and ſhrubs, found the mouth of a cave, and entering in, was ſo affrighted, that he cried out. His fright aroſe from one of theſe corpſe, very tall and large, lying with the head on a great ſtone, the feet ſupported with a little wall of ſtone, and the body itſelf reſting on a bed of wood. The man being now a little recovered from his fright went nearer, and cut a great piece of the ſkin that lay on the breaſt of the body, which was more flexible and pliant than any kid-leather glove, yet not any ways rotten. Theſe bodies are very light, as if made of ſtraw; and in ſome that were broken might be obſerved the nerves and tendons, as alſo the veins and arteries, like ſtrings, very diſtinctly. By the relation of the moſt ancient among them, there was a particular tribe who had this art only among themſelves, which they kept as a thing ſacred, and not to be communicated to the vulgar. The people of this claſs were likewiſe prieſts, and did not marry out of their own tribe. But when the Spaniards conquered the place, moſt of them were deſtroyed, and the art periſhed with them. Their ancient people ſay that they have above twenty caves of their kings and great perſonages, with their whole families, yet unknown to any but themſelves, and which they will never diſcover."

GRAND CANARIA.

THE Grand Canaria, which communicates its name to the whole group, is about 14 leagues in length, and 34 in circumference. The chief city is called Canaria, or Civitas Palmarum, and has a grand cathedral. For the adminiſtration of civil affairs, there are ſeveral aldermen, who have great authority, and a council-houſe to themſelves. The city itſelf is beautiful, and the inhabitants dreſs in a very gay manner. The ground is of ſuch a hard ſand that the ſtreets are always clean; and the people in general are healthy, as the air is exceeding temperate, conſidering the ſituation is nearly tropical. It is very populous, and its precincts are near a league in compaſs, moſt of the houſes being well built, two ſtories high, and flat rooted. The biſhop's court, with the inquiſitor's tribunal, and the ſovereign's council, are held here. But the biſhop, governor, and principal people, reſide at Teneriffe by choice, and only repair to Canaria upon buſineſs. There are four convents, viz. Dominicans, Franciſcans, Bernardines, and Recollects of Obſervation. There are alſo twelve ſugar houſes, called *ingenio*, in which a great quantity of ſugar is made.

The wine of this iſland is ſingularly delicious; and the fruits are melons, pears, apples, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, figs, peaches, battatoes, or Spaniſh potatoes. The plantano grows near the ſides of brooks.

This fruit in ſhape reſembles a cucumber, and turns black when ripe, at which time it is one of the moſt delicious conſerves in the univerſe. The plantano tree will bear fruit but once, when it is cut down, and another tree ſprings from the ſame root. As this iſland has a ſalubrious air, and is well watered, almoſt everything thrives that is planted, ſuch as wild olives, laurel, poplar, pine, palm, Indian-fig, aloe-ſhrub, &c. Grand Canaria likewiſe abounds in oxen, kine, camels, goats, ſheep, capons, hens, ducks, pigeons, partridges, &c. &c.

This iſland, as well as the other Canaries, abounds in thoſe beautiful ſinging-birds called the Canary-bird. A modern naturaliſt ſays, "This bird was originally peculiar to thoſe iſles to which it owes its name; the ſame that were known to the ancients by the appellation of the *Fortunate*. The happy temperature of the air, the ſpontaneous productions of the ground in the variety of fruits, the ſprightly and chearful diſpoſition of the inhabitants, and the harmony ariſing from the number of birds there, procured them the romantic diſtinction. On the ſame ſpot theſe charming ſongſters are ſtill to be found; but they are now ſo plenty among us, that we are under no neceſſity of croſſing the ocean for them. In its native regions the Canary-bird is of a duſky grey colour, and ſo different from thoſe uſually ſeen in Europe, that doubts have ariſen whether it be of the ſame ſpecies; and it has been obſerved by travellers, that their wild notes in their native land, far excel thoſe in a cage or other clime. Next to the nightingale, the Canary-bird is conſidered as the moſt celebrated ſongſter: it is alſo reared with leſs difficulty than any of the ſoft billed birds, and continues its ſong throughout the year, conſequently it is rather the more common in our houſes."

According to the firſt diſcoveries, the original inhabitants of Canaria amounted to upwards of 14,000 men capable of bearing arms, excluſive of women, children, aged perſons, &c. which muſt have rendered the iſland extremely populace. The natives in general were tall of ſtature, well made, active, chearful, and of dark complexions. They were warlike and hunters, faithful to their promiſes, fond of difficulties, and heedleſs of dangers. They frequently climbed up very ſteep precipices, and by means of long heavy poles, leaped from rock to rock.

Their dreſs was a cloſe ſhort coat, reaching only to the knees, and girded round the middle with a leather belt, the coat itſelf was made ofruſh, which they beat till it became ſoft like flax, and then ſpun and wove it into a garment. The outward covering was a goat-ſkin cloak; the hairy ſide of which they wore inward in the winter, and outward in the ſummer. Their caps were made of the ſkins of goats heads, ſo contrived, that part of the beard hung down by each ear, and was ſometimes tied under the chin.

The external diſtinction of the noble or ſuperior rank of Canarians, from thoſe of the vulgar or lower claſs, was by the cut of their hair or beards.

The Canarians originally uſed only ſtones, clubs, and ſharp pointed poles; but after having been invaded by the Europeans, they learnt of their invaders the art of making ſhields and ſwords. In all their wars, however, they preſerved humanity and decency; for they never moleſted women or children, or did the leaſt damage to the temples or conſecrated places belonging to their enemies. They had in times of peace, amphitheatres for public combats; when a challenge being given in form

form, the challenger and challenged both repaired to the grand council of the iſland, which conſiſted of twelve principal nobles: here they petitioned for permiſſion to fight, which being granted, they went to the faycag, or principal officer, to confirm that permiſſion. This being done, and all things prepared, they went to the amphitheatre, where the exhibition was begun by the two combatants mounting on two large ſtones at ſome diſtance, and pelting each other with ſmaller ſtones, which were ſupplied them for that purpoſe; the principal ſkill conſiſting in avoiding being ſtruck by theſe by the mere dexterity of body. This lapidation being performed, they engaged with a cudgel in the right hand, and a flint ſtone in the left, with which they gave each other a hearty drubbing: then retiring for ſome refreſhment, they afterwards returned, and fought again, till the grand council ordered them to deſiſt. Theſe combats were generally fought on public feſtivals; and the cure, if either of the combatants was wounded, was of a ſingular nature; for a ſkilful perſon, who acted as ſurgeon, pounded aruſh, till it became of the conſiſtency of tow, and then dipping it in goat's tallow, he applied it warm to the place affected. Theſe combats were ſucceeded by ſinging and dancing; their dances being quick, ſprightly, and agil; and their ſongs all of a plaintive nature.

The houſes of the native Canarians were built of ſtone, but not cemented together: they were, however, faſtened with ſuch exactneſs, that their appearance was not uncouth. The floors were ſunk beneath the level of the ground, and the walls were very low. The roofs were formed of wooden beams covered with earth. Beds made of goats ſkins, mats made of ruſhes to ſit upon, and baſkets formed of palm leaves, were the whole of their furniture.

The women, in the proper ſeaſon, gathered flowers, herbs, and ſhrubs, from which they extracted a variety of colours; and when that ſeaſon was over, they employed themſelves in dying, ſtaining, and painting their houſes, furniture, and dreſſes. Their thread was made of nerves or tendons, their needles of bone, their fiſh-hooks of horn, and their domeſtic utenſils of clay dried in the ſun. The making mats, baſkets, thread, needles, fiſh hooks, pottery, &c. were deemed honourable employments; but the trade of a butcher was looked upon as ſo ignominious, on account of the natural abhorrence the people entertained to killing any animal, that none would converſe with a perſon of that profeſſion, or ſuffer him to touch any thing belonging to them. Indeed, thoſe in any of theſe iſlands who eat meat, were looked upon as but little better than cannibals; and the butchers who killed it for them were conſequently held in the utmoſt deteſtation. The common food of the Canarians was barley meal, milk, butter, &c. They ground their barley with a hand-mill and ploughed their ground with a wooden machine, which in ſome meaſure reſembled a hoe, with a ſpur at the end of it. When the land was over dry, they had the method of ſluicing it by the means of channels cut in parallel lines, with others interſecting them at right angles. When ripe, the corn was always reaped, threſhed and winnowed, by the women.

The richer ſort of the people reſided chiefly in the inland parts of the iſland, and the poorer claſs inhabited the ſea coaſt, where they ſubſiſted principally by fiſhing. They had a peculiar method of catching a ſmall, but exquiſite fiſh, of the pilchard kind, which was this: when they perceived a ſhole near the ſhore, a number of perſons ſwam off, ſurrounded the fiſh, and drove them into nets, which were purpoſely laid for their reception. The prize was then divided between all preſent with great equity, but pregnant women had always the allowance of two perſons; and thoſe who had children, beſides their own ſhare, received a ſhare for each child.

Emulation, inſtead of ſeverity, directed the education of their children: and parents, when a daughter was to be married, kept her previouſly thirty days, during which time ſhe was fed with the moſt nouriſhing aliments, in order to fatten her; as they deemed it a bad omen for people to marry when lean.

Among the original Canarians was an order of nuns, who were diſtinguiſhed from the other women by a peculiar ſort of long white garments. They had many ſuperſtitious traditional notions among them; and the places where they reſided were deemed places of refuge for criminals, and had privileges very nearly reſembling European ſanctuaries. In all crimes but thoſe puniſhable by death the laws of retaliation were uſed, and juſtice, in general, impartially adminiſtered.

In times of public danger, or when they looked upon themſelves to be afflicted by any general calamity, the Canarians went in proceſſions to the rocks and mountains, preceded by the religious women, and carrying with them branches of palm, and veſſels filled with milk, which latter they poured upon the rocks as religious oblations, and then danced in mournful meaſures, and ſung melancholy ſongs, to deprecate the wrath of their ſuppoſed deities. When any of the Canarians died, if capital people, they were buried in ſepulchral caves; if of the vulgar claſs, in holes in the ground, which were afterwards covered with ſtones.

PALMA.

THIS iſland, which is ſituated about 50 miles to the weſt of Teneriffe, is about 30 miles long, 20 broad, and 70 in circumference. On the north-eaſt part is a lofty and ſpacious mountain called the Cauldron, from having a hollow in it. The deſcent within the cauldron, which proceeds gradually from the ſummit, contains a ſpace of about 30 acres, and on the declivity of the inſide are ſeveral ſprings that form a ſtream which iſſues out from the extremity of the mountain. Near the ſea ſhore, and the ſouth ſide of the iſland is a medicinal well of hot water, and at a village called Uguar is a cave at the extremity of which is a curious grotto with the roof ſtuck with large flakes of ſlate ſtones, from between which conſtantly iſſues a flow of clear and wholeſome water.

In the winter the air is ſo exceeding ſharp up the mountain, that the inhabitants are obliged to keep fires burning night and day; whereas near the ſea ſide they only have them for cooking and other occaſional purpoſes. In the months of July, Auguſt and September the heat near the ſea ſhore is intolerable, while in the mountainous parts the air is pleaſant and refreſhing.

The natural productions of this iſland, with reſpect to vegetables, poultry and animals, are much the ſame as thoſe of Canaria; except, indeed, among the animals it particularly abounds with rabbits.

This iſland alſo produces great quantities of ſugar and wines, the former of which is made on the weſt ſide of the iſland, and the latter on the eaſt. Their beſt vines grow in a ſoil called the Brenia, where it is ſaid they make at leaſt 12,000 caſks of wine every year. The wines differ in their quality from thoſe made in the other iſlands; but they are very rich, and have an excellent flavour. They have likewiſe great plenty of honey, and moſt kinds of fruit, the latter of which grow in ſuch abundance, that they export great quantities of them to the other iſlands.

Here are gum-dragon and pitch, the latter of which the natives extract from the tree called the pitch pine. Pine-apples are likewiſe very plentiful; and ſome of the trees on which they grow are ſo large as to be uſed for the maſts of ſhips.

Palma, the principal town in this iſland, ſo called after its name, is tolerably large, and well inhabited. The houſes are low, but ſpacious; and in one part of the town is a very handſome church. A conſiderable trade is carried on here in wines, which are exported to various parts, but particularly to the Weſt Indies.

There is another very neat town in this iſland, called St. Andrew's, where there are four engines for making ſugar; but the land hereabouts is very poor, ſo that

the inhabitants are fupplied with grain, and other neceffary articles, from the ifland of Teneriffe.

The chief port is called Palma; and is fituated on the fouth fide of the ifland. The road is about a quarter of a mile from the fhore; and, though it is open to the eafterly winds, the fhips ride with great fafety.

This ifland has heretofore been greatly fubject to earthquakes and volcanos; the effects of which are ftill to be feen in various parts.

FERRO.

THIS ifland is called by the Spaniards Hierro, and by the French L'Ifle de Fer. It is the moft weſterly of all the Canaries; and lies between the 27th and 28th deg. of north latitude, and in 18 deg. weſt longitude. It is about 30 miles long, 15 broad, and 75 in circumference.

Ferro was particularly famous on account of the French navigators placing their firſt meridian in the center of it, as the Dutch did theirs through the Peak of Teneriffe; but at preſent moſt geographers reckon the firſt meridian from the capital of their own country; as the Engliſh from London, the French from Paris, &c.

The ſoil in ſome parts of this ifland is very barren, owing to a ſcarcity of water; but in others it is fertile, and produces all the neceſſary articles for the ſupport of the inhabitants. There are but three ſprings in the whole ifland: ſo that only rain water can be had in the chief parts of it. The ſheep, goats and hogs that are brought up in thoſe parts diſtant from the rivulets feed almoſt all the year round on the roots of fern and aſphodil, and therefore have little occaſion for water; as the great moiſture that is naturally in thoſe roots ſupply the want of that element.

There is only one ſmall town in the whole ifland, and the moſt diſtinguiſhed building in it is a pariſh church. There are many ſmall villages diſperſed about it, but not any one of them merits particular notice.

The trade carried on here conſiſts in ſmall cattle, brandy, honey, and orchilla weed.

GOMERA.

SITUATED to the weſt of Teneriffe, in 28 deg. north lat. and 18 deg. weſt long. is about 30 miles long, 22 broad, and 80 in circumference. It is very plentiful, being watered by many rivulets that flow from the mountainous parts, and give fertility to the valies beneath.

The inhabitants ſeldom import or export any corn, as they cultivate juſt a ſufficiency only for their own conſumption. They have great plenty of all the neceſſaries of life, particularly cattle, poultry, roots, fruit and honey. They have deer alſo in great abundance, and more mules are bred here than in any other of the Canary Iſlands.

Gomera produces likewiſe great quantities of ſugar, fruits and wine; but the latter commodity is much inferior to that made in the other iſlands; and is ſo poor and weak as not to be fit for exportation. It is therefore chiefly conſumed among themſelves.

This ifland has but one ſmall town, which is ſituated near the ſea-ſhore, and is called after its name. The number of houſes is about 150; but they are ſmall, and very mean buildings. Here is a tolerable good church, and a convent of friars; and on one ſide of the town, next the ſhore, is a ſmall fort, on the ſouth ſide of which is an old round tower, and on the north ſide a battery of ſix ſmall cannon.

Oppoſite the town of Gomera is a very commodious bay, where ſhips are well ſecured from all winds, except the ſouth-eaſt; and the bottom of the bay alſo affords excellent anchorage. To the north of this bay is a good cove, where ſhips of any burthen may be conveniently placed for cleanſing and repairing. The ſhore oppoſite to this cove is a high perpendicular cliff, over which there is a narrow path-way that leads to the town; and at a ſmall diſtance before you enter the town there is a large gate, which is ſhut every night after it is dark. The town begins about fifty yards from this gate, and runs in a ſtrait line to the diſtance of about half a mile.

FUERTEVENTURA.

IS about twenty-four leagues diſtant from Grand Canaria. It is about 65 miles in length, and of a very unequal breadth, conſiſting of two peninſulas, joined by an iſthmus of 12 miles over. On the north ſide there is a haven called Chabras, and another, which is very commodious, towards the weſt.

Between this iſland and Lancerota there opens a fine ſound, ſufficiently large to receive a great fleet. Towards the north-eaſt the coaſt is very foul, and the breakers exceeding dangerous.

There are ſeveral ſmall towns, villas and hamlets ſcattered about in different parts of this iſland, but they contain nothing deſerving of notice.

The inhabitants of Fuerteventura formerly had ſome good horſes, of the breed both of Barbary and Spain; but the breed is ſince much degenerated in ſize, as well as dwindled to a ſmall number. The people, indeed, prefer aſſes, as they are more ſerviceable in the hilly parts, and can be kept at a much cheaper rate.

The great ſcarcity of wood, ſhrubs and bushes occaſion a ſcarcity of birds and wild fowl. Canary birds are the only ones found in any numbers. Geeſe and ducks are likewiſe wanting, from the great ſcarcity of water.

In this, as well as the neighbouring iſland of Lancerota, are the remains of many volcanos.

LANCEROTA

LIES in 28 deg. 40 min. north lat. and 13 deg. 5 min. weſt long. and is about 30 miles long and 22 broad. It is about 18 leagues ſouth-eaſt of Grand Canaria, and the whole iſland is parted in the middle by a ridge of rocks, on which feed goats, ſheep and aſſes. Here are likewiſe ſome cattle, camels and goats. The valies are dry and ſandy, reſembling the rye fields in England; but they yield tolerable good barley and wheat: the firſt harveſt being about April, and the ſecond in September. The principal commodities are goats-fleſh and orchel, and the whole is an eſtate or earldom, belonging to the family of Herrera, the head of that family being always lord of Fuerteventura and Lancerota. The people, however, in both iſlands have the liberty of appeal to the king's judges in Grand Canaria. Boats go from hence weekly to Grand Canaria, Teneriffe and Palma, laden chiefly with dried goats-fleſh, which is uſed in the manner of bacon, and is not bad eating.

In 1596 this iſland was attacked and taken by the Engliſh under the command of Leonidas, earl of Cumberland, who, after ranſacking it, departed the iſland.

Lancerota is very high, and may be ſeen at a great diſtance, its appearance being black and barren. The principal port, which lies on the ſouth-eaſt ſide of the iſland, is called Porte de Naos, and the harbour is tolerably ſecure for ſmall veſſels; indeed, it is deemed the beſt belonging to the Canary Iſlands, and is much frequented for its conveniency in repairing and cleanſing ſhips. This port is without any town, or indeed houſes, except ſtore-houſes, magazines, and barracks for ſoldiers. The caſtle at the weſt end of the harbour is of no conſequence, as a ſhip of force might eaſily batter it down. A channel divides Lancerota from the little iſland called Graciosa, which is uninhabited; and this channel is named the harbour of El Rio. Near this harbour is a ſalt-work in Lancerota, which turns to a tolerable account.

Kubicon, or Cavas, is the principal town of this iſland. It

It is about six miles from Porto de Naos, and is what was formerly called Lancerota. At present it contains about 200 indifferent houses.

The inhabitants of this island chiefly use rain water, which is caught in pits and cisterns adapted for that purpose, as they have but few wells or springs. The breed of horses has dwindled and degenerated in this island, as well as in Fuerteventura. Asses are preferred here as they are there, and for the same reasons. The asses, indeed, in both these islands, are used not only for carrying burthens and riding, but for ploughing up the land; so that they are deemed of general utility.

The want of food here occasions a want of birds; and the deficiency of water a deficiency of ducks, geese, &c. The different appearance of the cattle, at the different seasons of the year, is very singular; for during the verdure of the spring they are plump, fat, and sleek; but in autumn, when the grass and herbage are withered by the heat of the sun, they resemble skeletons, have scarce spirits to work, and their flesh is unfit to eat.

Neither Lancerota or Fuerteventura have any venomous creature, except the black spider. This, however, is sufficient to terrify the people, as its sting is extremely painful, and very dangerous.

The seas intersecting and surrounding these islands afford the inhabitants plenty of fish, particularly cod, much finer than what is caught on the banks of Newfoundland; and a very singular fish, called the picudo, or sea pike, the bite of which is as venomous as that of a viper; yet, when dressed, it is pleasant and wholesome food.

Description of the persons, Dress, Food, Dispositions, Manners, Customs, Manufactures, Commerce, &c. of the Inhabitants of the Canary Islands in general.

THE greatest part of the inhabitants of these islands, are small of stature, well made, and have good features. Their complexions are very swarthy, their eyes full of fire, and their countenances expressive. They are fond of calling themselves Spaniards, and speak the Castilian language; the better sort of people with a good grace, but the vulgar very unintelligibly.

The better sort wear, in common, a camblet cloak, of a dark red or black colour; a linen night-cap, bordered with lace; and a broad flouched hat. When they pay visits, a coat, sword, and white peruke, are added; which latter makes a very strange appearance with their dark countenances: and what is still more singular, they keep their great heavy flouched hats upon their heads always in the house; but when they are out of doors they carry it under their arm.

The common people wear their own black bushy hair, and tack some of it behind the right ear. Their principal garment is a white loose coat, made in the manner of a French loose coat, with a friar's cape, and girded about the middle with a sash.

The women wear on their heads a piece of gauze, which falls down the shoulders, is pinned under the chin, and covers the neck and breast. A part of their dress is a broad brimmed flouched hat: but they use this with more propriety than the men; for abroad they wear it upon their heads, and so their faces are shielded from the scorching beams of the sun. Over the shoulders a mantle is thrown, its goodness being in proportion to the condition of the wearer. Jackets are worn instead of stays; but all are very fond of a great number of petticoats. The principal ladies of Canaria and Teneriffe dress after the fashions of France and England, and pay visits in chariots: but none walk the streets without being veiled; though some are so careless in the use of their veils, that they take care to let their faces and necks be seen. Some ladies have their hair curiously plaited, and fastened to the crown of the head with a gold comb. Their mantles are very rich; and they wear a profusion of jewels: but the clumsiness of dress, and awkwardness of gait, observable in both sexes, render their appearance rather ridiculous to strangers.

The lower class of people are afflicted with many noxious disorders, and are naturally very filthy. The gentry, however, affect great delicacy. Both sexes go every morning to hear mass; and most go before they take any refreshment. Their breakfast is usually chocolate. They dine at noon, and shut up the doors till three o'clock. People in good circumstances have four courses brought to table: the first is soup, the second roast meat, the third olio, and the fourth the desert. While drinking, their toasts are much like ours; but they cease drinking as soon as the cloth is removed. After dinner all the company wash their hands in one large utensil, and then go to sleep for about an hour. In winter evenings they regale with chocolate and sweetmeats; but in summer fine spring water is substituted instead of chocolate.

The people in general sleep on mattresses, spread on mats, and placed upon the floor. The sheets, pillows, quilt, &c. are fringed or pinked; but no curtains are used, as they deem them the harbours for fleas and bugs. The women sit upon cushions, on a raised part of the floor, either when they receive, or when they pay visits. The children are instructed in convents, and usually make a rapid progress; for it must be confessed that the people have a quick genius, particularly for poetry. The common amusements are singing, dancing, playing on the guitar, cards, wrestling, quoits, throwing at ball through a ring at a distance, &c. They take an airing on horseback, but generally travel with asses.

Each of the Canary Islands, as well as each town and family, has its peculiar titular saint; and the festivals of these saints are kept with great solemnity.

The people in general hold the employment of a butcher, taylor, miller, and porter, in the utmost contempt; and the officers of justice have a right to seize upon a person of any of these employments, when a criminal is put to death, and make him perform the office of executioner. For their hatred to these four employments they give the following reasons; that a butcher is barbarous, a taylor is effeminate, a miller is a thief, and a porter is a human beast of burthen.

The gentry in general, though proud, are polite; the lower class of people, though poor, are mannerly; and even beggars ask charity with a good grace, and, if refused, never behave with impertinence.

Private pilfering is very common here, but highway or street robberies are seldom or ever known. The only consequence of robbery, however, is a sound drubbing, or a short imprisonment. Duels are never heard of, but private murders are common, which evinces that the people have more malice than courage.

The inhabitants of the Canary Islands are, in general, temperate; or at least if they are otherwise, it is in private only; for nothing can be a greater stain there than to be seen drunk; and a man who can be proved a drunkard is not admitted to take his oath in any court of judicature. Hence those who are fond of liquor intoxicate themselves in their chambers, and then lie down in order to sleep themselves sober.

If a man falls in love with a young woman, and her parents refuse to consent to the union, she has liberty to complain to the curate of the parish, who takes her away, and places her in a convent, where she must remain till they consent to her marriage.

The natives of Fuerteventura and Lancerota differ in several particulars from those of the other islands; for they are tall, strong, robust, and of a very dark complexion; and the other Canarians deem them rude and unpolished with respect to themselves. They speak a barbarous kind of the Castilian, and dress like mean Spanish peasants. Their houses are built of stone and lime, covered with pantiles for the better sort of people, but only thatched for the meaner; and the floors are paved with flag stones. Their diet is as mean as their habitations. They hate improvements, because they

they deem them innovations; and have ſo little curioſity, that none will viſit Spain, if they can help it; and very few the other Canary Iſlands, unleſs obliged ſo to do by buſineſs.

The principal manufactures of all theſe iſlands are ſilk hoſe and garters, which are knit; quilts, taffeties, blankets, coarſe cloths, &c. In the large towns men are weavers and taylors; but in the villages women only; and the exportation of raw ſilk is prohibited, in order to encourage the manufactories.

The commerce of the Canaries may be conſidered under five heads, viz. the domeſtic trade with each other, and from iſland to iſland; the trade to Europe, the Spaniſh Weſt Indies, America, and the coaſt of Barbary.

The center of trade is Teneriffe. The principal commerce is carried on in foreign bottoms. The various imports are woollen goods, hardware, hats, red herrings, pilchards, wheat, &c. from Great Britain; butter, candles, pickled pork, pickled herrings, &c. from Ireland; gunpowder, cordage, coarſe flax, &c. from Holland and Hamburgh; bar iron from Biſcay; dried cod, rice, beef, pork, hams, bees-wax, deal boards, ſtaves, wheat, flour, maize, &c. from the American colonies; and ſilks, velvets, oils, cordage, &c. from Barcelona, Seville, Majorca, Italy, and Cadiz. In return for theſe they export their various commodities and manufactures to the ſeveral countries from which they receive their imports.

SECTION II.

THE MATTERA OR MADEIRA ISLANDS.

IT is the general opinion of writers that theſe iſlands were known to the ancients, but lay concealed for many generations. They differ with reſpect to their diſcovery; ſome attributing it to the Portugueſe in 1519, others to an Engliſhman in 1344. However that may be, the Portugueſe took poſſeſſion of them, and ſtill form the principal part of the inhabitants.

Theſe iſlands are ſituated in 32 deg. 27 min. north lat. and from 18 deg. 30 min. to 19 deg. 30 min. weſt longitude.

The largeſt of theſe iſlands, from which the reſt derive the general name of Madeira, or rather Mattera, (a Portugueſe word, ſignifying a wood or foreſt, from its being over-run with trees,) is about 75 miles in length, and upwards of 36, in ſome places, in breadth. It is compoſed of one continued hill, of a conſiderable height, extending from eaſt to weſt, the declivity of which, on the ſouth ſide, is cultivated, and interſperſed with vineyards; and in the midſt of this ſlope the merchants have fixed their country ſeats, which form a very agreeable proſpect. The firſt ſettlers, to clear the lands, ſet fire to the woods.

Fine ſprings abound here in almoſt every part; and, from the grapes which the vines produce, is made a vaſt quantity of the moſt delicious wines.

Our celebrated countryman *Captain Cook*, to whom we recur with pleaſure upon every poſſible occaſion, in the account of his firſt voyage, writes concerning this iſland to the following import.

"This iſland has a beautiful appearance from the ſea, thoſe parts of hills which preſent themſelves being covered with vines.

"The inhabitants of Madeira have no article of trade but wine, which is made by preſſing the juice out in a ſquare wooden veſſel. The perſons employed having taken off their ſhoes and jackets, get into it, and, with their elbows and feet, preſs out as much of the juice as they can. In like manner the ſtalks, being tied together, are preſſed under a ſquare piece of wood, by a lever, with a ſtone faſtened to the end of it.

"There are no wheel carriages of any ſort, nor have the people any thing that reſembles them, except a hollow board or ſledge, upon which thoſe wine veſſels are drawn that are too big to be carried by hand. They have alſo horſes and mules, very proper for their roads; but their wine is, notwithſtanding, brought to town from the vineyards where it is made in veſſels of goat-ſkins, which are carried by men on their heads.

"Nature has been very liberal in her gifts to Madeira. The inhabitants are not without ingenuity, but they want induſtry. The ſoil is ſo very rich, and there is ſuch a variety in the climate, that there is ſcarcely any article, either of the neceſſaries or luxuries of life, which cannot be cultivated in the iſland. Pine-apples and mangoes grow almoſt ſpontaneouſly in the town, and great variety of fruit upon the hills. Corn is alſo very large and plenty.

"The beef, mutton, and pork, are remarkably good. Foncho, which is fennel in Portugueſe, gave name to the town of Fonchial. It is ſeated at the bottom of a bay, indifferently built: the ſtreets are narrow, and very wretchedly paved. In the churches there are great numbers of ornaments, with pictures and images of ſaints, which, for the moſt part, are poorly executed. A better taſte prevails in ſome of the convents, particularly that of the Franciſcans, where ſimplicity and neatneſs unite. The infirmary does honour to the architect, and is the moſt capital edifice in the whole place. There are many very high hills: Pico Ruivo is near 5100 feet in height, perpendicularly from its baſe. The inhabitants are computed to be between 70 and 80,000; and the revenue ariſing from the cuſtoms is ſuppoſed to amount to 20 or 30,000l. ſterling per annum. They abound in water, wine, fruit, and onions. Sweetmeats of various ſorts are alſo to be had; but permiſſion muſt be obtained from the governor for poultry and freſh meat."

Captain Cook ſays, there is great reaſon to ſuppoſe that this whole iſland was, at ſome remote period, thrown up by the exploſion of ſubterraneous fire, as every ſtone ſeen upon it appeared to have been burnt, and even the ſand itſelf to be nothing more than aſhes.

The people here trade among themſelves by barter. The ordinary food of the poorer people, in the time of vintage, is little elſe than bread and rich grapes. Were it not for this abſtemiouſneſs, the danger of fevers in the hot ſeaſons would be rarely avoided: therefore, even the rich in the hot months are very ſpare in their diet, and drink but moderately.

The people in general affect great gravity in their deportment, and uſually go clad in black; but they cannot part from the ſpado and dagger, which even ſervants wear; ſo that you may ſee a footman waiting at table with a ſword by his ſide, at leaſt a yard long, and a great baſket hilt to it.

The houſes in general are plain, as the inhabitants put themſelves to no great expence either in erecting or furniſhing them. The windows are latticed inſtead of being glazed, and are ſecured by wooden ſhutters at night.

In marriages affection is never once thought of here; the principal enquiries are into family, deſcent, and circumſtances. The women are prohibited from marrying Engliſhmen, unleſs they conſent to change their religion, and turn Roman Catholics.

Murder is very frequent here, on account of the great number of places deemed ſanctuaries, and the eaſe with which a murderer can thereby ſcreen himſelf from juſtice. But if the criminal perſon is taken before he can fly to a ſanctuary, the puniſhment is only either baniſhment or confinement, both which may be evaded by a pecuniary compoſition.

The clergy here are exceeding numerous, and generally rich; but none who are deſcended from Moors or Jews are admitted to take orders. The churches are made repoſitories for the dead. The corpſe is curiouſly dreſſed and adorned; yet, in the interment, ſtore of lime is uſed, in order to conſume the body with all imaginable diſpatch, which uſually happens in a fortnight; ſo that there is then room for another corpſe. The bodies of Proteſtants are not allowed to be buried, but muſt be thrown into the ſea, unleſs a large ſum of money

money is paid to the clergy, when they are permitted to be interred in conſecrated ground.

The iſland called Porto Santo, which is only eight miles in circumference, lies at a ſmall diſtance from Madeira properly ſo called, and is under the ſame juriſdiction. It is very fertile, and abounds in excellent honey and wax.

There is another iſland, but it is ſcarce worth notice, being not only of very ſmall extent, but likewiſe entirely barren; for which the Portugueſe have given it the expreſſive appellation of the Deſolate or Deſert Iſle.

To our general account of the Madeira Iſlands, we are induced to ſubjoin, a minute and circumſtantial narrative of the manner in which they were diſcovered, as we preſume, from the intereſting incidents which attended it, that it cannot fail of conducing to the entertainment of the reader.

In the reign of Edward III. king of England, a young gentleman, named Robert Machin, conceived a violent paſſion for Ann D'Arfet, a beautiful and accompliſhed lady of a noble family. Machin, with reſpect to birth and fortune, was inferior to the lady; but his perſonal qualifications overcame every ſcruple on that account, and ſhe rewarded his ardour with a reciprocal affection. Her friends, however, did not behold the young gentleman through the medium of paſſion: they fancied their blood would be contaminated by an alliance with one of a lower rank, and therefore determined to ſacrifice the happineſs of the young lady to the hereditary pride of blood, and the mercenary motives of intereſt. Fraught with theſe ideas, a warrant was procured from the king, under the ſanction of which Machin was apprehended, and kept in cloſe confinement, till the object of his affections was married to a nobleman, whoſe chief merit lay in his honorary title and large poſſeſſions.

Immediately after the nuptial ceremony was over, the peer took his beautiful bride with him to a ſtrong and ſuperb caſtle, which he had in the neighbourhood of Briſtol; and then the unfortunate lover was releaſed from his cruel impriſonment.

Machin, being at liberty, was acquainted that his miſtreſs had been compelled to give her hand to another. This rendered him almoſt frantic, and he vowed to revenge the violence done to the lady, and the injury which he himſelf had ſuſtained.

With this view he imparted his deſign to ſome of his friends and companions, who ſwore to accompany him to Briſtol, and aſſiſt him in whatever enterprize he undertook. One of his comrades contrived to get himſelf hired by the nobleman as a ſervant, and by that means being introduced into the family, he ſoon found an opportunity to let the lady know the ſentiments and intentions of her lover, when ſhe fully entered into all his projects, and promiſed to comply with whatever he ſhould deſire.

To facilitate the deſign, the lady appeared more chearful than uſual, which lulled aſleep every ſuſpicion that her lord might otherwiſe have entertained; and intreated permiſſion to ride out daily to take the air, for the benefit of her health, which requeſt her conſort eaſily granted. This point being gained, ſhe did not fail to make the moſt of it, by riding out every morning, accompanied by one ſervant only which was her lover's companion; he having been previouſly pitched upon, by her contrivance, always to attend her.

All things being prepared, ſhe one day rode out as uſual, when her attendant conducted her to his friend, who waited at the ſea-ſide to receive her. They all three immediately entered a boat, and ſoon reached a ſhip that lay at ſome diſtance ready for their reception.

Machin having the object of his wiſhes on board, immediately, with the aſſiſtance of his aſſociates, ſet ſail, intending to proceed to France; but all on board being ignorant of maritime affairs, and the wind blowing a hard gale, they miſſed their port, and the next morning, to their aſtoniſhment, found themſelves driven into the main ocean. In this miſerable condition they abandoned themſelves to deſpair, and committed their fate to the mercy of the waves. Without a pilot, almoſt deſtitute of proviſions, and quite devoid of hope, they were toſſed about for the ſpace of thirteen days. At length, when the morning of the fourteenth day began to dawn, they fancied they could deſcry ſomething very near them that had the appearance of land; and when the ſun roſe, to their great joy, they could diſtinctly perceive it was ſuch. Their pleaſure, however, was ſome what interrupted by the reflection that it was a ſtrange country; for they plainly perceived it was covered with a variety of trees, with whoſe appearance and nature they were totally unacquainted.

The ſloop being got out, ſome of them landed, in order to make their obſervations on the country, when, returning ſoon after to the ſhip, they ſpoke in raptures of the place; but at the ſame time declared they believed it to be uninhabited.

Machin, with his miſtreſs, and ſome of his friends, then landed, leaving the reſt to take care of the ſhip. The country appeared beautifully diverſified with hills and dales, ſhaded with various trees, and watered by many clear meandring ſtreams. Several kinds of wild beaſts approached without offering any violence to them; and the moſt beautiful birds, of different ſpecies, perched upon their heads, arms, and hands, unapprehenſive of danger.

Penetrating farther through the woody receſſes, they entered a fine meadow, admirably encircled with a border of laurels, finely enamelled with various flowers, and happily watered with a winding chryſtal rivulet. Upon an eminence, in the midſt of this meadow, they ſaw a lofty ſpreading tree, the beauty of which invited them to repoſe under its ſhade, and partake of the ſhelter it would afford them from the piercing rays of the ſun. Beneath this tree they at length determined to make a temporary reſidence, and providing themſelves with boughs from the neighbouring woods, they built ſeveral ſmall huts, or rather arbours. In this place they paſſed their time very agreeably, and made frequent excurſions into the adjacent country, admiring its ſtrange productions, and various beauties. Their happineſs, however, was of no very long continuance; for one night a terrible ſtorm aroſe from the north-eaſt, which blew the ſhip from her anchor, and drove her to ſea. The crew were obliged to ſubmit to the mercy of the elements, when they were driven to the coaſt of Morocco, and the ſhip being ſtranded, all the crew were carried into captivity.

The next morning, when Machin and his companions miſſed the ſhip, they concluded ſhe had foundered, and gone to the bottom. This new calamity plunged them into the deepeſt melancholy, and proved, in particular, ſo affecting to the lady, that ſhe ſunk under it. She had, indeed, before continually fed her grief, by ſad preſages of the enterpriſe ending in ſome fatal cataſtrophe to all concerned; but the ſhock of the late diſaſter ſtruck her dumb, ſo that ſhe expired in three days afterwards in the moſt bitter agonies. Machin was ſo affected by her death, that he ſurvived her but five days, notwithſtanding all that his companions could do to afford him conſolation. Previous to his death he begged them to place his body in the ſame grave with hers, which they had made at the foot of an altar, erected under the beautiful lofty tree before-mentioned. They afterwards erected a large wooden croſs upon it; and near that an inſcription, drawn up by Machin himſelf, containing a ſuccinct account of the whole adventure; and concluding with a requeſt, that if any chriſtians ſhould come there to ſettle, they would build a church upon the ſpot, and dedicate it to Jeſus Chriſt.

After the death of Machin, his remaining companions determined to attempt returning to England in the ſloop, which had been ſo well ſecured near the ſhore, as not to be in the leaſt damaged by the ſtorm which had driven away the ſhip; but happening to take the ſame courſe the others had been forced upon, they unluckily

for

for themſelves, arrived in like manner upon ſome part of the coaſt of Morocco, met with exactly the ſame fate, were ſeized in a ſimilar manner, and carried to the ſame priſon. In the place of their confinement, beſides their own companions, they met with ſeveral other Chriſtian ſlaves, particularly one John de Morales, a Spaniard of Seville. This man was an excellent ſailor, and took a peculiar delight in hearing the Engliſh captives recount their adventures, by which means he learned, and retained in his memory, the ſituation and peculiar marks of this new diſcovered country,

In order to connect the above narrative of the firſt diſcovery of the Madeiras with what is termed the ſecond diſcovery, but which, to ſpeak with greater preciſion, is the completion of the firſt, it will be neceſſary to look back a little into the leading incidents which brought about the latter.

John I. king of Portugal, having entered into a war with the Moors, paſſed over into Africa with a formidable army, A. D. 1415, and laid ſiege to and took Ceuta. In this expedition he was accompanied by his ſons, one of whom, Prince Henry, took great delight in the ſtudy of the mathematical ſcience, particularly geography and navigation.

Upon this occaſion he had great opportunity of converſing with the Moors and African Jews; and informing himſelf, by their means, of the ſituation of ſeveral foreign countries, of their coaſts, the ſeas about them, &c. he conceived an inſatiable thirſt for making new conqueſts and from this time determined to devote his attention to the diſcovery of unknown countries.

In conſequence of this reſolution, after the reduction of Ceuta, he retired to the Algarves, where, within a league of Cape St. Vincent, he founded a new town, built a fort to defend it, and determined from thence to ſend out ſhips upon diſcoveries. The perſon he intended to employ upon theſe occaſions, as chief-commander, was a gentleman of extraordinary abilities, named Juan Gonſalvo Zarco, who became famous, not only for his maritime diſcoveries, but for being the firſt perſon who introduced the uſe of artillery on board ſhips. In 1418 he diſcovered Puerto Santo, one of the Madeiras; and, in 1420, he paſſed the ſtraits, and ſurveyed a conſiderable extent of the coaſt of Africa. In the interim a Spaniſh prince dying, left, by his will, a large ſum of money for the purpoſe of redeeming Spaniſh Chriſtians who were kept as ſlaves in Morocco. Terms being agreed upon between the emperor of Morocco and the commiſſioners for the redemption of thoſe captives, a Spaniſh ſhip was ſent to Morocco to fetch home the redeemed Chriſtians, among whom was the before mentioned John de Morales. This ſhip, on its return to Spain, happened to fall in with the ſquadron commanded by Juan Gonſalvo Zarco, who was then paſſing the ſtraits to make obſervations on the coaſt of Africa, as we before noticed.

Spain and Portugal being at that time at war, Juan Gonſalvo Zarco made a prize of the Spaniſh ſhip; but finding it contained only redeemed captives, he was touched with compaſſion at the miſeries they had already ſuffered during their ſlavery, and generouſly diſmiſſed them, taking out only John de Morales, whom he found to be not only an able ſailor, and an expert pilot, but a very intelligent perſon.

Morales being acquainted with the reaſon of his detention, and the diſcoveries that the Portugueſe were upon, inſtead of being grieved, was mightily rejoiced, and offered voluntarily to enter into the ſervice of Prince Henry. He then told Juan Gonſalvo of the iſland which the Engliſh had newly diſcovered, recounted the ſtory of the two unfortunate lovers, and related every thing which he had heard from Machin's companions while in ſlavery.

Juan Gonſalvo was ſo mightily pleaſed at this relation, that he tacked about, and returned to the new town which Prince Henry had built, and which was called Terca Nabal. On his arrival he introduced Morales to the prince, when the Spaniard again recounted all he had before told to Juan Gonſalvo. The prince thought this worthy of becoming a national affair, and therefore communicating the whole to the king his father, and the Portugueſe miniſtry, they determined to purſue this diſcovery, and for that purpoſe fitted out a good ſhip, well manned and provided, and a ſloop to go with oars, when occaſion required, and the command of the whole was given to Juan Gonſalvo.

On diſcovering Puerto Santo, a ſhort time before Juan Gonſalvo had left ſome Portugueſe on that iſland; and judging by Morales's account of the ſituation of the iſland they were in queſt of, that it could not be far from Puerto Santo, he determined to ſail thither.

On his arrival at that iſland, the Portugueſe, whom he had left behind, informed him, that they had obſerved to the north-eaſt a thick impenetrable darkneſs, which conſtantly hung upon the ſea, and extended itſelf upward to the heavens; that they never knew it to be diminiſhed, but often heard from thence a ſtrange kind of noiſe, which they could not account for.

Morales ſeemed to be convinced that this was the iſland they were in ſearch of, and Juan Gonſalvo was inclined to adopt his opinion; but all the reſt were terrified at the accounts they had heard. It was therefore concluded to remain at Puerto Santo till the change of the moon, to ſee what effect that would have upon the ſhade, or whether the noiſe would ceaſe; but perceiving no alteration of any kind, the panic increaſed among the generality of the adventurers. Morales, however, ſtood firm to his opinion of that being the land they were looking for, and very ſenſibly obſerved, that according to the accounts he had received from the Engliſh, the ground was covered over with lofty ſhady trees, and that it was no wonder, therefore, that it ſhould be exceeding damp, and the humid vapours might exhale from it by the power of the ſun, which ſpreading themſelves to the ſky, occaſioned the dark cloud they ſaw; and that with reſpect to the noiſe, it might be occaſioned by certain currents daſhing againſt the rocks on its coaſt.

Juan Gonſalvo, however, determined to proceed; and ſetting ſail the next day, he at length made land; and the fear of thoſe who had been all along terrified now vaniſhed. The firſt point they ſaw they named St. Lawrence's Point. Doubling this they found the land to the ſouthward, where Morales and others preſent in a ſloop to reconnoitre the coaſt, and canſeen by which ſeemed to anſwer the deſcription given by the Engliſh. Here they landed; and finding the cro and inſcription over the grave of the two lovers, they returned to Juan Gonſalvo, with an account of their ſucceſs. Juan Gonſalvo immediately landed, and took poſſeſſion of the place, in the name of John I. king of Portugal, and Prince Henry, his ſon. Having built an altar near the grave of the lovers, they ſearched about the iſland, in order to diſcover if it contained any cattle, but not finding any, they coaſted weſtward, till they came to a place where four fine rivers ran into the ſea, of the waters of which Juan Gonſalvo filled ſome bottles, to carry as a preſent to Prince Henry. Proceeding farther, they came to a fine valley, which was interſected by a beautiful river, and after that to a pleaſant ſpot covered with trees, ſome of which being felled down, Juan Gonſalvo ordered a croſs to be erected of the timber, and called the place Sancta Cruz.

They now began to look out for a place proper to fix their reſidence in while they ſtaid, and at length found a fine track of land, not ſo woody as the reſt of the country, but covered over with fennel, which, in the Portugueſe language, is called Funcho; from whence the town of Funchal, afterwards built on the ſpot, took its name.

After having viewed other parts of the iſland, and daily had occaſion for new admiration of the beauties continually diſcovered, Juan Gonſalvo returned to Portugal, and arrived at Lisbon the latter end of Auguſt,

in the year 1420, without having loſt a ſingle man in the whole enterprize.

A day of audience being appointed for Juan Gonſalvo to make a report of his voyage, the king gave the name of Madeira to the new diſcovered iſland, on account of the very great quantity of excellent wood found upon it. An order was ſoon after made for Juan Gonſalvo to return to Madeira in the ſpring enſuing, with the title of captain governor of Madeira, to which title the heir of his family at preſent adds that of count.

Juan Gonſalvo ſet ſail on his ſecond voyage in the month of May, A. D. 1421, taking with him the greateſt part of his family; and arriving at Madeira, he caſt anchor in the Road till then called the Engliſh Port; but Juan Gonſalvo, in honour of the firſt diſcoverer, then called it Puerto de Machino, from which name it was corrupted to Machico; which it bears to this day.

Juan Gonſalvo then ordered the large ſpreading beautiful tree before-mentioned, under whoſe branches Machin and his companions had taken up their reſidence to be cut down, and a ſmall church to be built with the timber; which, in conformity to Machin's requeſt, he dedicated to Jeſus Chriſt, and interſected the pavement of the choir with the bones of the two unfortunate lovers.

He then laid the foundation of the town of Funchal, which ſoon grew famous; and his wife Conſtantia, who was with him, dedicated the altar of the new wooden church to St. Catherine.

On the death of John I. king of Portugal, his eldeſt ſon and ſucceſſor, Duarte, in conſideration of the great ſums of money expended in peopling this iſland by prince Henry, his brother, gave him the revenues of it for life. He likewiſe gave the ſpiritualities of it to the order of Chriſt, which endowment was afterwards confirmed by Alonſo the Fifteenth.

SECTION III.

CAPE DE VERD ISLANDS.

THESE iſlands owe their appellation to Cape Verd on the African coaſt, oppoſite to which they lie at the diſtance of 300 miles, between 14 and 19 deg. north lat. and 19 and 36 deg. weſt long. They were diſcovered by the Portugueſe in 1460. They are in number about twenty, of which the following are the principal, viz.

May, or Mayo	St. John, or San Juan.
Santiago, or St. James's	St. Nicholas
Sal, or Salt	St. Vincent
Bona Vella, or Good Sight	St. Anthony
St. Philip's, otherwiſe called Fuego, or Iſle of Fire	St. Lucia
	Brava.

The climate of theſe iſlands is exceeding hot, and in ſome of them unwholeſome. The ſoil differs with the climate; for though ſeveral of them are very ſtony and barren, yet the principal part are fertile, and produce various ſorts of grain and fruits, particularly rice, maize, or Indian wheat, bananas, lemons, oranges, citrons, pomegranates, cocoa-nuts, figs and melons. They have alſo calavances, a ſort of pulſe like French beans, and great quantities of pumpkins, which form the common food of the inhabitants.

Theſe iſlands produce two other kinds of fruit of a remarkable nature, viz. the cuſtard apple and the papah. The former of theſe is as large as a pomegranate, and much of the ſame colour. The outſide huſk, ſhell or rind, is in ſubſtance and thickneſs between the ſhell of a pomegranate and the peal of a Seville orange, ſofter than the former, yet more brittle than the latter. The coat, or rind, is alſo remarkable for being covered with ſmall regular knobs or riſings; and the inſide of the fruit is full of a white ſoft pulp, which in its form, colour, and taſte, greatly reſembles a cuſtard, from whence it received its name, which was probably firſt given it by the Europeans. It has in the middle a few ſmall black ſtones, but no core, for the whole of it is entire pulp. The tree that bears this fruit is about the ſize of a quince-tree, and has long ſlender branches that ſpread a conſiderable way from the trunk. The fruit grows at the extremity of theſe branches, upon a ſtalk about nine or ten inches long. It is to be obſerved, that only ſome of theſe branches bear fruit, for though theſe trees are large, yet in general each tree does not produce above 20 or 30 apples.

The papah is a fruit about the ſize of a muſk-melon and reſembles it in ſhape and colour both within and without: only in the middle, inſtead of flat kernels, which the melons have, theſe have a quantity of ſmall blackiſh ſeeds, about the ſize of pepper-corns, the taſte of which is much the ſame as that ſpice. The fruit itſelf, when ripe, is ſweet, ſoft and luſcious.

The Cape de Verd Iſlands alſo abound with ſeveral ſorts of poultry, particularly curlews, Guinea hens and flamingos, the latter of which are very numerous. The flamingo is a large bird, much like a heron in ſhape, but bigger and of a reddiſh colour. They go in flocks, but are ſo ſhy that it is very difficult to catch them. They build their nells in ſhallow ponds, where there is much mud, which they ſcrape together, making little hillocks like ſmall iſlands, that appear about a foot and a half above the ſurface of the water. They make the foundations of theſe hillocks broad, bringing them up taper to the top, where they leave a ſmall hollow pit to lay their eggs in. They never lay more than two eggs and ſeldom leſs. The young ones cannot fly till they are almoſt full grown; but they run with prodigious ſwiftneſs. Their fleſh is lean and of a dingy colour, but it neither taſtes fiſhy, or any way unpleaſant. Their tongues are broad and long, having a large lump of fat at the root which is delicious in its taſte, and ſo greatly admired that a diſh of them will produce a conſiderable ſum of money.

They have alſo ſeveral other ſorts of fowls, as pigeons, turtle-doves, &c.

There are many wild animals in theſe iſlands, particularly lions, tigers, and camels, the latter of which are remarkably large. There are alſo great numbers of monkies, baboons, and civit cats, and moſt of the iſlands abound with various reptiles. The tame animals are hoſes, aſſes, ſheep, mules, cows, goats and hogs; and here the European ſhips bound for the Eaſt Indies uſually ſtop to take in freſh water and proviſions, with which they are ſupplied in great abundance.

The ſea is plentifully ſtocked with fiſh of various ſorts; and there is ſuch plenty of turtle here, that ſeveral foreign ſhips come yearly to catch them. In the weſt ſeaſon the turtles go aſhore to lay their eggs in the ſand, which they leave to be hatched by the heat of the ſun. The inhabitants go out in the night, and catch the turtles by turning them on their backs with gaffs: for they are ſo large that they cannot do it with their hands. The fleſh of the turtles, well cured, is a great ſupply to the American plantations as cod-fiſh is to Europe.

The Europeans ſettled in theſe iſlands profeſs the Roman Catholic religion. The natives are all negroes, and being ſubject to the Portugueſe, have their religion and language. Both men and women are ſtout, luſty, and well limbed, and they are in general of a civil and quiet diſpoſition. Their dreſs, particularly thoſe of the iſland of St. John is very trifling, conſiſting only of a piece of cotton cloth wound round the waiſt. The women ſometimes throw it over their heads, and the men across the ſhoulders. Neither ſex wear ſhoes or ſtockings, except on certain feſtivals. The men are particularly fond of wearing breeches, if they can get them; and are very happy, be they ever ſo ragged, ſo that they have but a waiſtband and a flap before.

Having thus taken notice of the general matters relative to the iſlands, we ſhall now deſcribe the reſpective particulars belonging to each, beginning with

MAY, OR MAYO

IS ſituated in 15 deg. north latitude, and 22 deg. weſt longitude. It is about ſeven leagues in circumference, of a roundiſh form, and has ſeveral ſmall rocky points that ſhoot out from it into the ſea. On the iſland are two hills of a conſiderable height, one of which is flat at the top; but the other terminates with a point, and is very dangerous to aſcend. The reſt of the iſland is for the moſt part level, and a tolerable height from the ſea. The ſoil is in general very dry and barren, owing to the want of water. There is but one ſmall ſpring in the whole iſland, which is ſituated about the center of it, and from whence proceeds a ſtream of water that runs through a valley between the hills.

There are but few trees here, and thoſe chiefly within the iſland. Near the ſea are ſome ſhrubs, which produce a ſort of ſilky cotton: they are about four feet high; and the cotton grows in pods as large as an appie, but of a long ſhape, which, when ripe, open at one end, parting leiſurely into four quarters. This cotton is of very little value, and is therefore uſed only for the ſtuffing of pillows, or other purpoſes equally trifling. Near the ſhore are alſo ſome buſhes of the right cotton ſhrub; but the greateſt quantity of them are planted in the middle of the iſland, and are carefully attended to by the inhabitants, cotton cloth being their chief manufacture.

This iſland abounds in ſalt, for which the Engliſh trade with the inhabitants. The ſalt is made by the heat of the ſun from the ſea water, which, at ſpring tides, is received into a ſort of a pan formed by a ſand bank, which runs along the coaſt for two or three miles. The ſalt coſts only a ſmall gratuity for raking it together, wheeling it out of the pond, and carrying it on aſſes to the boats. The Negro governor, however who is deputed by the Portugueſe governor, expect a ſmall preſent from every commander that loads with that commodity.

St. JAGO, OR St. JAMES's ISLAND

IS one of the beſt inhabited of all the Cape de Verd Iſlands. The capital town, called after its name, is ſituated in 15 deg. north latitude. It ſtands againſt the ſides of two mountains, between which there is a deep valley 200 yards wide, that runs within a quarter of a mile of the ſea. In that part of the valley next the ſea is a ſtraggling ſtreet, with houſes on each ſide, and a rivulet of water in the bottom, which empties itſelf into a fine ſmall cove or ſandy bay, where the ſea is generally very ſmooth, ſo that ſhips ride there with great ſafety. Near the landing-place from this bay is a ſmall fort, where a guard is conſtantly kept; and near it is a battery mounted with a few ſmall cannon. The town contains about 300 houſes, all built of rough ſtone; and it has one ſmall church and a convent.

The inhabitants are, in general, very poor, having but little trade. Their chief manufacture is ſtriped cotton cloth, which the Portugueſe ſhips purchaſe of them in their way to Brazil, in return for which they ſupply them with ſeveral European commodities.

Captain Cook viſited this iſland on his ſecond voyage, in the account of which he ſays, "Port Praya [where they anchored] is a ſmall bay, ſituated about the middle of the ſouth-ſide of the Iſland of St. Jago. The water is tolerable, but ſcarce, and bad getting off, on account of a great ſurf on the beach. The refreſhments to be got here are bullocks, hogs, goats, ſheep, poultry, and fruits. The goats are of the antelope kind, ſo extraordinarily lean, that ſcarcely any thing can equal them; and the bullocks, hogs, and ſheep, are not much better. Bullocks muſt be purchaſed with money; the price is 12 Spaniſh dollars a head, weighing between 250 and 300 pounds. Other articles may be got from the natives in exchange for old cloaths, &c. The ſale of bullocks is confined to a company of merchants, to whom this privilege is granted, and who keep an agent reſiding on the ſpot."

The town of Praya is but ſmall, and does not contain any remarkable building except a fort, ſituated on the top of a hill, which commands the harbour.

The natives of this town and St. Jago are, in general, black, or at leaſt of a mixed colour, except ſome few of the better ſort that reſide in the latter, among whom are the governor, the biſhop, and ſome of the padres or prieſts.

The people in general are naturally of a theeviſh diſpoſition, ſo that ſtrangers, when they deal with them, ſhould be very careful, for if they ſee an opportunity they will ſteal their goods and run away. Thoſe of St. Jago town, living under the governor's eye, are more orderly, though generally very poor, having but little trade.

SAL, OR SALT ISLAND,

RECEIVED its name from the great quantity of ſalt naturally produced here from ſea-water. It is the windermoſt of all the Cape de Verd Iſlands, and lies in 17 deg. north latitude, and 5 deg. 18 min. weſt longitude, from the Cape. It is moſtly low land, having only five hills, and ſtretches, from north to ſouth, about eight or nine leagues, but its breadth does not exceed one league and a half.

This iſland is barren, and almoſt uninhabited, there being only a few people that live in wretched huts on the ſea-ſide whoſe buſineſs is to gather the ſalt for the ſhips that occaſionally call here for that article. It was formerly well ſtocked with goats, cows, and hogs, but now there are only a few of the former, which is the principal food of its miſerable inhabitants.

Captain Roberts, who landed in this iſland, relates the following ſtory, which, he ſays, he was told by one of the blacks that then reſided here. "About the year 1705, (ſays he,) not long before I went aſhore, the iſland was entirely deſerted, for want of rain, by the inhabitants, except one old man that reſolved to die on it, which he did the ſame year. The drought had been ſo extreme for ſome time, that moſt of the cows and goats died for want of ſuſtenance; but rain falling, they increaſed a pace till about three years afterwards, when they were reduced by an odd accident. A French ſhip coming to fiſh for turtle, by ſtreſs of weather, or ſome other means, left 30 blacks behind her, which ſhe had brought from St. Antonio to carry on the fiſhery. Theſe people, finding nothing elſe, fed moſtly on wild goats, till they had deſtroyed them all but two, one male, and the other female: theſe were then on the iſland, and kept generally upon one mountain. Some time after an Engliſh ſhip, bound for the Iſland of St. Mayo, perceiving the ſmoke of ſeveral fires, ſent her boat on ſhore, thinking they might be ſome ſhip's company wrecked on the iſland, put in there: when they underſtood the ſituation of the people, they commiſerated their caſe, took them all in, and ſet them on their own iſland."

On the ſouth-weſt ſide of the iſland is a ſmall port, near which there is a trifling iſland, with a ſandy bank, in a kind of bay: and a little farther to the ſouthward is a ſafe road for ſhips.

On the ſhore of this iſland are found great quantities of turtle, ſome of which are exceeding large. There is alſo abundance of land crabs; and the ſea alſo abounds with various kinds of fiſh.

BONA VISTA, OR GOOD SIGHT

IS ſituated in 16 deg. 10 min. north lat. and 23 deg. 14 min. weſt long. from the Cape, and ſo called on account of its being the firſt of theſe iſlands that the Portugueſe diſcovered. Its length is not accurately known

known, but it is fuppofed to be about 60 miles in circumference. On the north coaft of this iſland is a ledge of white rocks, and the eaſtern coaſt is bounded by ſandy downs; but, within land, the country is in general very mountainous. On the ſouth-weſt ſide of it is a good road and harbour, where ſhips may anchor in 5 to 16 fathom water, on a ſandy bottom.

This iſland produces great quantities of indigo, and more cotton than all the Cape de Verd Iſlands beſides; yet it is a difficult matter to get a ſupply of it: for the men are ſo indolent that they will not gather the cotton till a ſhip is arrived to purchaſe it: nor will the women ſpin it till abſolute neceſſity obliges them.

The natives of this iſland are particularly fond of the Engliſh, whom they greatly endeavour to imitate; and the men generally dreſs after the European faſhion. When opportunity offers they buy clothes of the Engliſh, and theſe they greatly prefer to their own, though made as near as poſſible after the ſame faſhion.

St. PHILIP, otherwiſe called FUEGO, or the ISLE of FIRE.

IS remarkable for a volcano, which continually emits ſulphurous exhalations, and ſometimes the eruptions are ſo violent that the adjacent parts are, in a manner, covered with pumice ſtones.

The wind blows very ſtrong round this iſland, and the ſhore being on a flant, the water is very deep; ſo that no ground is to be found with the lines, except juſt next the caſtle.

This iſland is very deficient of water, there not being a ſingle running brook throughout it; notwithſtanding which it is tolerably fertile, and produces great quantities of pompions, water melons, feſtoons and maize, but no bananas or plantains, and ſcarce any fruit trees except wild figs: in ſome of their gardens, however, they have guava trees, oranges, lemons and limes. They have likewiſe ſome good vineyards; but they make no more wine than what will juſt ſerve for their own conſumption.

The principal inhabitants of the iſland are negroes, there not being above one white to an hundred blacks.

They are all Roman Catholics, though ſome of them intermix with that religion many Pagan ſuperſtitions.

They make cotton cloths for their own uſe, and breed great numbers of mules, which they ſell to other nations.

When the Portugueſe firſt went to people this iſland they took with them negro ſlaves, and a ſtock of cows, horſes, aſſes, and hogs; but the king himſelf furniſhed the place with goats, which ran wild in the mountains. There are many of the latter animals here at the preſent time, and the profits ariſing from their ſkins are reſerved to the crown of Portugal. The perſon who has the management of this revenue is called captain of the mountains, nor dare any perſon kill one of them without his licence.

St. JOHN, or SAN JUAN.

THE iſland of St. John is ſituated in 15 deg. 25 min. north lat. and 7 deg. 2 min. weſt long. from Cape de Verd. The land of this iſland is very high, the hills riſing pyramidically one above the other. It abounds in pompions, water melons, potatoes, bananas, maize, feſtoons, cows, horſes, aſſes, hogs, &c. Hunting, or killing of goats are privileges belonging peculiarly to the governor only, and none are permitted to keep hunting dogs except the governor; theſe precautions having been taken in order to preſerve the breed. When the governor is diſpoſed to make a hunt, all the hunters and hunting dogs are aſſembled; and, after the chace, being again met together, the governor parts ſome of the veniſon among them as he pleaſes, ſending home the reſt in order to diſtribute it among the old, infirm and neceſſitous.

Salt-petre abounds here more than in any other of the Cape de Verd iſlands.

The ſeas about St. John abound with fiſh, and the principal employment amongſt the natives is fiſhing; hence they miſs no opportunities of wrecks, or, when ſhips touch here, to procure all the bits of iron they can. Moſt of the fiſh here have remarkable large ſharp teeth; and the baits uſed are generally crabs and inſects.

The natives uſually go and get a quantity of ſalt early in the morning; fiſh the greateſt part of the day; dry, ſplit, and ſalt their fiſh in the evening; and, having heaped them up, let them lie in the ſalt all night. On the enſuing morning they ſpread them out to dry in the ſun, and then they are fit to uſe whenever wanted. The biteas, a ſort of whale grampus, is very common near this iſland; and ſome affirm that the ambergris is the ſperm of this creature. A great quantity of ambergris was formerly found about this iſland, but it is leſs plentiful at preſent. Capt. Roberts ſays, that ſome years before he was there, Juan Carneira, a Portugueſe, who was baniſhed from Liſbon for ſome crime, having procured a little ſloop or ſhallop, traded among theſe iſlands; meeting, at length, with a piece of ambergris of an uncommon bigneſs, he not only procured his liberty, and leave to return before the term of his exile was expired; but had ſufficient left, after defraying all charges, to put himſelf into an eligible way of living; and a rock near to which he found the ambergris, is called by his name to this day.

The natives are quite black, and the moſt innocent and harmleſs, as well as ignorant and ſuperſtitious, of any of the inhabitants of the Cape de Verd Iſlands. They are humble, charitable, humane, and hoſpitable; pay a particular reſpect to their equals, reverence their elders, dutiful to their parents, and ſubmiſſive to their ſuperiors.

St. NICHOLAS.

THE Iſland of St Nicholas is the largeſt of all the Cape de Verd Iſlands, St. Jago excepted. The land is high, and riſes like a ſugar-loaf; but the ſummit of the moſt elevated part is flat. The coaſt of this iſland is entirely clear from rocks and ſhoals. The Bay of Paraghiſi is very ſafe, but the other roads are inſecure till the trade winds are ſettled. There is a valley in this iſland which has a fine ſpring of water in it; and many perſons employ themſelves in ſupplying different parts with that uſeful fluid, with which they load aſſes, and carry it a conſiderable way at a cheap rate. Water may likewiſe be obtained by digging a well in almoſt any part of the iſland.

The only place worthy of notice is the town of St. Nicholas, which is cloſe built and populous; but all the houſes, and even the church, are covered with thatch. The celebrated pirate Avery, having once received ſome offence from the inhabitants, burnt this town; but it was afterwards rebuilt, much in the ſame manner, and to the ſame extent.

The inhabitants of St. Nicholas are nearly black, with frizzled hair. They ſpeak the Portugueſe language tolerably well, but are thievith and blood-thirſty. The women here are more ingenious, and better houſewives, than in any other of the Cape de Verd Iſlands. Moſt families have horſes, hogs, and poultry; and many of the people of St. Nicholas underſtand the art of boat-building, in which the inhabitants of the other iſlands are deficient. They likewiſe make good cloths, and even cloaths, being tolerable taylors, manufacture cotton quilts, knit cotton ſtockings, tan leather, and make good ſhoes.

St. Nicholas abounds in oranges, lemons, plantins, bananas, pompions, millet and water melons, ſugar-canes, vines, gum-dragon, feſtoons, maize, &c. The people are ſtrong Roman Catholics, but their diſpoſitions are ſo obſtinate, that their prieſts have enough to do to rule them.

ST. VINCENT.

ST. Vincent is five leagues in length. On the north-weſt ſide of it there is a bay, a league and a half broad at the entrance, ſurrounded with high mountains, and ſtretching to the middle of the iſland. This bay is ſheltered from the weſterly and north-weſterly winds by the high mountains of the iſle of St. Vincent; ſo that it is the ſafeſt harbour of any in all theſe iſlands: and it is of difficult acceſs, becauſe of the furious winds that blow with the utmoſt impetuoſity from the mountains along the coaſt. There are ſeveral other ſmall bays on the ſouth-ſide of the iſland, where ſhips may anchor, and thither the Portugueſe generally go to load hides. There is alſo freſh water in a valley, which is ſeen to ſpout out of the ground when they dig a little. The ſouth-eaſt ſide of this iſland is a ſandy ſhore; but there is not a drop of water on the hills, or in the deep vallies.

ST. ANTHONY.

ST. Anthony is the moſt northerly of all the Cape de Verd Iſlands, and lies under the 18th degree of north latitude, ſeven miles from St. Vincent, with a channel between them, which runs from the ſouth-weſt to the north-eaſt. There are two high mountains in this iſland, one of which is nearly as high as the Peak of Teneriffe, and ſeems always enveloped in clouds. The inhabitants are about 500 in number; and, on the north-weſt ſide of the iſland, there is a little village conſiſting of about 20 houſes or cottages, and inhabited by near fifty families of negroes and white people, who are all wretchedly poor, and ſpeak the Portugueſe language. On the north ſide there is a road for ſhipping, and a collection of water in a plain lying between high mountains, the water running from all ſides in the rainy ſeaſon; but the people are greatly diſtreſſed for water in the dry ſeaſon. The principal people here are a governor, a captain, a prieſt, and a ſchool-maſter.

ST. LUCIA

IS about eight or nine leagues long. On the ſouth-eaſt end of it are two ſmall iſles, very near each other. On the eaſt-ſouth-eaſt ſide is the harbour, where the ſhore is of white ſand. Here lies a ſmall iſland, round which there is a very good bottom for anchoring. There is alſo a very good road over againſt the iſland of St. Vincent, where ſhips may anchor in twenty fathom water.

BRAVA.

BRAVA, or the Savage or Deſart iſland, is about four leagues to the ſouth-weſt of Fuego. There are two or three ſmall iſlands to the north of it. On the weſt ſide of it there is a very commodious road for ſuch ſhips as want to get water. The beſt harbour lies on the ſouth-eaſt ſide of the iſland, where ſhips may anchor next to the ſhore in fifteen fathoms water. There is an hermitage and a hamlet juſt above the harbour.

SECTION IV.

THE ISLAND OF ST. HELENA.

THIS iſland is ſituated in 16 deg. ſouth lat. and 6 deg. 35 min. weſt longitude. It ſeems admirably adapted for the recreation of ſeamen in their long paſſages through the ſouthern ſeas. The ſailing into the port is truly romantic. St. Helena is ſituated in the ſereneſt climate, and is delightfully temperate. The ſurface is a good mould, and would produce all kinds of grain, was it not infeſted by mice and rats, which devour it as ſoon as ſown. The inhabitants, therefore, are obliged to eat yams inſtead of bread ſome part of the year, their meal and corn being brought annually in the ſtore-ſhips from England. They have alſo a tolerable good ſupply of rice, which the Eaſt India company's ſhips bring from Bengal. Every family has two houſes, their town habitation being in St. James's Valley, where they inſtantly repair, on the arrival of a ſhip, to regale the ſeafaring people with the produce of their farms. Every houſe is let out in lodgings, which are very dear. Their profits muſt be great, particularly when it is conſidered they raiſe all their own ſtock, enjoy it with their lodgers, and make them likewiſe pay moſt extravagantly dear for it.

This iſland is ſaid to have been firſt diſcovered and ſettled by the Portugueſe on the feſtival of the empreſs Helena, mother of the emperor Conſtantine, for which reaſon the Portugueſe gave it her name, which it ſtill bears. But it being afterwards deſerted by them it lay waſte till the Dutch, finding it convenient to relieve their Eaſt India ſhips, ſettled it again. But they afterwards relinquiſhed it for a more convenient place, which is the Cape of Good Hope. The Engliſh Eaſt India Company then ſettled their ſervants there, and began to fortify it; but being yet weak, the Dutch, about the year 1672, came hither, re-took it, and kept it in their poſſeſſion. This news being received in England, an officer was ſent to take it again, who, by the advice and conduct of one that had formerly lived there, landed a party of armed men in the night in a ſmall cove, unknown to the Dutch then in garriſon, and climbing the rocks got up into the iſland, and ſo came in the morning to the hills hanging over the fort, which ſtands by the ſea in a valley. From them firing into the fort they ſoon made them ſurrender. This iſland has continued ever ſince in the hands of the Engliſh Eaſt India Company, and has been greatly ſtrengthened both with men and guns, ſo that at this day it is ſecure enough from the invaſion of an enemy. The common landing-place is a ſmall bay, like a half moon, ſcarce 500 paces wide between the two points. Cloſe by the ſea ſide are good guns planted at equal diſtances lying along from one end of the bay to the other; beſides a ſmall fort a little farther in from the ſea, near the midſt of the bay; all which makes the bay ſo ſtrong, that it is impoſſible to force it. The ſmall cove, where the Engliſh officer landed his men when he took the iſland from the Dutch, is ſcarce wide for a boat to land at, and yet that is now alſo ſtrongly fortified.

There is a ſmall Engliſh town within the great bay, ſtanding in a little valley, between two high mountains. There may be about twenty or thirty ſmall houſes whoſe walls are built with rough ſtones. The inſide furniture is very mean. The governor has a decent houſe by the fort, where he commonly lives, having a few ſoldiers to attend him, and to guard the fort. As moſt of the houſes in the town ſtand empty, except when ſhips arrive; as the owners of thoſe houſes have all plantations farther in the iſland, where they conſtantly employ themſelves. But when ſhips arrive they all flock to the town, where they live all the time the ſhips lie here; for then it is their fair or market to ſell ſuch neceſſaries as they want, and to feaſt off the productions of their plantations.

Their plantations afford potatoes, yams, and ſome plantain and bananas. Their ſtock conſiſts chiefly of hogs, bullocks, cocks and hens, ducks, geeſe and turkies, of which they have great plenty, and ſell them at their own prices to the ſailors, taking in exchange ſhirts, drawers, or any light clothes, pieces of cheſſes, or muſlins: arrack, ſugar, and lime juice, are alſo much eſteemed and coveted by them.

There is great plenty of mackarel here, which affords elegant repaſts to the ſailors.

The Company's affairs here are managed by a governor, deputy-governor, and ſtorehouſe-keeper, who have ſtanding ſalaries allowed them, beſides a public table well furniſhed, to which all commanders, maſters of ſhips, and eminent paſſengers are welcome. The

natives ſometimes call the reſult of their conſultations ſevere impoſitions: and though relief may, perhaps, be had from the company in England, yet, a gentleman obſerves, that the unavoidable delays in returning a redreſs at that diſtance, does ſometimes put the addreſſers under a hardſhip; and thinks, that were not the ſituation of this iſland very ſerviceable to our Eaſt India ſhips homeward bound, the conſtant trouble and expence would induce the company to abandon the iſland; for though it is furniſhed with the conveniencies of life, yet it has few commodities of any profit to merchants.

In Chapel-Valley was James's Fort, of 10 ſmall guns, which was demoliſhed, and a much larger erected in its ſtead. There was alſo a platform of 29 guns, and three at the landing place. Banks's platform had ſix guns, Rupert's platform 17, and in Lemon Valley, where the Dutch formerly landed, was a platform of ſix more, all which have received conſiderable additions. There is no landing to the windward, and all the creeks and bays are ſecured. There are alſo alarm guns on the hills.

The chief grain of the iſland is kidney beans, which are from 8 to 12s. a buſhel. A ſmall ox is ſold for 6l. and turkies for a dollar a-piece. The common people ſubſiſt chiefly on potatoes, yams, plantains, pulſe, and fiſh; and if they can get fleſh once a week, they reckon it good living. The company allow their ſoldiers ſalt proviſions.

The iſland produces here and there a drug like Benzoin, and great plenty of wild tobacco on the hills, which the ſlaves uſe to ſmoke for want of the right ſort. The inhabitants are ſupplied with neceſſaries twice a month out of the company's ſtore, at ſix months credit. The chief commodities for ſale here are cherry brandy, malt and cyder, ſpirits, beer, Madeira and Canary wines, and Spaniſh brandy, which may be taken in at thoſe iſlands.

The Iſland of St. Helena is thus deſcribed in *Captain Cook's* account of his firſt voyage.

"The iſland of St. Helena riſes out of the immenſe Atlantic Ocean, is about 1800 miles from the coaſt of America, and 1200 from that of Africa. It has the appearance of a huge mountain, the foundation of which is probably at the center of the globe. It had formerly volcanoes in ſeveral parts of it, as is evident from the appearance of the earth and ſtones in many places; and it looks like a cluſter of rocks, bounded by precipices of immenſe height. As a veſſel ſails along the coaſt, the cliffs hang over her head ſo as to threaten her inſtant deſtruction, and nothing in nature can be conceived more awful than their appearance.

"Cloſe to the ſea-ſide ſtands the town, which had formerly a church of very indifferent architecture, but it is now little better than a heap of ruins; nor is the market-houſe in a much better condition. Moſt of the houſes are alſo conſtructed in a vile taſte.

"As this iſland is the property of the Engliſh Eaſt India Company, the inhabitants are not ſuffered to carry on any trade for their own emolument, but get their livelihood by ſelling the productions of the iſland to the crews of the veſſels which anchor there for a ſupply of refreſhments.

"The only white inhabitants on the iſland are ſubjects of the king of Great Britain. Theſe employ ſlaves, who tranſport goods of all kinds from place to place on their heads. The inhumanity of our countrymen to theſe ſlaves is a diſgrace to thoſe who profeſs the Chriſtian faith. There are a ſmall number of horſes at St. Helena, but they are never employed in draught, there being no ſuch thing as a waggon or cart on the iſland, though in many places the land is not ſo ſteep, but that ſuch carriages might eaſily be drawn."

Captain Cook, who touched at St. Helena in his ſecond voyage, as well as firſt, obſerves concerning it, that "Whoever views St. Helena in its preſent ſtate, cannot but conceive what it muſt have been originally, and will not haſtily charge the inhabitants with want of induſtry; though, perhaps, they might apply it to more advantage, were more land appropriated to planting of corn, vegetables, roots, &c. inſtead of being laid out in paſture, which is the preſent mode.

"A new church has been built within theſe few years, a commodious landing place for boats has been made, and ſeveral improvements which add both ſtrength and beauty to the place."

SECTION V.

ISLANDS OF ASCENSION AND ST. MATTHEW

THE Iſland of Aſcenſion, lying in 7 deg. ſouth lat. and 13 deg. 10 min. weſt longitude, was diſcovered in the year 1508, by Tuſtan d'Acugna, on his return from the Eaſt Indies, who called it Aſcenſion, becauſe he firſt perceived it on Aſcenſion day. It is about 12 miles long, not above 3 broad, and near 25 in circumference. The whole iſland is quite mountainous and almoſt barren; yet it is ſometimes uſed by our homeward bound Eaſt India ſhips as a place of refreſhment. Great quantities of aſhes and cinders are found upon the ſoil, which induces ſome to imagine that a volcano muſt have been here formerly. The harbour, however, is exceeding convenient; and ſome few places in the iſland are fit for tillage. When the ſhips touch here, their crews ſometimes live upon turtle for a fortnight, and deem it not only pleaſant, but ſalutary food. The goats that run wild here are very lean, and indifferent eating; and the birds, of which there are various kinds, are ſo extremely bad taſted, that the ſoldiers can ſeldom uſe them as food.

On this iſland there is a place which ſeamen term the Poſt Office, and where they leave letters. The method is to put them into bottles, which they cloſely cork, when the people of the next ſhip that comes take out the letters, and leave others in their room.

Neither the Portugueſe, or any other nation, have thought proper to take, plant, or cultivate this iſland. It is, however, very convenient for Eaſt India ſhips to call at when they happen to overſhoot or miſs the iſland of St. Helena.

The following particulars reſpecting this iſland, are related in the account of *Captain Cook's* ſecond voyage. "The iſland of Aſcenſion ſhews a ſurface compoſed of barren hills and vallies, on moſt of which not a ſhrub or plant is to be ſeen for ſeveral miles, but ſtones and aſhes in plenty; an indubitable ſign that the iſle, at ſome remote time, has been altered by a volcano, which has thrown up vaſt heaps of ſtones, and even hills. An high mountain, at the ſouth eaſt end of the iſle, ſeems to be left in its original ſtate, and to have eſcaped the general deſtruction. Its ſoil is a kind of white marl, which yet retains its vegetative qualities, and produces a kind of purſlane, ſpurg, and one or two graſſes. On theſe the goats ſubſiſt, and it is on this part of the iſle where they are found, as alſo land crabs, which are ſaid to be very good."

While they lay in the road, a ſloop, belonging to Bermuda, came to anchor along ſide of them. She had ſailed but a few days before with 105 turtle on board, which was as many as ſhe could take in; but having turned ſeveral more on the different ſandy beaches, they had ripped open their bellies, taken out the eggs, and left the carcaſes to putrify; an act as inhuman as injurious to thoſe who came after them.

Turtle (as Cape. Cook was informed) are to be found at this iſle from January to June. The method of catching them is to have people upon the ſeveral ſandy bays, to watch their coming on ſhore to lay their eggs, which is always in the night, and then to turn them on their backs, till there be an opportunity to take them off the next day. It was recommended by Capt. Cook to ſend a good many men to each beach, where they were to lie quiet till the turtle were aſhore, and then riſe and turn them at once. This method may be the beſt when the turtle are numerous; but when there are

but few, three or four men are ſufficient for the largeſt beach; and if they keep patroling it, cloſe to the waſh of the ſurf, during the night, by this method they will ſee all that come aſhore, and cauſe leſs noiſe than if there were more of them. It was by this method they caught the moſt they got; and this is the method by which the Americans take them. Nothing is more certain, than that all the turtle which are found about this iſland, come here for the ſole purpoſe of laying their eggs; for they meet with none but females; and of all thoſe that they caught, not one had any food worth mentioning in its ſtomach; a ſure ſign that they muſt have been a long time without any; that this may be the reaſon why the fleſh of them is not ſo good as thoſe caught on the coaſt of New South Wales, where they feed.

ST. MATTHEW,

SO called by the Portugueſe, becauſe they diſcovered it on that ſaint's day, lies to the north of St. Helena and to the north-eaſt of Aſcenſion, under the 2d deg. of ſouth lat. It is a deſart, though there is a fine rivulet of freſh water that runs through it. Garcias de Loaiſa, a gentleman of Biſcay, in Spain, who commanded the fleet which the emperor Charles V. cauſed to be fitted out at the Groyne, to go and conquer the Molucca Iſlands, having landed at the Iſland of St. Matthew, found it uncultivated, but full of large orange trees. He found alſo ſome poultry there; and on the barks of trees there were inſcriptions in the Portugueſe tongue, which proved that ſome of that nation had been there before.

SECTION VI

THE ISLAND OF GOREE.

THIS iſland is ſituated near Cape de Verd, in 14 deg. 43 min. north lat. and 17 deg. 20 min. weſt longitude, being the only European ſettlement between the rivers Gambia and Senegal. It forms an excellent road for ſhipping, and is ſurrounded by rocks, every where inacceſſible, except at a little creek, 120 fathoms broad, and 60 fathoms long, incloſed between two points of land, one of which is pretty high, and called the Point of the Buring-ground; the other is lower, and before it lies a ſand-bank, over which the ſea beats with great fury. All round this iſland there is good anchoring, and particularly in the before-mentioned creek, between which and the land, ſhips may ride in perfect ſecurity from the moſt dangerous ſurges. This iſland was yielded to the Dutch in 1617, by the king of Cape Verd, and they built a ſtrong fort upon the north-weſt part of it: but that fort not being ſufficient to prevent an enemy's landing in the creek, they erected another to ſecure the warehouſes. It was taken by the Engliſh in 1663, and retaken by the Dutch ſoon after. The latter, however, did not keep it long; for the French conquered it in 1677, after which they thought proper to fortify it pretty ſtrongly, and to maintain it as a place of conſequence. It was, however, taken from them in the glorious year 1759, together with Fort Senegal, of both which captures we ſhall give a circumſtantial account, ſince they are ſo intimately blended together as not to be related ſingly without obſcuring the whole.

A ſcheme being formed by Mr. Cumming, a ſenſible quaker, for attacking the French ſettlements on the coaſt of Africa, the miniſtry determined to carry it into execution.

Mr. Cumming, as a private merchant, had made a voyage to Portenderrick, an adjoining part of the coaſt, and contracted a perſonal acquaintance with Amir, the Mooriſh king of Legibelli, whom he found extremely well diſpoſed towards the ſubjects of Great Britain, preferring them, on every occaſion, to all other European nations, which had exaſperated the French againſt him; and he declared he ſhould never be eaſy till they were extirpated from the place. Juſt at that time he had declared war againſt them, and uſed often to wiſh that the king of Great Britain would ſend out an armament to reduce Fort Louis and Goree, which the French had erected to defend their factories on that coaſt, with ſome ſhips of force to protect the traders; promiſing, in ſuch a caſe, to join his Britannic majeſty's forces, and indulge his ſubjects with an excluſive commerce. At his return to England, Mr. Cumming informed the government of the great advantages which would accrue to the nation from ſuch an attempt. It was, however, taken very little notice of at that time; but, at length, all difficulties being overcome, a ſmall ſquadron was equipped for this expedition, under the command of Capt. Marſh, having on board a body of marines, commanded by Major Maſon, with a detachment of artillery, ten pieces of cannon, eight mortars, and a conſiderable quantity of warlike ſtores and ammunition. Capt. Walker was appointed engineer; and Mr. Cumming was concerned as principal director and promoter of the expedition. In the beginning of March 1758, this little armament ſailed, touched in their paſſage at the iſland of Teneriffe, and, while the ſhips were taken in the wine and water, Mr. Cumming proceeded in the Swan ſloop to Portenderrick, charged with a letter of credence to his old friend, the king of that country. But on his arrival, he had the mortification to find this prince engaged in a new war with a neighbouring nation, and at that time heading his army at a very conſiderable diſtance from his capital. One of the chiefs, however, diſpatched a meſſenger to the king, with advice of Mr. Cumming's arrival and deſign, declaring at the ſame time, that he would uſe the utmoſt expedition in aſſembling 300 warriors to join the Engliſh troops, adding, that he was perſuaded the king would ſend a detachment from his army to reinforce them.

Capt. Marſh, with the reſt of the armament, had by this time arrived at Portenderrick, and, without waiting for the Indian forces, which were not yet ready, they ſailed on the 22d of April, and the next day, at four o'clock in the afternoon, diſcovered the French flag flying upon Fort Louis. Capt. Marſh, after having taken a large Dutch ſhip, richly laden with guns, which lay without the bar, came to an anchor in Senegal road, at the mouth of the river, where he perceived the enemy had poſted ſeveral armed ſloops to defend the paſſage of the bar, which is extremely dangerous. The captain, however, immediately prepared for landing. All the boats of the fleet were employed to carry the ſtores into the ſmall craft, notwithſtanding the enemy's veſſels kept firing on them. As ſoon as every thing was ready, and the channel diſcovered, the ſhips weighed anchor; and at that inſtant the wind, which generally blows down the river, veering about, Capt. Millar, in the London buſs, ſeized the opportunity, and paſſing the bar with a full ſail, caſt anchor on the inſide, where he lay all night expoſed to the whole fire of the enemy. Next morning he was joined by the other ſmall veſſels, upon which a regular engagement enſued, and was warmly ſupported on both ſides. At laſt the buſſes, and one of the ſmall veſſels, running aground, immediately bulged, and were filled with water. This misfortune obliged the troops they contained to take to their boats, and with great difficulty they reached the ſhore, where they formed in a body, and were ſoon after joined by their companions from the other veſſels; ſo that the whole now amounted to 290 marines, beſides the detachment of artillery. Expecting to be attacked by the natives, who lined the ſhore at ſome diſtance, as if reſolved to oppoſe the deſcent, they threw up an intrenchment, and began to diſembark the ſtores, great part of which lay under water. While they were thus employed, the negroes came down in great numbers, and ſubmitted to them; and on the following day they were reinforced by 36 ſeamen, who paſſed the bar in ſloops, with colours flying.

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Their intention was to make an immediate attack on Fort Louis; but this deſign was prevented by the arrival of two French deputies at the intrenchment, with propoſals from the governor for a capitulation. A ſhort time being paſſed in deliberations, it was agreed, that all the white people belonging to the French company at Senegal, ſhould be ſafely conducted to France in an Engliſh veſſel, without being deprived of their private effects; that all the merchandize and uncoined treaſure ſhould be delivered up to the victors; that all forts, ſtore-houſes, veſſels, arms, proviſions, and every article belonging to the company in that river, ſhould be put into the hands of the Engliſh immediately after the capitulation ſhould be deſigned; that the free natives living at Fort Louis ſhould remain in quiet poſſeſſion of their effects, and in the free exerciſe of their religion; and that all negroes, mullatoes, and others, who could prove themſelves free, ſhould be at their option either to remain in the place, or remove to any other part of the country.

The captains Campbell and Walker were immediately ſent up the river with a flag of truce, to ſee the article ſigned and executed. Having rowed towards a battery on the point of the iſland, they lay upon their oars near an hour beating the chamade, but not the leaſt notice was taken of their approach. Being at a loſs to account for this ſtrange conduct, they returned to their intrenchment, where they learned that the negroes on the iſland were in arms, and blocked up the French in Fort Louis, reſolving to defend the place to the laſt extremity, unleſs they were included in the capitulation. The governor ſignified this circumſtance in a letter to the Engliſh commander, telling him, at the ſame time, that unleſs the French director-general ſhould be allowed to remain with the natives, as a ſurety for the performance of that article of the capitulation in which they were concerned, they would ſuffer themſelves to be cut in pieces rather than ſubmit.

This requeſt, however, being readily granted, the Engliſh forces began their march for Fort Louis, accompanied by a number of long-boats, in which the artillery and ſtores had been embarked. On ſeeing them advance the French immediately ſtruck their flag, and Major Maſon took poſſeſſion of the caſtle, where he found 92 pieces of cannon, with a very conſiderable quantity of treaſure and merchandize. The corporation and burghers of the town of Senegal readily ſubmitted, and ſwore allegiance to the king of Great Britain. The neighbouring princes, attended by numerous retinues, viſited the commander, and concluded treaties with the Engliſh nation; and the king of Portenderrick, or Legebeli, ſent an ambaſſador from his camp to Major Maſon, with compliments of congratulation, and aſſurances of friendſhip.

Having left an Engliſh garriſon at Fort Louis, and placed a ſufficient number of armed boats to ſecure the paſſage of the bar, the large ſhips ſailed to make an attempt on the iſland of Goree, which lies at the diſtance of 30 leagues from Senegal. This expedition, however, for want of ſufficient force, miſcarried. But the miniſtry being ſenſible that the Engliſh ſettlements on the coaſt of Africa could never be ſecure while the French kept poſſeſſion of this iſland, they fitted out a ſquadron, the command of which was given to Commodore Keppel, conſiſting of four ſhips of the line, ſeveral frigates, two bomb-ketches, and ſome tranſports, having on board 700 regular troops, commanded by Colonel Worge.

On the 11th of November this armament ſailed from Cork in Ireland, and, after a dangerous paſſage, they arrived at Goree the latter end of December, when the commodore immediately made a diſpoſition for attacking the iſland. The flat bottom boats for landing the troops being hoiſted out, and ranged alongſide of the different tranſports, Mr. Keppel ſtationed his ſhips on the weſt ſide of the iſland. A ſhell being fired from one of the bomb-ketches, which was the ſignal for the engagement to begin, the great ſhips poured in their broadſides without intermiſſion, and their fire was returned with equal vivacity from all the batteries of the iſland. At length the cannonading from the ſhips became ſo ſevere and terrible, that the French ſoldiers fled from their quarters, in ſpite of all the efforts of the governor, who endeavoured to keep them to their duty, which obliged him to ſtrike his colours, and ſurrender at diſcretion; upon which the commodore ſent a detachment of marines on ſhore, who diſarmed the garriſon, and hoiſted the Britiſh flag on the Iſland of St. Michael. Two trading veſſels, which happened to be at anchor in the road, likewiſe fell into the hands of the Engliſh, with ſtores, money, and merchandize, to the value of 20,000l. This important conqueſt coſt the victors, only 100 men, killed and wounded. Commodore Keppel, having left a garriſon at Goree, and reinforced that at Senegal, returned withh is ſquadron to England.

Goree, however, at preſent belongs to the French. It was ceded to them by the treaty of peace in 1763; but was again taken by the Engliſh in the laſt war, and reſtored to them by the peace of 1783.

Though of ſo much importance to the African trade, Goree is only a ſmall iſland, extending about three quarters of a mile in length. It is of a triangular form, without wood, and has no water but what the inhabitants catch in ciſterns, reſervoirs, &c.

Great quantities of gum are brought to this place and Senegal by the Moors and Arabs, and from hence ſent to Europe, and other parts of the world. They bring it on camels, bullocks, horſes, &c. It is meaſured in a cubical veſſel, called by the Moors *quantor*, and every quintal pays a certain duty. Proper commiſſaries put it into ſacks, and then allow it to be carried to the company's ſettlements.

The natives of this place and Senegal are in general Mahometans, and they practiſe circumciſion with great rigour. The operation is performed at the age of 15, that the youth may have ſufficient ſtrength to undergo it, and be tolerably well inſtructed in the principles of his faith. The ceremony is never performed in hot weather: the laſt quarter of the moon is always choſen, through a notion that the operation is then leſs painful, and the wound cured with more eaſe. It is done in a beautiful meadow, ſurrounded by gardens, upon a few boards elevated a little from the ground. The victims are led thither by their parents, ſucceeding each other according to their ranks, when the prieſt performs the operation; after which the youth retires ſmiling, or at leaſt affecting to ſmile.

SECTION VII.

The Island of BUSSI, or BOISSI; the Island of BISSEUR, or BISSAO, &c.

THE Iſland of Buſſi, or Boiſſi, is about 35 leagues in circumference, covered with trees, and well watered with ſeveral rivulets. The inhabitants are treacherous, wicked, and great robbers; ſo that it is very dangerous to trade with them; notwithſtanding ſome ſhips venture in, in order to procure oxen and palm-nuts, which are the only articles they will ſell. In the iſland are two good ſecure harbours, the one to the north, called Old Port, and the other to the ſouth, called New Port.

The Iſland of Biſſeur Biſſao, is ſituated in the ſame gulph, and is ſeparated from Buſſi by a canal about a mile broad. It is near 40 leagues in circuit, and the ground imperceptibly riſes to the middle of the iſland, where are ſeen the tops of ſeveral hills gradually ſinking beneath each other, and forming many intermediate vallies, in which the waters gather and form rivulets that run into the ſea. The country is fruitful, well cultivated, and abounds with trees, particularly fine large orange trees, which the Portugueſe and Negroes, whoſe habitations are intermixed, take care to plant about their houſes. Mangoes are found in great plenty, eſpecially

eſpecially about the ſea-ſhore. The only town here is that of the Portugueſe, the houſes of which ſurround the parochial church, and the convent of St. Francis; but it has been conſiderably increaſed in inhabitants by means of the factory which the French have ſettled near it. Beſides this, there is no cluſter of houſes, or even huts, in the whole iſland, which even merits the name of a village; notwithſtanding which the iſland is divided into nine provinces, eight of which are governed by officers appointed by the ſovereign, and each of theſe takes the title of king, that they may together give that of emperor to their common maſter. The ninth province this petty emperor revenues to himſelf as a kind of patrimony.

The inhabitants of this iſland are likewiſe called papels, but have a language and cuſtoms peculiar to themſelves. They are groſs idolaters. Their chief idol is a little figure they call Shinah, but it is no eaſy matter to know what he performs. Beſides this, each individual takes for an idol whatever the imagination may ſuggeſt. Conſecrated trees are either deemed deities, or the dwellings of deities; and to theſe they ſacrifice bullocks, dogs, and cats, which they take particular care to fatten, and waſh clean, before they kill; and after having killed them, they ſpill part of their blood round the foot of the tree, and ſprinkle the branches of it with the reſt. The victim is then cut to pieces, and, if a bullock, the emperor, officers, and people, take each a part, and carry it home in order to eat it, leaving their idol only the horns, which are hung up upon the tree, and there remain till they happen to drop down or rot to pieces.

At the death of the emperor, the beſt beloved of his wives, and moſt uſeful of his ſlaves, are killed and buried near the place where the emperor's corpſe is to be interred, that they may go with him, to ſerve and divert him in the other world. The body of the emperor is put into a kind of coffin made of reeds, and very neatly wove. Then four of the ſtrongeſt lords carry it with great ſolemnity to the burial place, where being arrived, a very whimſical ceremony ſucceeds; for the nobles amuſe themſelves, for a conſiderable time, by toſſing his majeſty's coffin, body and all, into the air, and catching it again, without letting it fall to the ground. When they are pretty well tired of this ſport, one of the great lords extends himſelf on the ground, at full length, and the reſt once more throw up the coffin, body and all, but do not, as before, attempt to catch it, when the royal corpſe falls on the proſtrate lord, and almoſt beats the breath out of his body. After having thus been overwhelmed with the royal weight, he is immediately acknowledged emperor. It appears by this ceremony that the kingdom is elective, though one of the royal family, either the ſon, brother, or nephew, of the deceaſed, muſt be choſen; and you may be ſure the pretenders to the crown do not fail to bribe with preſents thoſe bearers of the royal bier, who may properly enough be ſtiled electors.

The Portugueſe have an indifferent fort upon this iſland, mounting 20 guns.

The iſland of Boulam lies at the mouth of Rio Grande, or the Great River, which, by means of this iſland, divides itſelf into two branches. Boulam is ſurrounded with woods, beyond which the country is very fine, well cultivated by the Negroes of the Biſſagoe iſlands, who come hither to ſow millet, rice, and other grain, and return home after they have reaped their harveſt. The ground ries almoſt imperceptibly for two leagues from the ſea ſhore, to the foot of ſome hills, which ſerve as a baſe to higher mountains, which ſtand in the center of the iſland: yet theſe mountains are neither ſteep nor craggy, being covered with fine lofty trees. Through the many vallevs between theſe hills and mountains run ſeveral conſiderable rivulets, which the Negroes aſſert to run conſtantly, even in the dry ſeaſon of the year.

The mouth of Rio Grande, or the Great-River, to the ſouth eaſt of the iſle of Boulam, is about two leagues broad, and having run ſome leagues from eaſt to weſt, it makes a great elbow, or winding, and turns to the north-eaſt, till a little higher it is divided into two arms by the Iſland of Biſſagoe. Both ſides of the Rio Grande, or the Great River, are well peopled, and covered with lofty trees of ſeveral ſorts, which the Portugueſe cut to build barks. There is one particular tree which they call *machery*; it is eaſily worked, and never infeſted with worms. It is full of an oily mixture, exceſſively bitter, which probably keeps the worms from it. Trials have been made of this wood in ſeveral parts of Europe, Africa, and America, and it has always been found of equal goodneſs. Theſe trees never grow very tall, few of them being above 22 feet high; but then they are very thick.

The negroes here are tall, ſtrong, and healthy. They live upon ſhell and other fiſh, millet, rice, and palm-nuts, chuſing rather to ſell to the Europeans the millet, rice, and other produce of the earth which they reap, than to keep them for their own uſe.

Formoſa is the moſt eaſterly of all the Biſſagoe iſlands, but is deſerted. La Gallina (or Hen Iſland, thus called from the great number of hens the Portugueſe found here) and Canabac, are very populous and fruitful, and have plenty of good water. Calagut is the moſt conſiderable of theſe iſlands, being about ſix leagues long, and two broad. Its ſoil is very good, and produces millet, rice and all kinds of pulſe, beſides orange and palm trees, and many others. This iſland, with thoſe of Carache, Canabac, and La Gallina, are the only ones where the Europeans may trade with ſome ſecurity. They trade, however, ſometimes at the other iſlands, but they muſt be extremely cautious; and yet, after all their precaution, they will be robbed and murdered if they venture to go aſhore.

SECTION VIII.

The Island of ANNABON, St. THOMAS, PRINCE's, and FERNANDO PO.

ANNABON was diſcovered on a new year's day, and on that account named Annabon by the Portugueſe, as that expreſſion ſignifies the *good*, or the *new year*. It lies to the eaſt of St. Matthew, in 2 deg. ſouth-lat. and 5 deg. 10 min. eaſt lon. being near 200 miles from the coaſt of Loango, and is near 9 miles in circumference. Here are two high mountains, which being continually covered with clouds, occaſion frequent rains. Here are ſeveral fertile valies, which produce plenty of bananas, potatoes, oranges, pine-apples, tamarinds, and cocoa-nuts; beſides which the iſland abounds with lemons, citrons, nuts, figs, Indian corn, and millet. Here are alſo oxen, cows, hogs, goats, fowls, pidgeons, with plenty of fiſh. The iſland likewiſe produces great quantities of cotton. The governor is a Portugueſe, who has very few white people with him. All the other inhabitants are blacks, who are, nevertheleſs, very ſubmiſſive to the governor, and zealouſly attached to the Roman catholic religion. On the ſouth eaſt of the iſland there are two rocks, one of which is very low, and almoſt even with the ſurface of the ſea; the other is much higher, and very large. On theſe rocks are a multitude of birds, ſo tame that they ſuffer themſelves to be taken with the hand. The water is ſo deep between theſe two rocks, that ſhips may eaſily paſs between them. On the ſame ſide of the iſland there is a very good watering place, the water running down from the mountains into a valley full of orange and other fruit trees; but it is a difficult matter to come at that water, becauſe of the violent breakings of the ſea; and the negroes have made an intrenchment of ſtone there, from which they can very much incommode thoſe who go thither for water. The road for ſhipping is on the north eaſt ſide of the iſland, where they may anchor from 7 to 16 fathoms water, on a ſandy ground, cloſe to the land, over againſt the village where the above-mentioned intrenchment is. When

the

the inhabitants cannot prevent a deſcent, they leave their houſes, which are only of timber and ſand, and retire into the mountains. They are very well armed. The revenue of this iſland conſiſts chiefly in cotton; the negroes gather it, and, after they have cleaned it, they ſend it into Portugal. Here are alſo ſome civit cats in the mountains, which yet afford but little profit. The inhabitants are poorly cloathed. The women go bareheaded, and have alſo the upper part of the body naked, wearing only a piece of linen wrapped round them, which reaches from the pit of the ſtomach juſt below the knee.

St. Thome, or St. Thomas's Iſland, is directly under the equinoctial line, and about 240 miles north-weſt from the city of Loango. The air here is ſo exceedingly hot, that Europeans ſoon die, though negroes will live to near an 100 years of age. From its equatorial ſituation the days and nights are always equal. The only rainy months are March and September, when the ſun paſſes vertically over the iſland; but at other times they have nocturnal dews, which refreſh and fertilize the ſoil. It produces leſs ſugar than it formerly did; but it is extremely fruitful in wheat, wine, millet, rye, barley, melons, cucumbers, figs, ginger, red parſnips, cabbages, turnips, lettuces, radiſhes, ſage, beet, parſley, &c. Olive, peach, and almond trees, thrive well in timber; but exceſſive heat and moiſture prevent their bearing of fruit. Partridges, quails, ouzels, parots, &c. abound here; ſo doth the ſea with excellent fiſh, and large whales. A mountain in the center of the iſland has its top covered with a cloud, which moiſtens the trees, and greatly nouriſhes them. The higher the ſun aſcends above the horizon, the more moiſture does the cloud afford. The Portugueſe built a town called Pavoaſon, with a harbour towards the continent. This town is exceeding pleaſant; and the inhabitants barter ſugar for wine, cheeſe, leather, and cloaths.

Prince's Iſland is nearly under the equator, the latitude being only 1 deg. 30 min. It is woody and mountainous, abounding in fruit, rice, Indian corn, ſugar, herbs, roots, &c. It alſo contains cattle, hogs, and goats; but the vaſt quantities of aſſes are both troubleſome and dangerous, as they wantonly deſtroy many of the fruits of the earth, and will attack, and tear to pieces, a man, if they find him ſingle and unarmed.

About 30 miles to the weſtward of the continent is the Iſland of Fernando Po, in 4 deg. north latitude. It is near 30 miles long, and 20 broad. The produce and inhabitants do not differ from thoſe of Prince's Iſland, and it likewiſe belongs to the Portugueſe government.

CHAP. XXII.

ISLANDS IN THE INDIAN OCEAN.

SECTION I.

THE ISLAND OF BOURBON.

SO called in honour of the family of Bourbon, is ſituated in 21 deg. ſouth lat. and 54 deg. eaſt long. It is of an oval form, and upwards of 100 miles in circumference. It was firſt diſcovered in the year 1545, by a Portugueſe, of the houſe of Maſcarinhas, who gave it the name of Maſcarin, in honour of his family, and ſtocked it with hogs and goats; but he afterwards thought proper to abandon it. In the year 1613 Capt. Caſſleton, an Engliſh naval officer, touched here in a ſhip named the Pearl; and from the journal of his voyage, written by John Tatton, maſter, we ſhall make the following extract.

"In 21 deg. ſouth latitude they ſaw an iſland weſt-ſouth-weſt, and ſouth-weſt by weſt, five leagues diſtant, being very high land. At ſix o'clock at night they anchored on the eaſtern ſide of it, a mile from the ſhore, in ten fathoms, fine black ſand, which you meet with from forty fathoms to four fathoms cloſe to land. The boat being ſent aſhore found infinite numbers of great land tortoiſes, as big as a man could well carry, which were very good meat. The north-eaſt point of this iſle is very high and ſteep; and a little to the ſouth-eaſt of the point is low land, where runs a fine water, like a river, and though aboat cannot go in, yet it is a very good place to water in. At ſome diſtance from the ſhore the iſle appears like a foreſt, whence the author (John Tatton) called it England's Foreſt; but the others named it Pearl Iſland, from the ſhip.

"This Iſland was uninhabited, but abounded with land-fowl, both ſmall and large doves, great parrots, and the like, and a huge bird, the bigneſs of a turkey, very fat, and ſo ſhort winged that it could not fly. The birds of this kind were all white, and in a manner tame, as are all the other fowls, becauſe they have not been ſcared with ſhot. The ſailors knocked them down with ſticks and ſtones. Ten men might take fowls enough to ſerve forty for a day. Some of the company, walking up into the iſland, found a river, and a pond well ſtocked with mallards, and wild geeſe, beſides an infinite number of great eels, as good as any in the world. If ſtruck with a pike, or any other thing, they would run not above two or three yards off, and then lie ſtill again, ſo that they might be eaſily taken. The author obſerving they were larger than any he had ever ſeen, weighed one, and found its quantity 25 pounds. They were alſo the ſweeteſt fiſh, in his opinion, that can be eaten; whence he concluded, it was as good a place as the world could afford for refreſhing; neither was there any danger about the iſland but the ſhore itſelf."

This iſland, however, never retained the names of England's Foreſt, or Pearl Iſland, mentioned here to have been given it, but continued to be called by the name of Maſcarin till the year 1651, when M. de Flacourt took poſſeſſion of it in the name of the king of France, and gave it the name of Bourbon, which it ſtill retains, in compliment to the royal family upon the French throne. He left there a few of his people and ſlaves, who, not liking their ſituation, were afterwards brought away by an Engliſh ſhip. The French, however, again formed a ſettlement there in 1674, and now have three conſiderable towns on the iſland, viz. St. Paul, St. Denis, and St. Suſanna; but the governor uſually reſides at St. Denis.

According to the lateſt accounts of this iſland, it abounds in all kinds of refreſhment, and the air is particularly excellent. The French Eaſt India ſhips touch here to take in water and proviſions, for the roads are good for ſhipping; but there is no harbour in the whole iſland. Here is plenty of wood and water, and the face of the country is beautifully diverſified with hills and dales, paſtures and woods, and watered by excellent ſprings and rivulets. In one of the mountains there is a ſmall volcano, which diſcharges fire, and fills the neighbourhood with a bituminous matter; and the flames are perceived in the night time at the diſtance of 25 leagues.

Some of the trees here are fit for building veſſels. The iſle of Bourbon likewiſe produces the ſhrub that bears coffee, the tamariſk, cocoa, cotton, aloe, and ebony tree. The black ebony here is leſs eſteemed than the yellow; and the wild coffee, which is very plentiful, is exceeding good. Many of the trees and plants pro-

duce odoriferous gums; and here plenty of oranges, lemons, tobacco, palms, white pepper, &c. The iſland likewiſe abounds with black cattle, hogs, goats, and boars, the fleſh of which is admirable on account of their feeding on tortoiſes; many kinds of fowls, pigeons, turtle doves, parrots, &c. The ſurrounding ſeas, and interſecting rivers, rivulets, &c. ſupply the inhabitants with abundance of fiſh; and on the ſhore are found great quantities of ambergris, corals, and beautiful ſhells. Here are no crocodiles, ſnakes, muſketoes, or any of thoſe vermin, or other venomous creatures, which are ſo troubleſome in moſt other parts of the torrid zone.

A French writer, in ſpeaking of this iſland, ſays, "The beſt animal found here, whether for taſte or wholeſomeneſs, is the land tortoiſe; and the moſt agreeable fruit is the anana. This tortoiſe is of the ſame figure with thoſe in Europe, but of a very different ſize. They ſay it lives a prodigious time; that ſeveral ages are required to bring to its full growth, and that it will live ſeveral months without food. They have kept ſome young ones in the iſland, which, at the end of twenty years, increaſed in bulk only a few inches.

"The bat of this iſland is very ſingular, and might be called the flying fox, ſince it very much reſembles this animal in ſize, hair, head, ears, and even teeth. The female has two teats, and, under each wing, a bag to carry her young in. The length of the wing is about four feet from one extremity to the other. The fleſh is ſo good to eat, that they go a hunting for them with the ſame eagerneſs that we go a ſhooting partridges.

"But though this iſland is ſo agreeable, it does not come near to the beauty of the coaſts of Java and Sumatra, which are covered with orange, cocoa, and other fruit trees, with a number rivulets that water them: hills adorned with delightful groves, foreſts for ever-green, villages and towns ſhining with all the rural graces, concur to render thoſe coaſts the moſt charming in the world."

Vines have been ſucceſsfully planted here of late years, and now conſiderable quantities of different wines are annually produced. But the greateſt inconveniencies here ariſe from the terrible hurricanes and ſtorms, which are not only exceeding violent, but very frequent: hence ſhipwrecks are common, and the moſt horrid deva ſtations became familiar to the eye; ſo that the following animated deſcription has been often realized on the coaſts of this iſland.

The ſea grows white, and rolling was afar,
Like heralds, firſt denounce the wat'ry war.
This ſeen, the captain ſoon began to cry
Strike, ſtrike the top ſails, let the main-ſheet fly,
And furl your ſails: the winds repel the ſound,
And in the ſpeaker's mouth the ſpeech is drown'd;
Yet, of their own accord, as danger taught,
(Each in his way,) officiouſly they wrought,
Some ſtow the oars, or ſtop the leaky ſides;
Another, bolder yet, the yard beſtrides,
And furls the ſails; a fourth with labour laves
Th' intruding ſeas, and waves eject on waves.
In this confuſion, while their works they ply,
The winds aug ment the winter of the ſky.
The cries of men are mix'd with rattling ſhrouds;
Seas dath on ſeas, and clouds encounter clouds:
At once from eaſt to weſt, from pole to pole.
The forky lightnings flaſh, the roaring thunders roll;
The lathing billows make a loud report,
And beat her ſides as batt'ring-rams a fort.
Thus ſeas impell'd by winds, with added power,
Aſſault the ſides, and o'er the hatches tow'r;
The planks, their pitchy coverings waſh'd away,
Now yield, and now a yawning breach diſplay;
The rearing waters, with a hoſtile tide,
Ruſh through the ruins of her gaping ſide;
Mean time, in ſheets of rain, the ſky deſcends,
And ocean, ſwell'd with waters, upwards tends.
No ſtar appears to lend a friendly light;
Darkneſs and tempeſt make a double night;
But flaſhing fires diſcloſe the deep by turns,
And, while the lightnings blaze, the water burns,
An univerſal cry reſounds aloud;
The ſailors run in heaps, an artleſs crowd;
Art fails, and courage falls; no ſuccour near;
As many waves, as many deaths appear.
One weeps, and yet deſpairs of late relief;
One cannot weep, his fears congeal his grief,
But ſtupid, with dry eyes expects his fate.
One with loud ſhrieks laments his loſt eſtate,
And calls them happy whom their fun'rals wait.
This wretch with prayers and vows the Lord implores,
And e'en the ſkies he cannot ſee adores.
That other on his friends his thoughts beſtows.
His careful father, and his faithful ſpouſe.
The cov'tous worldling, in his anxious mind,
Thinks only on the wealth he leaves behind.
Toſs'd with the ſeas, preſs'd with the ponderous blow,
Down ſinks the ſhip within th' abyſs below;
Down with the veſſel ſink into the main
The many, never more to riſe again.

A French officer, who very recently viſited both this iſland and the Iſle of France, or Mauritius, tells the following ſtory concerning one of the pirates who uſed to infect this iſland. "The viceroy (ſays he) of Goa came one day to anchor in the road of St. Denis, and was to dine with the governor. He had ſcarcely let his foot on ſhore before a pirate ſhip, of 50 guns, anchored along-ſide his veſſel, and took her. The captain landed forthwith, and demanded to dine at the governor's. He ſeated himſelf at table between him and the Portugueſe viceroy, to the latter of whom he declared that he was his priſoner. Wine and good cheer having put the ſeamen in good humour, M. Deſforges, the governor, aſked him at how much he rated the viceroy's ranſom? "I muſt have (ſaid the pirate) a thouſand piaſtres." "That's too little (ſaid M. Deſforges) for a brave fellow like you, to have for a great Lord like him: aſk enough, or aſk nothing." "Well, well then, I aſk nothing, (replied the generous corſair,) let him be free." The viceroy inſtantly re-embarked and ſet ſail, happy at having eſcaped on ſuch good terms. The pirate afterwards ſettled on the iſland, and was hanged, a conſiderable time after an amneſty had been publiſhed in favour of his companions, and in which he had failed to get himſelf included. This injuſtice was the work of a councellor, or judge, who was deſirous of appropriating the ſpoils of the pirate to his own uſe."

The ſame writer has alſo given us the following deſcription of the original inhabitants of this iſland, with obſervations on the preſent ſtate of them.

"The manners of the firſt inhabitants of Bourbon were very ſimple: and the greater number of the houſes were not made to ſhut; a lock was a curioſity. Some people even put their money in a tortoiſe-ſhell over their door. They dreſſed in blue cloth, went barefooted, and lived upon rice and coffee. They imported but little from Europe; content to live without luxury, ſo they lived without want. They joined to this moderation the virues that ever attend it; good faith in commerce, and generoſity in their proceedings. As ſoon as a ſtranger appeared, the inhabitants came to him, and, as a ſtranger, offered him their houſes.

"The wars in the Indies have made a change in their manners. The volunteers of Bourbon diſtinguiſhed themſelves by their bravery; but the manufactures of Aſia, and the military diſtinctions of France, thereby got footing in the iſland. The children, richer than their parents, require to be treated with more conſideration. They have now no enjoyment of an unnoticed good fortune, but ſeek pleaſures and honours in Europe, in exchange for domeſtic happineſs and the quiet of a country life. The attention of the fathers being chiefly fixed upon their ſons, they ſend them to France, from whence they ſeldom return; hence it is that, in this iſland,

iſland, there are more than 500 marriageable girls who are likely to die without huſbands."

The whites who inhabit this iſland are eſtimated at 5000, and the blacks 6000. Their principal traffic is with France, to which place they export the various commodities of the country.

The chief town in this iſland is called St. Denis, and is the reſidence of the governor and council. It is a ſmall place, and does not contain any thing remarkable, except a redoubt, built of ſtone, and a drawbridge.

SECTION II.

THE ISLAND OF MAURITIUS, OTHERWISE CALLED THE ISLE OF FRANCE.

THIS iſland is ſituated in 18 deg. 30 min. ſouth lat. and 56 deg. 8 min. eaſt long. It was diſcovered by the Dutch in 1598, who called it Maurice Iſland, in honour of Prince Maurice, their ſtadtholder.

Mauritius is between 3 and 400 miles eaſt of Madagaſcar, and is about 150 miles in circumference. The form is oval, and, from the many high mountains torrents of water ruſh down with great impetuoſity, and form various rapid rivers and rivulets, which are foul near where they fall, particularly in the rainy ſeaſon, but grow clearer as they turn farther from the mountains, and are as tranſparent as cryſtal before they diſembogue themſelves into the ſea.

Thus the pure limpid ſtream, when foul with ſtains
Of ruſhing torrents, and deſcending rains,
Works itſelf clear, and as it runs refines,
Till by degrees the floating mirror ſhines,
Reflects each flower that on its border grows,
And a new heaven in its fair boſom ſhows.

This iſland contains two ports, the principal of which is to the ſouth-eaſt, where the Dutch ſettlement formerly was, the remains of the buildings belonging to which are ſtill ſeen. This port may be entered with eaſe before the wind; but it is very difficult to get out of it, as the gales generally blow to the ſouth-eaſt. The other port, named Port Louis, is ſituated to the north-weſt, and is ſmaller than the former; but the town belonging to it is deemed the capital of the iſland, tho' it is ſituated in the moſt diſagreeable part of it. This town, denominated the Camp, is built at the bottom of the port, and towards the opening of the valley. The valley itſelf is encircled by a chain of mountains, whoſe ſummits are rocky, without trees or buſhes, but covered with a dungy herb, which makes the country appear black like a colliery.

The town itſelf, called the Camp, is built with tolerable regularity; the houſes are of wood, and only one ſtory high: they ſtand ſeparate from each other, and are all ſurrounded by paliſadoes. The ſtreets, however, are not paved or planted with trees; nor are there any fortifications except towards the ſea, where the place is defended by the fort called Fort Blanc, and a battery on the little Iſland of Tormellieres.

The Iſle of France is watered by above ſixty rivulets, ſome of which deſerve the name of rivers, but others do not contain any water in the dry ſeaſon. The whole have their ſources principally in the mountain. A traveller, who was lately on this iſland, ſays, "Every thing here differs from what is ſeen in Europe; even the herbage of the country. The ſoil is almoſt every where of a reddiſh colour, and mixed with veins of iron, which are frequently found near the ſurface, in the form of grain, the ſize of a pea. In the drier parts, eſpecially near the town, the ground is very hard; it reſembles pipe clay; and to make trenches of it, they cut it with axes as they do lead. As ſoon as it rains it becomes ſoft and ſticky, notwithſtanding which they have not yet been able to make it into bricks." There is no real ſand in the ſoil, but the ground is every where rocky, except where artificial means have been uſed to make it otherwiſe. The rocky ſubſtances, in general, are of an iron grey colour, contain a great deal of iron ore, and vitrify in the fire.

Productions, Vegetable and Animal, &c.

ON the Iſland of Mauritius is a turf which grows in beds near the ſea ſhore: it is very thick and elaſtic: its leaf is very ſmall, and ſo ſharp pointed as to prick peoples cloaths. The cattle will not touch this herb, but love to browze upon a kind of dog's-graſs, which grows in many parts, and buts out little hard branches from the joints. The beſt herb, however, is one that grows on the windward ſide of the iſland: it has largiſh blades, or rather leaves, and is green and tender all the year.

Here is likewiſe a ſhrub that yields a kind of fruit, whoſe huſk might be turned to ſingular advantage; a prickly aſparagus; a mallow with ſmall leaves; a thiſtle with yellow flowers, which yield ſeeds which are poiſonous; a kind of ſweet-ſcented lilly; a bad ſcented gilliflower; and ſweet-baſil, which is of a healing quality.

The plants called raquettes, which bear yellow flowers, are uſed on account of their ſharp prickles, in making hedges. The velantier is a plant whoſe odour is quite agreeable at a diſtance, leſs ſo as you approach it and perfectly nauſeous when you come quite near it: and here is a kind of bramble that bears a nut, the kernel of which is bitter, but efficacious in many diſorders of the body.

Balm ſhrubs, and a baſtard kind of potatoe, are common, as is pannier graſs, which latter ſerves for phyſic and cloathing; for it is uſed medicinally, and likewiſe to make thread. There are likewiſe many other ſhrubs, which have not particular names aſſigned them.

The Europeans ſeem to have been particularly attentive to the improvement of the vegetable ſyſtem in this iſland, and that in all its variety. By means of culture, it produces, in great abundance, the different articles which ſerve either to gratify the palate or the ſight. The inhabitants have every thing deſirable both in the kitchen, fruit, and flower gardens; a conſideration that muſt equally conduce to health and pleaſure.

The only quadrupeds natural to this iſland are monkies and rats. The latter are very deſtructive to the corn and fruit, among which they make terrible havock.

The birds here called corbigeaux are reckoned the beſt game on the iſland, but they are very difficult to catch. There are parrots, paroquets, two ſorts of tropic birds, pigeons, and black birds, which are a kind of game, and much admired by the natives.

There is a kind of amphibious crab that make burrows under ground, like moles; they run very faſt and when attacked will ſnap their claws by way of defence.

The moſt extraordinary creature here is that called Barnard l'Hermite: it is a kind of lobſter, whoſe hinder part is not provided with a ſhell; but it inſtinctively lodges itſelf in empty ſhells which it finds on the ſhore. They run together in great numbers, each with its houſe after it, which it abandons for a larger one as it advances in growth.

There are great numbers of inſects in this iſland, the moſt deſtructive among which are the graſs-hoppers. Ants are alſo numerous, and very troubleſome in the houſes, as it is a difficult matter to ſecure the proviſions from being deſtroyed by them.

Here are likewiſe waſps, ſpiders, various kinds of flies, centipedes, and lizards. Moths, or ſmall butterflies, ſo infect the houſes after dark, that they are obliged to put their candles into glaſs cylinders. Theſe flies draw into the houſe a very beautiful lizard; it is about five inches long, and has bright and ſparkling eyes: it climbs along the walls, and lives upon flies and other inſects: they are not in the leaſt miſchievous; but, on the contrary, ſo tame, that if ſugar is thrown on the ground, they will immediately come and take it.

The

The greateſt enemy to the inſects is the ſpider, ſome of which have bellies as big as a nut, with large paws, covered with hair. Their webs are ſo ſtrong, that even ſmall birds are ſometimes caught in them. They are of particular uſe in deſtroying the waſps and centipedes.

There is an inſect here called formicaleo, which is particularly deſtructive to the ants; and another named cancrelas, of which there are three ſorts: the moſt common are about the ſize of a cock-chafer, of a reddiſh brown; another ſort of them is flat, of a grey colour. The houſes are greatly peſtered with them, eſpecially in wet weather; and they are very deſtructive to furniture and books.

The temperate of the climate is ſo favourable to the propagation of inſects, that in a ſhort time the fruits would be eaten up by them, and the iſland itſelf become uninhabitable, but moſt of the fruits of the meridional countries are cloathed with a thick rind, and afterwards with a ſkin, a very hard ſhell, and an aromatic bark, like the orange or citron; inſomuch that the flies can introduce their eggs into very few of them only. Many of theſe noxious animals are at perpetual war with each other. The formicaleos lay ſnares for the ant; the green fly pierces the cancrelas; the lizard hunts the butterfly; the ſpiders ſpread nets for every inſect that flies; and the hurricane, which rages once a year, annihilates at once a great part both of the prey and of the devourers.

As the Europeans have tranſplanted a variety of articles in the vegetable ſyſtem into this iſland, ſo have they, by importation, propagated numbers of animals. Among theſe are horſes, oxen, ſheep, and hogs. The horſes are ſmall and very dear. The oxen are indifferent; but the ſheep and hogs exceeding good.

They have various kinds of poultry; but the moſt common are ducks and fowls, the former of which were brought from Manilla, and the latter from Europe. They have alſo a ſmall ſpecious fowl from China, whoſe fleſh is exceeding delicate.

The wild fowl are pintatoes, Chineſe pheaſants, pigeons, and three ſorts of partridges: theſe birds always rooſt on the tops of trees, to ſecure themſelves from being deſtroyed by the rats.

Among the ſmall birds is a very beautiful one called the Titmouſe, which has a number of white ſpots on the wings. There is alſo another brought from Bengal, called the cardinal, whoſe head, neck and belly, at a particular part of the year, is of a lively red, and the reſt of the plumage of a party-coloured grey.

The moſt propagating bird in this iſland is that called the martin, which, in ſize, colour, and aptitude to talk, greatly reſembles the Engliſh ſtarling. It will perch upon, and peck at beaſts, without fear; but its chief prey is the graſs-hopper, which it purſues with an unwearied perſeverance. They always fly in pairs, and conſtantly aſſemble at ſun ſet in very conſiderable flocks. Their fleſh is very indifferent eating, notwithſtanding which the ſhooting them is prohibited.

There are two ſorts of birds brought from the Cape, one of which is called the gardener's friend. It is of a brown colour about the ſize of a large ſparrow, and lives upon worms, ſnails, and ſmall ſerpents, which it not only eats when preſſed by hunger, but makes an ample ſtore of by ſticking them on the prickles of the hedges. The other Cape bird is much like the Engliſh ſky lark, and is the only inhabitant of this iſland that is heard to ſing. They were firſt brought here as curioſities, but ſome of them eſcaped to the woods, where they bred ſo faſt, that they are now exceeding numerous.

In the ponds and lakes are two ſorts of foreign fiſh, one of which is the Chineſe gold-fiſh: theſe thrive equally well as in their own climate; but as they increaſe in bulk, they loſe their beauty. The other is called Gourami, and was imported from Batavia. It is a freſh-water fiſh, about the ſize of a ſalmon; but the taſte of it is far ſuperior, and it is reckoned the beſt fiſh in India.

We ſhall now mention an animal of a very ſingular nature, which M. Buffon calls the great Madagaſcar bat, yet as it is common not only to the iſland of Madagaſcar, but to the iſlands of Bourbon and Mauritius, and particularly predominates in the latter, we think proper here to deſcribe it. But it is neceſſary to premiſe, that the bats ſeen in Great Britain are inoffenſive, incapable from their ſize of injuring mankind, and not ſufficiently numerous to incommode them: but here there is a larger race of bats that are truely formidable: a ſingle one is a dangerous enemy; but when they unite in flocks they become really dreadful. Des Marchais ſays, that if the inhabitants of the African coaſt were to eat animals of the bat kind, as they do in the Eaſt Indies, they would never want a ſupply of proviſions. They are ſo numerous, that when they fly they obſcure the ſetting ſun: early in the morning they are ſeen ſticking upon the tops of trees, and clinging together in great heaps. The Europeans often amuſe themſelves in ſhooting them, and the negroes are expert in killing them: they, however, look on the bat with horror, and would not eat it if they were ſtarving.

This animal is about a foot long, from the tip of the noſe to the inſertion of the tail; and its extent, from the tip of one wing to that of the other, is about four feet. It has large canine teeth; that is to ſay, four cutting teeth above, and four below. The noſe is black and ſharp, the ears large and naked, and the talons crooked, ſtrong, and compreſſed ſideways; but it is without a tail. Theſe animals differ in colour, ſome being of a bright red, others of a brown, and others of a dark duſky colour. It reſembles the common bat in its internal conformation, in the form of its wings, and the manner of its flying. When theſe creatures repoſe, they ſtick themſelves upon the tops of the talleſt trees, and hang with their heads downwards; but at other times they frequently ſettle upon animals, and even upon man. They devour indiſcriminately fruits, fleſh and inſects; and are, in particular, ſo exceeding fond of the juice of the palm-tree, that they will intoxicate themſelves with it till they drop to the ground. At night they may be heard in the foreſts, and at a diſtance of more than two miles, with a moſt horrid din, but they uſually retire at the approach of day. Nothing is ſafe from the depredations of theſe noxious creatures; they deſtroy fowls and domeſtic animals, if they are not properly ſecured, and frequently faſten upon the inhabitants themſelves, attacking them in the face, and inflicting very terrible wounds. It is very probable, as M. Buffon obſerves, that the ancients took their idea of harpies from theſe fierce and voracious creatures, as they both ſeem to concur in many parts of the deſcription, being equally cruel, deformed, greedy, and uncleanly.

Perſons have been attacked by theſe creatures, and have ſometimes paſſed from a ſound ſleep into eternity, for the bat is ſo dexterous a bleeder, as to inſinuate its ſharp-pointed tongue into a vein unperceived, and to ſuck the blood till it is ſatiated, at the ſame time fanning with its wings, and agitating the air, which, in theſe hot regions, lulls the ſufferer into a ſtill ſounder ſleep. It is therefore dangerous to repoſe in the open air, or to leave open any entrance to theſe noxious animals.

Whales are frequently ſeen to the windward of this iſland; but they are not ſo large as thoſe in the northern ſeas.

Some of the fiſh near this iſland are poiſonous, and others delicate and nutritive. There is abundance of ſhell fiſh of various kinds of qualities.

The moſt generally eſteemed fiſh for eating here is a kind of turbot, called the water-pullet, the fat of which is green, and exceeding delicious. The hog-fiſh has a head which greatly reſembles a pike, and upon its back are ſeven points as large as its body, the pricks of which are very venomous: a membrane, ſtreaked with brown ſtripes, and reſembling the wing of a bat, unites them.

The paroquet-fiſh is ſo called from its exact reſemblance to the bird of that name; for it is green, hath a yellow head, and a kind of white crooked beak. The fiſhes of this ſpecies likewiſe go together in numbers, like the birds called paroquets.

The eels are of a conger kind: they are in general eight feet long; to the full as thick as a man's leg; exceeding voracious; and capable of killing any perſon they attack.

Here are numbers of lobſters, cray-fiſh and crabs: the two former are of a fine blue colour, marbled with black; and the latter is principally grey. One ſpecies hath the eyes in two long tubes like telleſcopes, which, when not in uſe, are depoſited in grooves along ſide of the ſhell.

Among the ſhell-fiſh here is one of a very ſingular nature; for the uſual order ſeems to be reverſed; the animal is on the outſide of the ſhell, the whole appearing as a ſhapeleſs maſs, ſoft and membranous, in the middle of which is a ſingle bone, or ſhell, ſmooth and arched.

The tulier, an enormous fiſh of the lobſter kind, is common here. The ſhell is ſuppoſed to be the largeſt which the ſea produces.

With reſpect to other marine productions, Mauritius, or the Iſle of France, is ſurrounded by madrepares, a kind of vegetation of ſtone formed like a plant or ſhrub. They are ſo exceedingly numerous that many of the rocks ſeem formed of them only. Among the madrepares that adorn and diverſify the ſea ſhores, are ſome exactly reſembling cauliflowers, others cabbages, wheat-ſheaves, trees, &c. Many are of the coral kind, and exhibit a prodigious variety of colours; but theſe are, in general, ſo brittle, that it is not worth while to ſend them to Europe. Star wort is ſometimes ſeen, and ambergris was formerly plentiful, but very little of it is found at preſent.

Diſpoſitions, Cuſtoms, Manners, &c. of the Inhabitants.

THE people of France, who firſt ſettled on this iſland, were ſimple, induſtrious, and hoſpitable: but when its importance was known, others came hither from France from the ſame motives, and with the ſame views, as induce Europeans in general to repair to foreign ſettlements. The leading principle of the emigrators was avarice, to which they ſacrificed both humanity and juſtice; and the ſame principle is ſtill predominant among thoſe who may be deemed the European inhabitants of the Iſland.

The people, in general, are greedy of gain; and the deſire of accumulating riches continually increaſes the population of the iſland: but was you to hear the diſcontented voice of the people, you would conceive that it muſt, in a very ſhort time, become again uninhabited; for every man declares he will go away the enſuing year; and ſome of them have made this declaration for 20 or 30 years ſucceſſively; yet they ſeem fixed to the ſpot, and remain ſtill to make the ſame declaration for years to come.

Theſe people have no taſte for arts or literature. Their houſes are mere cabins of wood, which may be eaſily removed from one place to another upon rollers. The windows have neither glaſs or curtains; and the houſes have but little furniture, and that little very plain.

In proportion to the number of people, few here are married. The people, in general, are immoderately fond of dancing; and the women in the plantations ſeldom or ever come to town but at Eaſter, to confeſs, or when a ball is announced.

The mode of travelling, particularly for women and children, is in palanquins, carried by ſlaves; for the badneſs of the roads, and unevenneſs of the ſtreets, will not admit of the uſe of wheel carriages. The women are pale, but well made, and in general handſome. They have great vivacity, and ſeem to poſſeſs minds capable of improvement. Their moſt uſual dreſs is muſlin, trimmed with roſe-coloured taffaty. They are extravagantly fond of their children; yet being ignorant themſelves, they wholly neglect their education.

The black inhabitants of the iſland are either Indians or Negroes. The Indians are Malabars, or Malayans, who come from Pondicherry, in order to article themſelves as ſervants for a certain number of years. Theſe occupy a ſpot called the Camp of the Blacks. In general they work at trades, and are ſober and thrifty. They are clad in long muſlin gowns, wear a turban on their heads, have gold rings in their ears, and ſilver bracelets on their waiſts. Some few ſerve the principal and richeſt people as running footmen. Theſe being equipped with a handſome cane, and a poignard at the girdle, effect great ſtate, and deliver the moſt trivial meſſages with an air of importance.

The Negroes, or ſlaves, are brought from Madagaſcar. Theſe are neither ſo black, or ſo badly featured, as the natives of Guinea, but reſemble the Europeans in feature, and in complexion incline to a copper colour. They are in general active, ingenious, grateful for favours, faithful when well uſed, and have a quicker ſenſe of an inſult due to any one they love, than of any perſonal injury to themſelves. After having been purchaſed at Madagaſcar, they are landed, with only a rag round their loins, at the Iſle of France, where being ſold, it frequently happens that huſbands, wives, brothers, ſiſters, friends, lovers, &c. are cruelly torn aſunder, and bidding each other a long farewell, are driven in the greateſt anguiſh to the reſpective plantations for which they are bought. Some upon theſe occaſions, have been known to turn frantic, and do miſchief, which is imputed to the horrors they conceive at the apprehenſions of the dreadful fate to which they imagine they are doomed; for it is a prevailing notion with ſome tribes of the Madagaſcar Negroes, that the white people intend eating their fleſh, making red wine of their blood, and gunpowder of their bones: nor are theſe ſtrange ideas to be wondered at, conſidering the innumerable barbarites of the whites, which have given the blacks occaſion to ſuggeſt them.

In the plantations, every day, as ſoon as the dawn begins to peep, a ſignal of three ſmacks of a horſewhip calls theſe unhappy wretches to work, when they toil through the day almoſt naked, broil in the meridian ſun's exceſſive heat, and experience the extremities of hunger and thirſt; for their food is only maize, mahioc root, or caſſiva root, and thoſe but ſcantily allowed them; and though water may be had for nothing, yet their tyrannical taſk-maſters will hardly allow them time to refreſh themſelves therewith. The moſt trivial offence is puniſhed by a moſt dreadful flagellation; after which an iron collar, with three ſharp ſpikes, is put around the unhappy offender's neck, and he is again ſent in that condition to purſue his labour. Yet, after this inhuman treatment, the poor wretch, on his return home in the evening, though, perhaps, ready to faint with the fatigues of the day, and the anguiſh of mind and body, is not permitted to retire to reſt till he has repeated a prayer for the proſperity for his worthy maſter, and has returned him the moſt reſpectful thanks for his wonderful goodneſs; a refinement upon cruelty which certainly muſt double the anguiſh of the ſtripes originally given, and could be exacted by none but minds infernally bent. This dreadful treatment extends to each ſex indiſcriminately, the females having no more mercy ſhewn them than the men.

Some years ſince the French government, for the relief of theſe miſerable wretches, inſtituted a code of laws, called the *Code Noire*, or *Black Laws*; and theſe ſtatutes enact that they ſhall receive no more than 30 laſhes for any offence whatever; that they ſhall have meat once a week, a new ſhirt annually, and not to be obliged to labour on Sundays. Theſe regulations, however, have not had the proper effect, for the planters have hitherto diſregarded the laws of the mother country, and followed only the dictatates of their own inhumanity.

When a ſtranger ſeems ſtruck with horror at theſe fights, the inhabitants coolly tell him, "You don't know the blacks, Sir. They are ſuch gluttons that they will ſteal victuals whenever they have an opportunity; and are ſo idle that they have not their maſters buſineſs at heart. And the women are ſo inattentive to their families, that they would ſooner procure an abortion than bring children into the world." Theſe are their curious arguments in excuſe for their exceſs of barbarity; when it muſt appear obvious to every thinking mind, that if they ſteal food, it is becauſe they are almoſt famiſhed; if they do not their maſters buſineſs, it is becauſe they are treated too cruelly to think kindly of them: and if the women are not fond of bringing children into the world, it is becauſe they would not have their offspring treated with the inhumanity they themſelves continually experience.

Love is ſaid to be the only paſſion which keeps the Negroes from abſolute deſpair; this cheers their drooping ſpirits, and invigorates them to go through their daily labours. For the object of their paſſion they deſpiſe dangers, and laugh at difficulties. When a Negro is in love, he will in the evening forget the fatigues of the day, and with alacrity go many miles, and run many hazards, to converſe but a few minutes with his beloved miſtreſs.

When overwhelmed by deſpair, a Negro will ſometimes attempt to get back to Madagaſcar in any little boat he can ſteal, and run the hazard of being drowned rather than continue in ſlavery. If this expedient fails, he flies to the woods, where he ſecrets himſelf in the moſt obſcure receſſes, from whence he ſometimes makes excurſions, to gratify his revenge, and obtains plunder.

Troops are frequently ſent to ferret the abſconded ſlaves from their lurking places; and ſometimes the principal people form parties of pleaſure, as they phraſe it, to hunt them; when a Negro is put up like a beaſt, and hunted down, or ſhot like any wild animal; then his head is cut off, and carried away in triumph, the unexampled trophy of the moſt atrocious cruelty.

Upon the whole, the inhabitants of this iſland are, in general, repreſented in a very odious light; but notwithſtanding the depravity of the people, the place is deemed a moſt important and improveable ſpot.

SECTION III.

THE ISLAND OF MADAGASCAR.

THIS is the largeſt of all the African iſlands, and is ſituated between 10 and 26 deg. ſouth lat. and 43 and 51 deg. eaſt long, 300 miles to the eaſtward of the continent of Africa, being upwards of 800 miles in length, and 250 in breadth. The ſea is very rough between this iſland and the continent of the Cape of Good Hope, forming a channel or paſſage, through which European ſhips, in their voyage to and from India, generally ſail, unleſs prevented by ſtorms.

Few Iſlands in the world are more pleaſant, fertile, and deſirable, than Madagaſcar. It abounds in ſugar, honey, vines, fruit trees, vegetables, gums, corn, cattle, and fowls; likewiſe precious ſtones, gold, ſilver, copper, ſteel, tin, &c. &c. It preſents to the view an agreeable variety of hills, vallies, woods, and open plains, watered by numerous rivers, which are well ſtored with fiſh. The air is rendered cool and healthy by the conſtant breezes from the ſea.

There is a fountain of hot water in the iſland, eſteemed a ſovereign remedy in nervous diſorders, and taken inwardly, cures aſthmas, and expels wind.

The animal productions of this iſland, as well as thoſe of the vegetable kind, are very numerous, as well as various.

This iſland is divided into many provinces or diſtricts, inhabited by people of different complexions and religions, ſome white, ſome tawny, and ſome black; ſome Mahometans, and ſome Pagans. Theſe ſeveral provinces are perpetually at war with each other, not from a deſire of ſubduing each others territories, but in order to plunder each other of their goods and cattle, and to make ſlaves of their captives.

Perſons, Cuſtoms, Manners, &c. of the People of Madagaſcar.

THOSE of a deep tawny complexion, who inhabit the coaſts, are deſcended from the Arabs, as is evident from their language and religious rites: but by what accident, or at what period of time, they came to this iſland, ſo remote from their own country, is not known. They are repreſented, by French writers in particular, as flattering, deceitful, and perfidious in the extreme; but others ſpeak of them with more liberality and candour. They are tall, nimble, and have a proud gait.

Wild people are found in ſome parts of this iſland, who let their hair and beards grow, go almoſt naked, inhabit thick and unfrequented woods, avoid meeting their fellow natives, live upon wild cattle, fruits, roots, honey, locuſts, &c.

The people of Madagaſcar have but a very ſlender knowledge of commerce, and knowing but little of arts or ſciences, apply themſelves particularly to agriculture, the breeding of cattle, or hunting of game. Their country, was it not ſo greatly neglected, might be rendered extremely opulent. From the number of ſilk-worms, with proper management, ſilk might be made a ſtaple commodity; but the views of the people extend only to the abſolute neceſſaries of life, ſuch as common proviſions, mean habitations, and a little wearing apparel. All may be ſaid to be architects, according to the cuſtom of the country, becauſe every individual is capable of erecting a hut for himſelf. The different mechanics are ſmiths, carpenters, turners, &c. There are alſo rope-makers, and numbers of fiſhermen. The chief tools of the carpenters are a plane, a wedge, and a rule. The fiſhermen uſe draw-nets, well-baſkets, hooks, and harpoons; and exchange their fiſh with the inland inhabitants for rice, yams, roots, cotton, and other neceſſaries. Some, however, they dry, to ſerve as occaſion requires.

The women alone are employed in ſpinning, and make various ſorts of ſtuffs from flax, as alſo threads from the barks of trees.

Agriculture is practiſed with leſs trouble in Madagaſcar than in Europe, becauſe the manner is more ſimple. No plough is employed in the tillage of land; an axe for felling the limbs of trees, a bill for lopping off the branches, and an implement called faugah, for grubbing the roots and weeds, are their ſole inſtruments. The arms and branches of trees, when dry, by being burnt to aſhes, greatly enrich the ground; and this ſoil is afterwards proper for the productions of yams, rice, &c.

Theſe people are much addicted to ſinging and dancing; the women, in particular, are very fond of ſinging, and compoſe verſes extempore, which, though not ſtrictly poetical, ſhews an aptitude of genius, and ready turn of wit. Their ſongs are either panegyrics on the remarkable actions of their anceſtors and heroes, of an amorous turn, or of a ſatirical nature. They have three kinds of muſical inſtruments, conſtructed in a manner peculiar to themſelves.

The riches of the inhabitants conſiſt in cattle, which the men look after, and in the fields of rice and roots, which the women ſow. Gold and ſilver ſerve only for ornaments. They make paans and carpets of cotton of divers colours: and as they have no looms, but only ſticks laid on the ground, which they raiſe by turns to make the woof, they cannot work very faſt.

Here are cities, towns, and villages, nobles and ſlaves. The cities contain houſes, or rather huts, and are ſurrounded with ditches ſix feet deep, and as many broad, with palliſadoes within on the banks of the ditch. The donac (for ſo they call the lord's houſe) is built with

with boards, raiſed about ſix feet above ground, and covered with leaves. The other habitations are ſo low that one cannot enter them without ſtooping. The towns are encompaſſed only with ſtakes drove into the ground; and the villages have neither ſtakes or ditches. Four Negroes take up a hut on their ſhoulders, and carry it where they pleaſe. When a lord viſits another, the perſon viſited lends the other one of his wives, which the viſitor likes beſt.

Their houſehold furniture conſiſts only of ruſh mats, which are either of a yellow or red colour, and are neatly made and ſtrung. The floors on which they lie are covered with theſe mats, without bed, bolſter, quilt, or any ſort of covering, and the pillow is only a log of wood. Their cloaths, lambers, girdles or ſaravohits, cotton, effects, and all ornaments are kept in baſkets; and oils for the body and hair in earthen pitchers. Their kitchen furniture conſiſts of earthen pots, called villangues louvies, ſafes, monangees, and ſines, wooden diſhes and ſpoons, dryed gourds or calabaſhes to hold water, knives, gridirons, mortars to pound rice, troughs, and winnowing fans, with large veſſels for honey wine. The leaves of dates, twelve feet long and four broad, are uſed inſtead of napkins, and ſmall portions ſerve as plates. Theſe are ſpread upon mats on the ground, for neither tables or chairs are uſed.

The Negroes go naked, excepting their middles, which they cover with a linen called lambers: and ſome of the women uſe ſaravohits, or drawers, with an aezrn, or long robe without ſleeves, hanging down to the ancles, and a piece of linen before, ſewed at both ends like an apron. Some of them go without any covering on their head or feet, except the inhabitants of Manghabei, as the men in that province wear a ſquare cap, and the women a hood, pointed at top, and hanging down upon the ſhoulders. The dreſſes are of different colours and names.

Polygamy is practiſed throughout the iſland, and the people in general are exceeding incontinent, which may be owing to the extremes that actuate either ſex; the men having too much freedom, and the women being under too much reſtraint.

The Negroes here have no other marriage ceremony than agreeing to cohabit together; but their maſters have a ceremony in being joined, or married, to the head wife; but their other wives they take with as little form as the Negroes do theirs.

The ceremonials practiſed at funerals are as follow. The relations waſh and cleanſe the body of the defunct, and then adorn it with the moſt coſtly ornaments which the defunct wore when living. It is then wrapped up in a mat, in order to be carried in that manner to the grave. The head of a woman's corpſe is uſually embelliſhed with a kind of cap. The heads and beards of men of rank, when defunct, are clean ſhaved. Previous to the time of burial, the corpſe lies in ſtate for ſome days, during which time a light is continually burnt at its feet; and all the relations, friends, and ſlaves, frequently ſurround the corpſe, and make the moſt diſmal lamentations. Having tired themſelves with bewailing, the women fall a dancing, and the men have recourſe to warlike exerciſes. At length they all ſurround the body again, call the dead by his name, very gravely expoſtulate with him for dying, and pathetically demand whether he had not every thing that could ſatisfy him in this life, ſuch as beautiful and faithful wives, dutiful children, loving friends, induſtrious ſlaves, a ſufficiency of gold, ſilver, iron, cattle, &c. It may not be improper to obſerve, that this burleſque method of howling over, and interrogating the dead, is not peculiar to the inhabitants of Madagaſcar, as many other nations have the ſame cuſtom; and even in Europe ſome perſons retain theſe abſurd ceremonials at this preſent time.

On the day of interment the corpſe is carried to the burying-place, which is named Amounoque, in a coffin made of hollow trunks of trees, curiouſly cloſed together, and there it is depoſited ſix feet deep, under a ſtrong hut, in which are left plates, diſhes apparel, rice, tobacco &c. that the dead may want no neceſſary accommodation.

If a perſon of diſtinction dies at a diſtance from home, his body is burned upon the ſpot; but his head, having been previouſly cut off, is carried home, and interred in a proper ſepulchre, with the uſual funeral rites. But perſons ſlain in war, who have been haſtily buried in or near the field of battle, are, in times of peace, again dug up, and re-buried in the uſual form, provided the ſpace from the time of interment is not ſo conſiderable as to admit of an almoſt total putrefaction.

The inhabitants of Madagaſcar hold the memory of their anceſtors in the utmoſt eſteem and veneration; their greateſt and moſt ſolemn oaths being to ſwear by the ſouls of their predeceſſors, or the virtues of their parents.

When any perſon is ſick, the neareſt relations apply to the ombiaſſe, or prieſt, who goes by night to the amounoque, or ſepulchre of the father, or, if the father is ſtill living, to that of the grandfather of the afflicted perſon; then making a hole in the monument, he places a kind of cap upon the aperture, and begins his incantations with ſeveral grimaces, invoking the ſpirit of the deceaſed to take pity on the perſon diſordered, and reſtore his helpleſs progeny to help and vigour.

The common diet of the iſlanders is cow's milk, rice, and roots. They ſometimes roaſt large pieces of beef, with the hide on. They drink water and honey-wine. But they have neither bread nor grape-wine. The honey wine is a compoſition of three parts of water to one of honey, which they boil together, and ſkim, after it is reduced to three fourths. They afterwards put it to work in large pots of black earth made in this iſland. This wine has a very pleaſant tartiſh taſte, but is too luſcious. The wine made of ſugar-canes is ſtill more unwholeſome.

The ſmallneſs of the number of inhabitants of this iſland in proportion to this extent may be imputed to the horrid cruelties exerciſed on their children, in ſtrangling them in the birth, or ſacrificing them to demons, at the inſtance of the ombiaſſes or prieſts, who hold an uncontrouled power over their minds.

Like the ancient Romans, theſe people have what they call their lucky and unlucky times, by which their actions are in general governed.

The ſame language is ſpoke throughout the iſland, through differently pronounced in different provinces.

The inhabitants of Madagaſcar are tolerably expert at caſting up ſums. Like the Arabians and Europeans, they reckon from one to ten, and after ten add the number one, as far as twenty.

With reſpect to their weights and meaſures, they uſe none higher than a drachm: for as they weigh no articles whatever, gold and ſilver excepted, drachm weights are deemed ſufficient, all other commodities being ſold by way of barter or exchange.

Madagaſcar paper is made with fewer inſtruments and engines than the European. The bark of the tree Avo is boiled two days in good lye, made of the aſhes of the ſame tree, till it becomes ſoft and ſupple, then waſhed in clear water, beat to a proper conſiſtency, and afterwards poured on mats made of exquiſitely fine reeds, twiſted and regularly joined together, in order to be drained, and become paper. After this it is placed on a leaf of balliſier, oiled with menachil, to dry in the ſun. Each dryed leaf is afterwards dipped in a decoction of rice, to prevent it from remaining ſpongy; then being dried once more, it becomes ſmooth, even, and fit for uſe. Their ink is extracted, by way of decoction, from the wood called arandranto, which is likewiſe made uſe of by the principal people for building. The extract being mixed with verdigris, becomes exceeding black. The pens are made of bamboo, and are cut to the ſame ſize, faſhioned after a ſimiliar manner, and rendered almoſt as tranſparent as European quills.

The

The trade of this iſland is rather of a domeſtic than foreign nature, as the natives have very confined ideas, and imperfect notions of foreign traffic. Among themſelves, they barter commodity for commodity, as no ſuch thing as currency is eſtabliſhed throughout the whole iſland. Even if they obtain any gold or ſilver coins from the Europeans, who ſometimes touch here, they immediately melt them down, in order to convert them into ear-rings, bracelets, &c. The domeſtic trade is of this nature: the people of the cotton provinces take care to cultivate that article, and then take it to the provinces, which abound in cattle, rice, &c. Having traucked or bartered commodities, the wants of each are ſupplied; for thoſe who have plenty of proviſions are by theſe means ſupplied with cloathing, and thoſe who can eaſily procure apparel in their own country are furniſhed with proviſions, in which their own provinces might be deficient. Thus the exchange of the produce of one province for that of another is the whole of their domeſtic, or inland trade.

The foreign trade, or rather traffic, which ſome of the inhabitants carry on with the European ſhips that ſometimes touch here, conſiſts of exchanging freſh proviſions, ſapphires, rubies, emeralds, corneiians and other precious ſtones found in the country, &c. for yellow wires, hard wares and ſmall wares of all ſorts, looking-glaſſes, beads, fire arms, coral of any ſize or colour, pierced through for ſtringing, &c.

Hence their riches conſiſt in the wares and commodities which they thus procure; in the bills, hatchets, knives, lances, iron and ſteel ſpades, lambers, &c. which they make; in the ſlaves they take in war, or ſteal in times of peace; in the cattle which they breed; and in the lands which they cultivate.

Moſt of the princes or ſovereigns of the different territories in this iſland are related to each other, and ſo are their great lords and inferior ſubjects, by continual intermarriages: yet they are perpetually quarrelling with and waging war againſt each other; private family diſpuſes often occaſion open ruptures, and the reſentment of an individual will induce ſome thouſands to commit hoſtilities. Theſe domeſtic wars are purſued with more rancour and hatred than a war with a foreign enemy would be; for when relations or friends differ, they entertain a greater implacability againſt each other than ſtrangers, when they happen to be at enmity. This ſentiment is finely illuſtrated in the following lines by William Whitehead, Eſq. poet laureat, in his ode for the new year, performed before his majeſty on the 1ſt of January 1778.

When rival nations, great in arms,
  Great in power, in glory great,
Fill the world with war's alarms,
  And breathe a temporary hate,
The hoſtile ſtorms but rage awhile,
  And the try'd conteſt ends;
But ah! how hard to reconcile
  The foes who once were friends.

Each haſty word, each look unkind,
  Each diſtant hint that ſeems to mean
A ſomething lurking in the mind
  Which almoſt longs to lurk unſeen.
Each ſhadow of a ſhade offends
Th' embitter'd foes who once were friends.

That pow'r alone, who fram'd the ſoul,
  And bade the ſprings of paſſion play,
Can all their jarring ſtrings controul,
  And form on diſcord concord's ſway.
'Tis he alone whoſe breath of love,
Did o'er the world of waters move,
  Whoſe touch the mountains bends,
Whoſe word from darkneſs call'd forth light,
'Tis he alone can reunite
  The foes who once were friends.

In war their engagements are ſeldom regular: they chiefly depend on ſurprize and ambuſcade, and ſacrifice courage to ſtratagem. When the proſpect of advantage offers, they uſually aſſemble privately, act with the utmoſt caution and privacy, gain the enemy's frontiers by forced marches in the night, and attack them ſuddenly and unexpectedly: if ſucceſs attends their arms, they commit the moſt cruel ravages: if they meet with an unexpected repulſe they retreat with the utmoſt precipitation. But good or bad ſucceſs are equally fatal to the country; if they are fortunate they deſtroy all before them as they advance; if unfortunate, they lay the country waſte as they retreat.

Sometimes the prince of a territory gives notice to the lords, who are his ſubjects, to aſſemble their forces ſeparately, and to march by different routs to a certain place of rendezvous, in order to come ſuddenly upon, and attack the towns of their enemies, which they ſurround, and advance to with the moſt dreadful ſhouts; and if ſucceſsful, they maſſacre all they meet with in them, ſparing neither age nor ſex. After this ſanguinary heat is over, if they meet with any other of the adverſe party, or overtake any fugitives, they make ſlaves of them; but uſually put to death thoſe who are allied to the chiefs, fearing, if they ſhould ſurvive, they will at ſome future time become formidable.

If they are threatened to be attacked by others, they change their place of reſidence, drive their women and cattle in the moſt private receſſes, or places that are difficult of acceſs, and conſequently may be eaſily defended. Thus their paſſions prompt them to plunder each other, and their perpetual dangers inſenſibly give them policy; but during theſe ravages all parties think themſelves right: the prince thinks it his duty to prevent any neighbours from be coming too powerful for his own people, and fancies it incumbent on himſelf to cruſh ſuch aſpirers: the people deem it their duty to obey their prince, who has their good at heart; all ſee through the medium of their paſſions, and fancy the means juſt if the motive or propoſed end is ſo. It is ſelf-love and reaſon at ſtriſe, and the improper uſe of either occaſions all their miſcarriages.

Two principles in human nature reign;
Self-love, to urge; and reaſon to reſtrain;
Nor this a good, nor that a bad we call,
Each works its end, to move or govern all:
And to their proper operation ſtill,
Aſcribe all good; to their improper, ill.
  Self-love, the ſpring of motion, acts the ſoul;
Reaſon's comparing balance rules the whole.
Man, but for that, no action could attend,
And, but for this, were active to no end;
Fix'd like a plant on his peculiar ſpot,
To draw nutrition, propagate, and rot;
Or, meteor-like, flame lawleſs through the void,
Deſtroying others, by himſelf deſtroy'd.
  Modes of ſelf-love, the paſſions we may call:
'Tis real good, or ſeeming, moves them all;
But ſince not ev'ry good we can divide,
And reaſon bids us for our own provide;
Paſſions though ſelfiſh, if their means be fair,
Liſt under reaſon, and deſerve her care;
Thoſe that imparted, court a nobler aim,
Exalt their kind, and take ſome virtue's name.

Sometimes parties of only 40 or 50 are ſent to plunder and deſtroy the leſſer villages and hamlets, and theſe light detachments are called ſanvouve. If opportunity ſerves, the towns are reduced to aſhes; but if they are under any apprehenſion that the flames will exaſperate the neighbouring inhabitants, who might immediately purſue them, or cut off their retreat, they ſatisfy themſelves with only plundering the towns without burning them.

Their weapons are different in different parts of the iſland. Some make uſe of a dart, with an iron point long

long and thick, and carry beſides 15 leſſer darts. Others uſe an ample ſhield, and a large dart called caubahi, but the generality uſe lances as well as darts, and the great men carry fire arms; for to carry a lance only is the badge of being a perſon of common or vulgar rank, but to bear a gun upon the ſhoulder ſhews dignity, and indicates that the bearer ranks in the firſt claſs.

The Madagaſcarians have little notion of diſcipline. When an enemy falls he is immediately pierced thro' with darts, by as many as can get near him, and his throat is afterwards cut from ear to ear.

During the time of war the women keep continually dancing (alternately) by day and night, never ſleep or eat in their town houſes, and however addicted to incontinency, upon no account whatever ſuffer the company of another man whilſt their huſbands are expoſed to danger, perſuaded that they (the huſbands) would be killed or wounded, by infidelity in their abſence, and believe them to be animated by their continual dancing, and their ſtrength and courage encreaſed; wherefore they keep up their dancing during the war, by the moſt ſuperſtitious obſervance of the cuſtoms and ceremonies.

When peace is made between contending princes, they bind themſelves to amicable behaviour by ſolemn, and, we may add, horrid imprecations.

The perpetual enmity in which the Madagaſcarians ſeem to live with each other ariſes either from jealouſy or theft; but while the former occaſions many private animoſities, the latter uſually terminates in war, Princes and nobles themſelves make no manner of conſcience of ſtealing their neighbour's cattle privately, and their neighbours return them the compliment whenever an opportunity offers. In this manner it ſometimes only prompts to retaliation; but, at other times, it occaſions open hoſtilities.

During ſome part of Mr. Drury's captivity in this iſland he was a ſlave to a chief of great conſequence, who was however, very fond of ſtealing his neighbour's cattle privately. As the diſtreſs of Mr. Drury, when he firſt went with his maſter on one of theſe expeditions, is rather whimſical, we ſhall quote it for the entertainment of the reader. "My maſter (ſays he) attended by ſeveral of his ſlaves, took me with him one evening into the woods. I obſerved great preparations made for killing and dreſſing a bullock, or ſome ſuch thing; but there being none to kill, and it being then dark, I perceived that they walked with great circumſpection, talked ſoftly, and teſtified all the ſymptoms of ſome ſecret deſign: upon this the tears ſtood in my eyes, imagining that they intended to cut me up, and make a meal of me; but my fright was ſoon over when I ſaw two ſlaves hawling along a bullock by a rope faſtened to his horns, and my maſter ſtriking his lance into his throat in order to diſpatch him. They immediately cut up his carcaſe, and dreſſed the entrails after their own manner. The booty was equally divided, and I obſerved that each man took care to hide his portion in ſome private place, from whence he might convey it away by night. As ſoon as our buſineſs was over we parted, ſome one way and ſome another, for fear of being taken notice of. I now plainly perceived that we were all this time plundering our neighbours."

After the men return from war, or from a grand hunting match of wild cattle, when they enter their town or village the wives or ſlaves of the chiefs come creeping from their reſpective huts, and lick their feet in a moſt reſpectful manner; and when this ceremony is performed, the wives and ſlaves of the other great men, and even the wives of ſlaves themſelves, all act in a ſimilar manner to teſtify their homage and ſubmiſſion to their reſpective huſbands; but when they return from their thieving-matches, or ſtealing their neighbour's tame cattle, not the leaſt notice is taken of their having been abſent.

As the hunting of wild cattle is one of the principal diverſions of theſe people, we ſhall give ſome account of the nature of it in the words of Mr. Drury, as his relation is both more authentic and more curious than any other. "It was now night (ſays he) and they were going a beef-hunting: when they ſet out on purpoſe to kill the beaſts, they always make choice of the darkeſt nights. They permitted me, on my requeſt, to accompany them, but firſt ordered me to waſh myſelf, as they themſelves did, that we might not ſmell either of ſmoak or ſweat. I would have taken two lances, according to cuſtom, but they obliged me to leave one behind me, leſt two together might rattle in my hand. Theſe cattle feed only in the night, and if all theſe precautions were not taken they could never be ſurprized, for they are always on their guard, ſnorting with their noſes, and liſtening after their purſuers. We can hear them roar and bellow a great way off; from which we know where they are, and we are forced always to go round, till they are directly to the windward of us, for otherwiſe they would ſoon ſcent us. As ſoon as we had got the wind and cattle right a-head, and were within hearing, we walked with all the circumſpection imaginable, cropping the top of the graſs with our hands as cloſe as poſſible, to mimick as well as we could the noiſe a cow makes when ſhe bites it. The moment they heard us, they were all huſh, not one of them bellowed or grazed, but ſeemed to liſten with the utmoſt attention; which, when we perceived, we all ſtood ſtill likewiſe without a whiſper, whilſt three or four, who underſtood the nature of it beſt, continued cropping the graſs. When the cattle had liſtened till, as we imagined, they took us for ſome of their own ſpecies, they returned to their grazing, and we walked with caution nearer, ſtill mimicking them as we moved ſoftly along. Deean Murnanzac (one of the chiefs) ordered me to keep behind, leſt they ſhould diſcern my white ſkin, and be ſtartled; he alſo gave me his lamber to cover myſelf, which was a large piece of black ſilk, ſo that if I had been near them they could have ſeen nothing but by face, the graſs being above knee deep.

"At length we got amongſt them, ſo that one of our men, as he told me, with ſome graſs in his hand and under the cover of a buſh, took hold of the dug of a cow, and, finding ſhe gave no milk, concluded ſhe was not lean; for which reaſon he ſtruck his lance inſtantly into her belly, and drew it out again, making no other motion. The cow, thus wounded, will give a ſpring, perhaps, and make a noiſe, as if another had run her horns againſt her; but this is ſo common among them, that the herd is not any ways diſturbed by it, ſo that our people ſtruck three or four after this manner, and left them with an intention to come the next morning and trace them by their blood; for it is very dangerous to keep too near them in the night. As ſoon as they find themſelves ſorely wounded, they run from their companions, and will attack the firſt man they ſee. They are generally found actually dead, or fallen down in ſome wood, or ſhelter of buſhes, as if they induſtriouſly endeavoured to conceal themſelves.

"A day or two after this beef-hunting we had an accidental diverſion of another kind: our dogs had got the ſcent of ſome wild hogs that had got into a thicket and were very buſy running round it, but could find no entrance for a conſiderable time. At length, however, they found the path which the ſwine had made, and attempted to enter the wood by it: the paſſage was defended by a large boar, who fought the dogs with great fury, and wounded one of them in a very deſperate manner: now what with the dogs on one hand, and the ſwine on the other, there was ſuch a yelping, grunting, and howling, that the woods rang with their noiſe, and one would have imagined all the hogs in the iſland had met there by conſent. We laid down our burdens and ſome of us went up to them armed with guns and lances; Deean Murnanzac ſhot the boar that wounded his dog, whereupon another, in an inſtant, defended the entrance, and fought ſo reſolutely, that neither the dogs or ourſelves could come near the cattle that were within, till we had made a paſſage behind them with our hatchets and lances; and then fired upon ſome of the moſt reſolute

reſolute who turned upon us. The reſt, perceiving themſelves attacked behind, fought their way through the dogs, and ran away with the dogs after them; when words cannot deſcribe the noiſe there was, eſpecially after a number of them were wounded.

With reſpect to religion, the people of this iſland have no moſques, temples, or any ſtated places of worſhip, and entertaining a very imperfect notion of religion in general. They offer ſacrifices, and thoſe of the moſt horrid nature, on particular occaſions. Some of them obſerve the Jewiſh ſabbath, and are ſaid to have ſome knowledge of events recorded in ſacred hiſtory, from whence it has been conjectured that they are deſcended from the Jews; but the greater part are idolators.

The inhabitants of Madagaſcar practiſe circumciſion, the ceremony of which is performed every third year; at which time they build a hall raiſed upon wooden pillars, and encompaſſed with a palliſade of ſtakes. The great lord of the province kills a bull, and having ſpilt the blood of it, mixed with honey-wine, round the building, he opens the palliſade, and plants at that opening a banana-tree with leaves and fruit, on which he hangs a girdle, tainted with the blood of the bull; after which that place is looked upon as ſacred: no perſon approaches it but with the utmoſt reſpect, and none enter it. The fathers of the children who are to be circumciſed faſt during the firſt eight days of the moon of March; and the laſt day they walk abroad two and two, carrying the children on their ſhoulders, wrapped up in paans. The young men who are not married follow them, and holding their ſabres in their hands, they make threatening motions with them, as though they were going to attack an enemy. After they have walked three times round the donac, or lord's houſe, they ſtop before the door, and dividing themſelve into two troops, they exerciſe themſelves a long while in feigned attacks, till being tired at laſt, they are obliged to ſit down on mats prepared for them. The next day a prieſt, or marabut, performs ſome ludicrous rites. The day appointed being come, the lord, ſitting at the entry of the hall, receives, on a table covered with paans of carpets, the offerings of the mothers. Then he enters into the hall, and ſits down in the middle of it, and the fathers holding their children on a very ſmooth ſtone, the lord performs the operation; which done, the father immediately cuts the throat of a chicken, makes the blood of it drop in the ground, and gives the child back to the mother, who dipping cotton into the blood of the ox that has been killed, and into that of the chicken alſo, ties it about the wound.

The following is their method of thankſgiving after a ſucceſsful war. The inhabitants have in all their houſes a ſmall portable utenſil, which is devoted to religious uſes, and is a kind of houſehold altar, which they call the owley. It is made of a peculiar wood, in ſmall pieces, neatly joined, and making almoſt the form of a half-moon, with the horns downwards, between which are placed two alligators teeth. This is adorned with various kinds of heads, and ſuch a ſaſh faſtened to it behind, as a man ties about his waiſt when he goes to war. They bring two forks, and fix them in the ground, on which is laid a beam, ſlender at each end, and about ſix feet long, with two or three pegs in it, and upon this they hang the owley. Behind it is a long pole, to which a bullock is faſtened with a cord. They have a pan full of live coals, upon which they throw an aromatic gum, and plant it under the owley. Then they take a ſmall quantity of hair from the tail, chin, and eye-brows of the ox, and put them on the owley. Then the ombias uſes ſome particular geſtures with a knife in his hand, and makes a formal incantation, in which the people join. In the next place they throw the ox on the ground, with his legs tied together, and the prieſt cuts his throat. Thus the ceremony ends, and this is deemed an oblation for having obtained a victory over an enemy.

The political and civil government of Madagaſcar ſeems, upon the whole, founded upon principles of rectitude, and thereby tending to ſalutary purpoſes. There are obligatory laws on the princes, as well as on individual ſubjects. Proviſional laws, reſpecting retribution, reſtitution, criminal converſation, aſſaults, theſts, &c. are calculated to ſecure the property, honour, and perſons of the people, and would do credit to the moſt civilized ſtate. Their laws are as follow.

To lie with one of the ſovereign's wives is death by the law of the prince, or the prerogative law.

If a man borrows an ox or a cow of his neighbour, and does not return it in a year's time, ſix calves are looked upon as an equivalent for the ox; and if he neglects payment at that time, thoſe calves are ſuppoſed to be three ſteers, and three heifers, and their increaſe, which, by a fair computation, ariſes by their growth and production, is the man's right of whom the beaſt is borrowed. And if it goes on for ten years, or any longer term, it is computed what three bulls and three cows might produce in that time, and all that produce is due to the creditor.

If a man has criminal converſation with the wife of another man who is his ſuperior, he forfeits thirty head of cattle, beſides beads and ſhovels in abundance; but if the men are of equal degree, then the fine is only 20 head of cattle.

If any one maliciouſly aſſaults another, and breaks a leg or an arm, he is fined fifteen head of cattle, as a forfeit to the party injured.

If any one breaks the head of another, and the aggrieved party has not returned the blow, he receives three beeves by way of damage.

If any one ſteals another's hive of honey, and is catched, the fine is three iron ſhovels; for it is to be obſerved, that iron ſhovels, hoes, &c. are a kind of ſmall money with theſe people; for here is no trade but by barter, or the exchange of one commodity for another, therefore they are very exact in proportioning the value of different articles.

In one man's cattle break into another's plantation, the owner, for every beaſt found there, muſt give an iron ſhovel.

If two men quarrel, and one happens to curſe the other's father or mother, whether they be living or dead, and his antagoniſt has ſo much command of himſelf as to refrain from curſing the other's father or mother, he recovers two beeves as a compenſation.

If any one is found guilty of ſtealing Guinea corn, callavancas, potatoes, or the like, out of any of the plantations, he forfeits a cow and a calf to the owner, or more, if the damage done is ſuppoſed to require a greater forfeit.

History of Madagascar

THERE are no accounts of this country to be depended on till the year 1642, when a French officer obtained permiſſion from Cardinal Richlieu, for nine years, excluſive of all others, to ſend ſhips and forces to Madagaſcar, and the neighbouring iſlands in order to eſtabliſh a colony, plantation, and commerce. This gentleman erected a ſociety for his purpoſe, under the name of a French Eaſt India Company, and the grant was drawn out, with the addition of ten years more privilege, or, in other words, extended to the year 1661. In the interim, that is immediately ſubſequent to the making out of the grant in 1642, the firſt ſhip was ſent under the command of Captain Coquet, who was going to load ebony at Madagaſcar, on the account of himſelf and ſome private merchants; but had orders to take with him two governors, whoſe names were Pronis and Fonquenbourg, and twelve other Frenchmen; theſe being commanded to land and remain there, till the arrival of a ſhip from France, which was to ſail in November.

Coquet got to Madagaſcar in September, having, in his way, anchored at the Iſle of Bourbon, which he took

took poſſeſſion of in the name of the king of France; touching afterwards at the Iſle of St. Mary he did the ſame; and arriving at the Bay of Antongil, in Madagaſcar, he acted in a ſimilar manner. Pronis and Fouquenbourg were at length landed in the port of St. Lucia, in the province of Manghabei.

The expected ſhip from France arrived on the firſt of April, in the enſuing year. It was named the St. Lawrence, and was under the command of Capt. Giles Reſimont. This officer brought ſeventy men with him to reinforce Pronis. The inhabitants, jealous that the French would obtain to firm a footing in their country, meditated on oppoſition; but their intentions were prevented, or at leaſt delayed, by the prudent conduct and timely preſents of Pronis. Upon this ſucceſs, Pronis ſent 12 men to penetrate into the province of Matatan, ſix of whom were cut off by the natives, and the reſt compelled to retreat; and ſoon after Captain Reſimont's ſon, and ſix ſailors, were murdered in the province of Vohitſbang. This oppoſition was owing to the ſecret intrigues of the leading men in Anoſſi, who, from their maritime ſituation, did not dare to offend the French themſelves, but ſtirred up the people of other provinces, to oppoſe and murder them upon all occaſions.

In 1644 Pronis thought proper to remove from St. Lucia to the Bay of Tholongare, where he began to fortify himſelf; and having reduced almoſt the whole province of Anoſſi by force of arms, he built Fort Dauphin, the ſituation being excellent, the harbour commodious and finely ſheltered, and the entrance very convenient for ſhipping of any burthen. Behind the fort he erected ſeveral other buildings, with large incloſures, which produced various ſorts of fruits, kitchen herbs, &c.

In the year 1650 the fort took fire by ſome unforeſeen accident, and was totally deſtroyed. Soon after, however, it was rebuilt, and ſtrongly garriſoned; the French being always at variance, and frequently at war with the natives.

In the year 1651 the celebrated French governor Flacourt, at the head of 80 Frenchmen, and a great number of armed Negroes, ravaged the country to a conſiderable diſtance from the fort, carrying off great quantities of cattle, and deſtroying all the houſes and huts in his way. This occaſioned the natives to conceive an extraordinary averſion to the French; and what added to their diſlike was, that whenever any priſoners fell into the hands of the French, they looked upon them all in an equal light, and ſold them indiſcriminately to the then Dutch governor of the Iſland of Mauritius, not making any diſtinction between deeans or lords, freemen or ſlaves; or ſhewing any greater reſpect to their ladies, when captives, than to women of a lower rank. The French finding, at length, that the idea of conquering Madagaſcar was chimerical, and that the danger and expences of maintaining a colony, and keeping up a fortreſs here, were not recompenced by the profits accruing from the ſettlement, thought proper at once to abandon the iſland, and all projects relative to it.

The traditional accounts given by the natives of the attempts made by the French to ſettle on and ſubdue Madagaſcar, being extremely curious, we ſhall extract them from Drury's narrative of his captivity upon this iſland.

"This part of the country, to which the French have given the name of Port Dauphin, is called, in the Madagaſcar language, Antenoſa. There came hither, upwards of a century ago, two French ſhips, but on what account I cannot learn. However, they came to an anchor cloſe under land, in a very good harbour. The captains obſerving that there were plenty of cattle, and all proviſions, and a very good ſoil, determined that one of them ſhould ſtay here, and eſtabliſh a ſettlement. Hereupon they caſt lots who ſhould continue on the iſland, and the perſon on whom the lot fell was Captain Meſmerrico.

"This Captain Meſmerrico landed with 200 white men, well armed, and provided with ſtore of ammunition, and other neceſſaries for the building of a fort, which they immediately began. No ſooner had the natives obſerved their intention, but they uſed their utmoſt art and induſtry to prevent them. This created a war, in which the French were the victors, who took, at ſeveral times, a great number of priſoners. In this war the king of Antenoſa and his brother were killed; and amongſt many other children that were made captives, the king's ſon was one. When the French had ſuppreſſed the natives, and completed their fort, the ſhip ſet ſail for France, and carried this young prince, and ſeveral others of diſtinction, to that kingdom.

"In about a year after this expedition, the natives began to be better reconciled to the French: notwithſtanding they were ſecretly diſguſted at the indignity offered to their young prince, and could by no means reliſh the government and direction of foreigners. However, the French, by their artful and cunning deportment and inſinuations, gained ſo much friendſhip amongſt them, that they married, and lived up and down in ſeveral towns, at ſome diſtance from each other, and not above five or ſix in a place. They occaſionally aſſiſted the natives in their wars againſt a king that reſided to the northward, whom they defeated, took a great number of ſlaves, and many cattle. In this manner they lived for ſome years in great tranquility, neglecting their fort, and extending themſelves all over the whole country of Antenoſa; but at laſt, as their families grew numerous, the natives grew jealous; and recollecting how inhumanly they had treated their prince, and perceiving them thus ſcattered and diſperſed, they thought this a favourable opportunity to free themſelves from a foreign yoke. Hereupon they formed a conſpiracy to cut of all the white men in one day, and the Wedneſday following it was put in execution, not leaving a white man alive in Antenoſa.

"Soon after a French ſhip came there as uſual. The maurominters, or ſlaves, who retained a reſpect for the French, got a canoe, and went off to them, and informed them that their countrymen were all maſſacred. The captain was ſtartled, and deeply concerned at this melancholy news, but could not revenge their cauſe, being glad to ſteer another courſe, without making the leaſt attempt to go on ſhore.

"Having nobody now to interrupt them, they put their government into its original form, and made choice of one for their king, who was the neareſt related to the former, there being no other ſon but him whom the French took captive. Under this new king's direction they lived peaceably and quietly for ſeveral years, no French ſhip ever preſuming to come near them; but now and then an Engliſh ſhip paid them a viſit; and they traded in a very fair and honeſt manner with the officers on board.

"Some years afterwards a French ſhip, homeward bound from India, happened to be in great diſtreſs for want of water and proviſions, and could not compaſs the Cape. Port Dauphin lay very commodious for the captain, but he knew that the natives were their implacable enemies, nor was he ignorant of the real occaſion, and therefore reſolved to make uſe of the following ſtratagem. Under a pretence of being ſent ambaſſador from the French king, he went on ſhore in great pomp, and with proper attendants. The ſhip lay at anchor as near the ſhore as poſſible, in order to be within reach of their guns, in caſe any acts of hoſtility ſhould be ſhewn them. The natives who came down to them, aſked if they were Engliſh or French? They replied the latter; but they were come by expreſs orders from the French king with ſome valuable preſents, and were inclined to make a treaty of peace. The king they had laſt choſen, whom I mentioned before, died about a month before their arrival, and no new one was then elected in his ſtead; but the old queen (mother of the young prince whom the French had ſo clandeſtinely conveyed away ſome years before being then alive,

gave

gave directions that the ambaſſador ſhould be conducted to her houſe. His men carried a great many things, of no great value, amongſt them, but ſuch, however, as they knew would be highly agreeable in this country. Theſe were formally preſented in the name of the French king, and the queen teſtified her ſatisfaction in the reception of them, and by entertaining the captain in the moſt elegant manner ſhe could deviſe. This day paſſed in compliments, mutual preſents, and ſuch other ceremonies as were conſiſtent with their ideas of public grandeur. The next day ſhe ſent for the captain, and informed him, that ſhe expected his men, as well as himſelf, ſhould take the oaths according to the cuſtom of her country.

"The captain having readily agreed to her propoſition, the ceremony was performed after the following manner. The holy owley, of which we have already given ſome account, was brought out, and hung upon a piece of wood laid croſs-ways on two forks, all which were cut down on this ſolemn occaſion, as was alſo a long pole, to which a bullock was faſtened. This was provided by the queen, and when killed, they took part of the tail, and ſome of the hair of the noſe and eye-brows, and put them on ſome live coals that were under the owley: they then took ſome of the blood, which they ſprinkled upon it, and upon the beam whereon it hung: the liver alſo was roaſted, and a piece placed on it: two other pieces were put on two lances, which were ſtuck in the ground betwixt the queen and the ambaſſador. The queen ſwore firſt to this or the like effect:

"*I ſwear by the great God above, by the four gods of the four quarters of the world, by the ſpirits of my forefathers, and before this holy owley, that neither I, nor any of my offspring, nor any of my people, who aſſiſt at this ſolemnity, or their iſſue, ſhall, or will wittingly, kill any Frenchman, unleſs he proves the firſt aggreſſor: and if we, or any of us, mean any other than the plain and honeſt truth by this proteſtation, may this liver, which I now eat, be converted into poiſon, and deſtroy me on the ſpot.*

"Having repeated this form of words, ſhe took the piece of liver off the lance, and eat it; and when ſhe had done, the ſham ambaſſador did the ſame.

"The captain, or quondam ambaſſador, ſtayed on ſhore about three or four days after this ſolemn contract, and ſent on board what proviſions his people wanted. A firm friendſhip being now eſtabliſhed between them, they ſtrove who ſhould outvie the other in the arts of courteſy and complaiſance. The captain invited the queen to go on board his veſſel, and ſhe very readily went, accompanied by ſeveral of the chief of her people, who were treated by the captain with great magnificence, and to her entire ſatisfaction. She returned on ſhore in the ſhip's boat, and ſtood looking about her for ſome time after ſhe was landed. The Frenchmen, not regarding the preſence of the black queen, ſtripped, and ſwam about to waſh and cool themſelves. The queen, obſerving the whiteneſs of their ſkins, indulged her curioſity in looking on them. At length perceiving one man whoſe ſkin was much darker than the reſt of his companions, as he came towards the ſhore, and was going to put on his cloaths, ſhe eſpied a particular mole under his left breaſt. She went to him immediately, and looking more wiſhfully on it, would not permit him to put on his ſhirt, but claimed him as her ſon, who had been carried away when a child many years before, and had not patience to contain herſelf, but ran to him (crying for joy that ſhe had found her ſon) threw her arms about his neck, and almoſt ſtifled him with kiſſes. This ſurprized all the people, as well blacks as whites, till having recovered herſelf a little, ſhe turned to them, and told them, this was her ſon, and ſhewed them the private mark. They who had known the prince drew near, viewed the mole, and acquieſced with her, that it muſt be he, and no other. The Frenchmen could not tell what to make of this odd diſcovery, nor what might be the fatal conſequences that might poſſibly attend it.

"The captain, therefore, taking the man aſide, adviſed him to give as artful anſwers as he could to what queſtions they ſhould aſk him, for their ſafety's ſake. Now there were ſeveral blacks who ſpoke French, and by their means the Frenchmen as ſoon underſtood the queen as they did. She deſired they would aſk him if he knew the country he was in? He anſwered, he could remember nothing of it, for he was carried from his native place when a child. She aſked him if he knew her? He ſaid he could not pretend to ſay abſolutely that he did, but he thought ſhe bore a great reſemblance to ſomebody he was much uſed to when young.

"This confirmed them more and more in their opinion. As to his being white ſkinned, they thought that might eaſily be from his wearing cloaths during the time he was abſent from home. His hair was as black as theirs; ſo that it was concluded it muſt be their prince. The old queen was tranſported with joy at finding her ſon; and the natives were for chuſing him their king directly, he being the next heir. They aſked him what was his name? He told them he never remembered that he was called by any other name than that of Samuel: but they gave him what they thought was his original name, compounded with Tuley, which denoted his return, or arrival; ſo they called him Deean Tuley-Noro, (deean being an univerſal title of honour, and ſignifying lord,) and he was alſo further ſaluted immediately with the title of Panazker, that is, king of Antenoſa.

"The captain, and other Frenchmen, were ſurpriſed to find the man play his part ſo dextrouſly, not perceiving, at firſt, that he was in earneſt, and was as fond of being their king, as they were of electing him, though it was in ſo heatheniſh a place. He had here 12,000 fighting men immediately under his command, and a fine, plentiful country to live in at his pleaſure.

"The ſhip's crew ſailed away, and left him behind them; but as often as the French had occaſion for what this iſland afforded, they made it a conſtant practice to put into Port Dauphin, and traffic with him.

"About three years before we were caſt away, a French ſhip happening to be there, ſome of the men got drunk on ſhore, and, in a quarrel with ſome of the natives, told them that king Samuel was not their lawful prince, but that he was ſtill reſident in France. This might have proved of very fatal conſequence to him, but he took ſuch care to prevent it as no one could juſtly blame him for: he ſent for the man who made this public declaration, and ordered him to be ſhot to death. He likewiſe commanded his companions to depart forthwith, and aſſured them, that if ever they, or any of their countrymen, preſumed to come within his territories again, they ſhould feel the weight of his reſentment."

Beſides Port Dauphin, the Europeans often frequented the Bay of Antongil, which is ſituated in the 16th deg. of ſouth lat. and extends above 40 miles to the northward, being near 30 miles broad at its entrance. It contains a ſmall iſland, which is fertile in proviſions, has plenty of freſh water, and a good harbour for ſhipping. The Dutch had formerly a factory here, which they abandoned, as thoſe left to take care of it were almoſt ſure to fall victims to the bloody diſpoſitions of the natives, or the inclemency of the climate.

St. Auguſtine's Bay is ſituated juſt under the tropic of Capricorn, in 26 deg. 30 min. ſouth lat. being on the weſtern coaſt of Madagaſcar, and was formerly much reſorted to by Europeans.

Mr. Salmon ſays, "It was once expected that the pirates would have made a ſettlement in this iſland, and uſurp the dominion of it, having ſix or ſeven ſail of ſhips, with which they uſed to infeſt the Indian ſeas, and carry their prizes into a place of ſecurity on the north-eaſt part of Madagaſcar, where they poſſeſſed themſelves of a harbour of difficult acceſs, and defended from ſtorms by the little iſland of St. Mary, which lies before it, in 17 deg. ſouth lat.

"The

"The court of England, about the year 1700, ſent a ſquadron of four men of war, commanded by Commodore Warren, to drive the pirates from thence; but he finding it impoſſible to come at them, publiſhed a proclamation, in purſuance to his inſtructions, offering a pardon to all that would came in, except Avery, their leader; but not a man come over to him. The commodore afterwards proceeded to Fort St. George, in the Eaſt Indies. This gentleman uſed his utmoſt endeavours to meet with the pirates in the ſeas of India, but to no purpoſe; and having left one or two of his ſhips on the ſhoals near Malacca, he returned with the reſt to England. However, his expedition had this good effect, that the pirates durſt not ſtir from Madagaſcar; and finding they were ſo narrowly watched, they agreed to divide what they had got, and diſperſe themſelves. Two of them were afterwards taken by the Dutch at Malacca, and being ſent to Fort St. George, were brought over to England in the Howland, A. D. 1701. What became of Avery himſelf I could never learn; but it is probably he is dead, or remains concealed in the iſland of Madagaſcar."

Later accounts, however, aſſert, that Avery diſſipated his immenſe wealth, returned poor to England in cog. lived many years privately and poorly, and at length died in great indigence and miſery, at Biddeford, in Devonſhire, concluding thus a life of wickedneſs in a death of calamity.

ISLANDS NEAR THE COAST OF MADAGASCAR.

THE iſland of St. Mary, or, as the inhabitants of Madagaſcar call it, Ibrahim, or the Iſle of Abraham, lies in 17 deg. ſouth lat. about two leagues from the ſhore of Madagaſcar, and oppoſite to the mouth of the river Mananghare. It is about 50 miles in length, from north to ſouth, and almoſt 10 from eaſt to weſt. It is ſurrounded by rocks, over which canoes may paſs when the ſea is high; but at low tide they are ſcarcely covered with a foot of water, which renders the coaſt in general dangerous, and only acceſſible for ſhipping at particular places. Various beautiful ſhells, and great quantities of white coral, abounds about this iſland. The whole is interſected and watered by many rivers, rivulets, and running ſprings, which give fertility to the ſoil, and beauty to the ſcene, enriched on every ſide with plantations of rice, yams, millet, fruit, vegetables, &c. Sugar-canes grow ſpontaneouſly, and the tobacco-plant come to very great perfection. The air is extremely moiſt; for there is hardly a day in the year but it rains ſome time within the twenty-four hours; and it often rains a week together without intermiſſion. The cattle are fat and good. Ambergris is found about the eaſtern ſhore; and the iſland abounds with various gums, particularly that excellent one called tacamahaca. Since the French were ſettled on the Iſland of St. Mary, it became much more populous than before: nor dare the neighbouring inhabitants of Madagaſcar now ſet a foot on the iſland, though they formerly uſed to carry fire and ſword amongſt the poor natives, and were a great ſcourge to them. At preſent there are ten or twelve villages, and near 1000 inhabitants, who employ themſelves chiefly in cultivating rice, yams, peas, beans, &c. They are likewiſe very fond of fiſh called hourils, which they catch either by nets or hooks, and eat or ſell them, as their neceſſities require. Their religion is Paganiſm, intermixed with ſome particles of Judaiſm; and they keep on good terms with Chriſtians, though none of them have been known to become proſelytes.

To the ſouth of the iſland of St. Mary is a ſmall iſland, ſeparated by a narrow channel, not above three fathom over, ſo fertile, rich, and abundant, that the inhabitants of the Iſland of St. Mary ſend their cattle hither to fatten, and lay out large plantations of rice, corn, roots, and fruits, notwithſtanding which they have not thought proper to plant a colony on it.

The Iſland of Diego Roderiguez is ſituated in 19 deg. 15 min. ſouth lat. about 22 leagues to the eaſtward of Madagaſcar, and is uninhabited.

In the 16th deg. of ſouth lat. are ſituated the iſlands called by the Portugueſe Ilhas, Primieras, and other iſlands called Angoras, which are four in number; but theſe iſlands contain nothing worthy of attention.

There are ſeveral ſmall iſlands called Utiques, oppoſite to Cape St. Sebaſtian, on the coaſt of Safola, and under the lat. of 24 deg. 6 min. from the continent, and which ſtand off St. Sebaſtian, on the north-weſt end of Madagaſcar, eaſt of the Comoro Iſlands. They produce rice, millet and great abundance of cattle. There is alſo ambergris found on the ſea-coaſt, which the people collect and export to different parts of the continent: but the moſt valuable produce of theſe iſlands is a pearl fiſhery.

The inhabitants are Negroes, and reſemble thoſe of Madagaſcar, both in perſons and dreſs. Their religion is Paganiſm, with ſome faint gleams of Judaiſm; and they are exceeding ſuperſtitious, being extremely fond of attending to predictions, though their lives are uſually rendered unhappy thereby; and, indeed, how can it be otherwiſe? for if we believe that ſome certain good is deſtined to attend us, we groan under the preſent burden, and are anxiouſly miſerable for its arrival; while, on the contrary, if we fancy that ſome evil will aſſuredly befall us, we feel it poignantly in expectation, and are truely unhappy, in the excruciation idea of what may chance to happen. Then how impious muſt they be who attempt to pry into futurity, and to ſearch for that which Heaven hath ſo wiſely concealed! And how kind is Providence to hide from us ſo cautiouſly, that which, if known, would only render us the ſlaves of either hope or fear.

Heaven from all creatures hides the book of fate,
(All but the page preſcrib'd their preſent ſtate;)
From brutes what men, from men what ſpirits know,
Or who could ſuffer being here below?
The lamb thy riot dooms to bleed to day;
Had he thy reaſon would he ſkip and play?
Pleaſed to the laſt, he crops the flow'ry food,
And licks the hand juſt raiſed to ſhed his blood.
Oh, blindneſs to the future, kindly given,
That each may fill the circle mark'd by heav'n,
Who ſees with equal eye, as God of all,
A hero periſh, or a ſparrow fall;
Atoms or ſyſtems into ruin hurl'd;
And now a bubble burſt, and now a world.
Hope humbly then, with trembling pinions ſoar,
Wait the great teacher Death, and God adore.
What future bliſs he gives not thee to know,
But gives that hope to be thy bleſſing now.
Hope ſprings eternal in the human breaſt:
Man never is, but always to be bleſt.
The ſoul uneaſy, and confin'd from home,
Reſts and expatiates in a life to come.

There are ſeveral other iſlands near theſe coaſts, but they are all ſmall, many of them uninhabited, and none of them contain any thing in particular that is worthy of deſcription.

CHAP. XXIII.

ISLANDS NEAR THE COAST OF ZANGUEBAR.

THERE are a number of iſlands on this coaſt, but the generality of them are very ſmall and uninhabited. We ſhall, therefore, only take notice of the moſt conſiderable, which are the following.

MOSAMBIQUE

IS ſituated in a gulph, in the 15th deg. of ſouth lat. and about two miles from the coaſt. Before the iſland, and next to the ſhore, are two ſmaller ones, which ſeem as if they had been formerly joined with the main land. One of theſe is called St. George's, and the other St. James's; but they are both ſmall, and without any inhabitants.

Moſambique is very ſmall, being not above a mile and a half long, and three quarters of a mile broad. The land is ſmooth and even, and the greateſt part of it covered with white ſand. The air is very ſultry and unwholeſome. The inhabitants have no other freſh water than what ariſes from a ſmall ſpring ſituated about the center of the iſland. Though the ſoil here is very dry and ſandy, the gardens, from the aſſiſtance of water brought from the above ſpring, produce oranges, lemons, ananas, and fig trees.

Here are great numbers of black and ſmall cattle, particularly ſheep, whoſe rumps are of an enormous ſize. They have likewiſe ſome hogs; as alſo a kind of fowl, whoſe feathers and fleſh are black, and when boiled, the water is of the colour of ink, but the fleſh of the bird is very delicate and wholeſome.

The natives are ſhort of ſtature, very black, and have curled hair like the wool of a ſheep. They are naturally cruel, deceitful, and enemies to ſtrangers; but as they are very timid, the Portugueſe, who are maſters of the iſland, keep them under tolerable ſubjection. The men wear only a ſmall piece of cloth wound round the waiſt; the women have a kind of petticoat of coarſe cotton cloth, which reaches from the middle to the ancles. They wear round their necks ſtrings of coral, and beads of various colours. In their ears they have braſs rings; and on their arms bracelets, made of braſs or tin. Some of them are Chriſtians, others Mahometans, and the reſt idolaters.

The Portugueſe built a town on this iſland, which is called by the ſame name. This town is of infinite advantage to them, as their ſhips not only ſtop and refreſh here in their way to the Eaſt Indies, but it alſo ſecures their trade with the neighbouring nations, particularly thoſe of Sofala and Monomotapa, from whence they take great quantities of gold. The houſes in this town are tolerably well built; and they have a convent and an hoſpital for the ſick, both of which are large and handſome buildings. Here is likewiſe a fort, which is much larger, and better ſupplied, than any the Portugueſe have on the whole coaſt of Zanguebar.

MOMBAZA,

LYING in 4 deg. 5 min. ſouth lat. has a large town ſituated on a rock, and defended by a ſtrong caſtle. The houſes are built after the Italian manner; and the caſtle is the uſual reſidence of a Mahometan prince. The Portugueſe were once maſters of this iſland, but they were routed from it by the Arabs about the middle of the laſt century. This iſland is watered by a river of the ſame name, which ſprings from the mountains of Monoemugi, runs from eaſt to weſt, and then diſcharges itſelf into the ſea.

The port of Mombaza is very ſafe and commodious, and is greatly reſorted to by the merchants of the coaſt of Zanguebar, and other places, for the convenience of trade.

THE QUERIMBA ISLANDS

ARE ſeated along the coaſt, from Cape del Grada, in 10 deg. to the 12th deg. of ſouth lat. and extend two degrees, or 120 miles, from north to ſouth. The moſt remarkable, and largeſt of them, which gives name to the reſt, is Querimba, where the Portugueſe have a ſmall fort. This iſland, which is the moſt populous of them all, contains a few houſes, not contiguous together, but ſcattered up and down, like ſo many farm-houſes. In the middle of the iſland is a church, where maſs is ſaid by a Dominican prieſt, ſent hither by the archbiſhop of Goa.

The other iſlands that go under the denomination of Querimba, are Ibo, or Oibo, Matomo, Macoloo, and Malinda; but they are all too inſignificant to merit any particular notice, except the firſt, which is under the direction of a Portugueſe governor, who has a large houſe, with an extenſive garden behind it, and the whole is encloſed with a lofty and ſtrong wall. This iſland, and that of Querimba, have good harbours for ſhipping, which is not the caſe with any of the reſt, the channels between them being, at low water, not more than three feet deep,

The Querimba Iſlands are all well watered with ſprings, and therefore fertile, producing plenty of dates, oranges, citrons, grapes, pot-herbs, &c. They alſo abound in good paſtures, where are fed great herds of large and ſmall cattle. Moſt of them have likewiſe great plenty of game; and the ſea about them produces a variety of excellent fiſh. The inhabitants receive wheat, rice, and dryed ſweatmeats, from Ormus.

Theſe iſlands were formerly inhabited by Arabs, as appears from the ruins of ſeveral houſes, which were built with ſtone, bricks, and mortar. The Portugueſe when they firſt came here, not only deſtroyed the houſes, under pretence of their being inhabited by Mahometans, but they even carried their cruelty ſo far as to murder all the people, without ſparing either age or ſex. It was owing to this cruelty that theſe iſlands continued many years uninhabited; till, at length, ſome Portugueſe, from Bombaza, Moſambique, and other parts, came and ſettled on them. At firſt each family took poſſeſſion of an iſland, where they built a houſe, provided themſelves with fire-arms, and bought ſlaves, not only to till the ground, but alſo to defend their perſons. They are now inhabited by Portugueſe and Blacks; and they are under the protection of the governor of Moſambique, who ſends them annually a judge to decide all differences that may happen amongſt them.

To the ſouth of Querimba is a cluſter of ſmall iſlands, not inhabited. They are called by the Portugueſe, The Iſlands of the Whipped or Laſhed, becauſe the firſt time they went to examine them, having a pilot whom they had taken from Moſambique, they found that the perfidious wretch endeavoured to entangle them among thoſe iſlands, in order to ſhipwreck their fleet, in conſequence of which they puniſhed his treachery by ſeverely whipping him with cords, and from thence the iſlands received their name.

MONIFLA

LIES in 9 deg. 30 min. ſouth lat. It is very fertile in rice and millet, and has a great variety of fruit-trees, as alſo prodigious numbers of ſugar-canes. It contains only a few villages, though it is at the leaſt 100 miles in circumference.

ZANJABAR,

ZANJABAR, or ZANZIBAR,

IS ſituated in 7 deg. 55 min. ſouth lat. and is about eight leagues diſtant from the continent. It is a very fertile iſland, and, in particular, produces plenty of rice, millet, and ſugar-canes. It has many foreſts, in which grow very tall lemon-trees, whoſe bloſſoms perfume the air for a conſiderable diſtance. It abounds with ſprings of excellent water; and muſt heretofore have been very rich, ſince a Portugueſe, named Ravaſco, during two months that he continued on the ſpot, took from theſe iſlanders 20 veſſels, laden with ſeveral ſorts of merchandize. When the Portugueſe firſt began to appear in theſe parts, the king of this iſland promiſed to pay yearly to his Portugueſe majeſty a certain quantity of gold, beſides 30 ſheep, which a Portugueſe captain was annually ſent to receive. The chief part of the people that now inhabit this iſland are Mahometans.

There are two other ſmall iſlands on the coaſt of Zanguebar. The firſt of theſe is called Lamo, and ſituated between the 1ſt and 2d deg. of ſouth lat. Here is a ſmall town, which was the reſidence of the king; and near it is a good harbour for ſhipping. The king of this iſland was murdered by the Portugueſe in the year 1589.

The other iſland, which is called Pate, is ſituated to the north of Lamo, in the 2d deg. of ſouth lat. It has a ſmall town about the center of it, but it does not contain any building that merits particular notice. The inhabitants are all blacks, and the chief part of them profeſs the Mahometan religion.

CHAP. XXIV.

THE COMORO ISLANDS.

THE Comoro Iſlands take their names from Comoro, the largeſt of them. They are five in number; and the other four are diſtinguiſhed by the names of Mohilla, Angazeja, Johanna, and Mayotta. They lie oppoſite the ſhore of Zanguebar, and north of Madagaſcar. Comoro, the largeſt, is not frequented by Europeans, it having no ſafe harbour, and the natives being averſe to commerce with ſtrangers. The reaſon originated from the cruelties exerciſed on them by the Portugueſe when they firſt viſited theſe ſeas; for they not only robbed them of their property, and committed the moſt dreadful outrages, but alſo made them captives, and frequently diveſted them of every earthly enjoyment, by forcing them on board their ſhips, and then ſelling them for ſlaves. It is, therefore, little to be wondered at, that the deſcendants of theſe unhappy people ſhould look with deteſtation on thoſe who had proved themſelves ſtrangers to every humane ſenſation.

Mohilla is very ſeldom viſited, not only from the diſlike the inhabitants have to ſtrangers, but alſo from there not being any place convenient for the reception of ſhips.

Theſe iſlands, however, are fertile, and abound with cattle, ſheep, hogs, and fowls of various ſorts. They alſo produce ſweet and ſour oranges, great and ſmall citrons, cocoa-nuts, bananas, honey, betel, ſugar-canes, rice, and ginger.

Angazeja is inhabited by Moors, who trade with various parts of the continent, and moſt of the iſlands to the eaſtward, in cattle, fruits, and the other commodities of this iſland, exchanging them for callicoes, and other cotton cloths. The bread uſed in this iſland is made of the kernel of the cocoa-nut, boiled or broiled, and ſpread over with honey. Their drink is palm wine, a juice extracted from the ſugar-cane, and ſuffered to ferment, or the milk of the cocoa-nut. They never let their women be ſeen by ſtrangers, without permiſſion from one of the chiefs, or an order to ſee them, which the ſtranger brings with him. Many of them write and read Arabic with great facility: and ſome of them underſtand the Portugueſe, which they learn by means of their intercourſe with Moſambique, whither they trade in veſſels of 40 tons burthen. The houſes are built of ſtone and lime, made of calcined oyſter-ſhells, with which the walls and roofs are plaiſtered in a very elegant manner, and the roofs and windows covered with palm-leaves, which ſerve equally as a defence againſt rain, and the ſcorching heat of the ſun. This iſland is under the government of ten lords, the conſtitution being a pure ariſtocracy.

Mohilla is under the direction of a ſultan, whoſe children participate in his authority, whether male or female, and govern in quality of viceroys in different parts of the iſland. All, however, bear the title of ſultans, though they are, in ſome reſpects, ſubordinate to the authority of the father: each have their guards, crown, ſcepter, and all the enſigns and pageantry of majeſty, together with a brilliant court, and numerous houſehold. The ſultan never goes abroad without being attended by twenty of the principal perſons in the iſland, upon which occaſion his dreſs is a long robe of ſtriped callico, hanging from his ſhoulders to his heels, with a turban on his head. The people in general wear looſe callico gowns, and are continually chewing areka, or betel, in the manner of the Eaſt Indians, to whom, in their cuſtoms, they have affinity.

Johanna is the moſt frequented, and beſt known to Europeans, of all the Comoro Iſlands; for here they touch for refreſhments in their paſſage to Bombay, and the Malabar coaſts of India.

This iſland lies in 12 deg. 20 min. ſouth lat. It is 30 miles long, 15 broad, and about 90 in circumference. Though ſome parts of it are exceeding mountainous, yet it is, in general, a very beautiful and fertile ſpot. The ſoil is naturally very good, and, from its being well watered by rivers, produces abundance of the chief neceſſaries of life.

In order to diſplay the beauties of this iſland, as well as to take the advantage of introducing a proper deſcription of its natural productions, we ſhall relate the account of an excurſion taken by two gentlemen the ſecond day after they landed on this iſland; which account is as follows: "As we ſet out pretty early in the morning ſay they, we made a ſhift to penetrate about five miles into the country before the ſun began to be any ways troubleſome; and this was no ſmall ſtretch, conſidering the mountainous track we had to go. We had fowling-pieces with us, and the view of excellent ſport in ſhooting, could we have reached the places where we might perceive the game lay; but we could not conquer the aſcent of the hills, though we endeavoured to ſcramble up them on our hands and knees. We were obliged therefore to reſt ſatisfied with what ſmall birds preſented themſelves in the vallies and hills that were paſſable. We made our breakfaſt on pine-apples and the milk of cocoa-nuts. About noon, coming to a beautiful piece of water, we ſeated ourſelves in the ſhade by the banks of it, to make a ſecond meal, as well as to enjoy the tinkling of ſeveral little ſprings and natural caſcades that fell from the rocks, and, according to their diſtance, ſeemed to ſound a gradation of notes, ſo as to form a kind of agreeable ſoothing water muſic.

"The

" The orange and lime-trees, which ſtood in great numbers about that ſpot of ground, bending under the weight of their fruit, diffuſed a moſt fragrant odour. There were alſo pine-apples which grew wild, of eleven and thirteen inches in circumference, of a much richer flavour than thoſe we afterwards met with in India. Our guides too made us diſtinguiſh a number of goyava, and eſpecially plumb-trees, the ſize of whoſe fruit is about that of a damaſcene, and leaves a pleaſing reliſh on the palate for ſome minutes after it is eaten. All theſe growing promiſcuouſly, and without the leaſt arrangement of order, combined with the falls of water, and the ſtupendous height of the ſurrounding hills, covered with trees and verdure, and, in their various breaks and projections, exhibiting the boldeſt ſtrokes, of nature, altogether compoſed what might, without exaggeration, be called a terreſtrial paradiſe, compared to which the fineſt gardens in Europe, with their ſtatues, artificial caſcades, compartments, and all the refinements of human invention, would appear poor indeed! Here it was impoſſible for art to add any thing, but what would rather ſpoil than adorn the ſcenery.

" It was not then without regret that we quitted ſo charming a ſpot, after having feaſted our eyes with the beauties of it; to which it may be mentioned, as no inconſiderable addition, that there was no fear of wild beaſts or venomous creatures to interrupt our pleaſure.

The chief cattle of this iſland are oxen, ſheep, and hogs. The oxen are in general of a middling ſize, and, like thoſe in the Eaſt Indies, are remarkable for having a large fleſhy excreſcence between their neck and back. Their fleſh is very ſweet, and the excreſcence when kept for ſome time in pickle, taſtes like marrow, and is generally preferred either to tongue or udder.

In the woods are great numbers of monkies of different kinds and ſizes, and a beaſt called mongooz. This animal is about the ſize of a ſmall cat, and has a head ſhaped liked a fox, with black eyes and orange-coloured circles round the pupil. The hair about the eyes is black, and hangs downward in a point towards the noſe, which is alſo black; but there is a ſpace between the eyes and noſe entirely white, which is continued to the ſides of the face as far as the ears. The upper parts of the head, neck, back, tail and limbs, are of a dark brown aſh colour, and the hair is ſomewhat woolly. The under ſide of the body is white, and the paws are like human hands, with flat nails, except a ſharp pointed claw on the ſecond toe of the hinder feet. The tail is long, and the hair thick and ſoft. Its actions are like thoſe of a monkey. It feeds on fruits, herbs, and almoſt every thing elſe, not excepting even live fiſh. There are ſeveral ſorts of theſe animals, which differ only in colour: and they are all very harmleſs and inoffenſive.

The maucaulo is an animal about the ſize of a cat, with a head nearly reſembling that of a fox. It has a lively piercing eye, its coat is woolly and generally of a mouſe colour, and its tail, which is about three feet long, is variegated with circles of black within an inch of each other quite to the end. When taken young it ſoon grows tame. The country abounds with ſquirrels large and ſhy, but neither of good ſhape or colour.

They have fowls and ducks here; alſo great variety of game, but the inhabitants are ſo inexperienced in the uſe both of nets and guns, that very few of them are caught.

The ſea here abounds with ſeveral ſorts of excellent fiſh, which the natives are very expert in catching, particularly thornbacks, mullets, and a flat fiſh greatly reſembling turbot. But the moſt remarkable ſpecies is the parrot-fiſh, ſo called from its mouth, which is made like the bill of a parrot. It is about a foot long, and the colour is greeniſh, variegated near the head with yellow. The fins are blue, as are alſo the eyes, which are very ſprightly, and have a yellow iris: the ſcales are very large, and there are two rows of ſtrong teeth in the mouth, with which it breaks open muſcles and oyſters. The fleſh of this fiſh is very firm, and well taſted.

The male natives of this iſland are in general tall, ſtrong, and well proportioned; but the women are not ſo well made as the men. They have all long black hair, piercing eyes, lips ſomewhat inclining to be thick, and are in general of a colour between an olive and a black.

The poorer ſort live in huts made of reeds tied together, and plaiſtered over with a mixture of clay and cow-dung; and the roofs are thatched with a kind of matting made of cocoa leaves. The better ſort have their houſes made of ſtone and mud.

Their principal food conſiſts of vegetables and milk, which they have here in great plenty and perfection. Inſtead of oil and vinegar to their ſallads, they uſe a kind of liquid, ſomewhat like our treacle, which they extract from the cocoa nut.

Perſons of rank are diſtinguiſhed by the nails of their fingers and toes, which they ſuffer to grow to an immoderate length: they paint them with the alkenna, a yelloviſh red produced from a particular ſhrub that grows in the marſhy parts of the iſland. They uſually carry large knives ſtuck in a ſaſh they wear round their waiſts, ſome of which have ſilver, or agate handles, but the generality are made of wood carved.

The common people have no other cloathing than a piece of coarſe cloth wound round the waiſt, with a ſkull-cap made of a kind of ſtuff. Thoſe of ſuperior rank have a kind of wide-ſleeved ſhirt, which hangs down over a pair of large drawers, and a waiſtcoat made thick or light, according to the ſeaſon of the year; and the very diſtinguiſhed of all wear turbans on their heads.

The women wear a ſhort jacket and petticoat, with a kind of looſe gown, and, when they go abroad, have a veil over their faces. They take great pains in ornamenting their arms, legs, and ears, in the latter of which they have ſuch a quantity of trinkets made of metal, that the lobes of them are ſo dilated by the weight as almoſt to touch the ſhoulders. Their arms and wriſts are decorated with a number of bracelets, made of glaſs, iron, copper, pewter, or ſilver, according to their reſpective ranks or circumſtances.

Children, from their birth, both males and females, go ſtark naked till they are ſeven or eight years of age; a cuſtom they have in common with the orientals, who are not ſo much governed in it by the heat of the climate, or neceſſity, as by phyſical reaſons. They imagine that infants are conſtitutionally more apt to be hurt by heat then cold; and that the free acceſs of the air to all parts of their bodies, is even nutritious, and more favourable to their principles of growth, than if they were ſweltered up with ſwathing clothes, which, they think, rob them of a hardineſs conducive to their health. By theſe means the children are preſerved from complaints, to which others are ſubject, from their cloaths being ſo binding as to occaſion them to cry, and frequently to ſuch a degree, as to terminate, through their ſtraining, into ruptures. This conduct, with reſpect to their children, appears to be very conſiſtent, and to have the wiſhed-for effect; for inſtead of meeting with a deformed perſon, it is very rare to ſee one who is not admirably proportioned. The Johannians judiciouſly endeavour to acquire health, which above all enjoyments in this life is certainly the moſt deſirable acquiſition.

The natives are in general a plain, ſimple, well-meaning, inoffenſive people, and ſtrictly honeſt in their dealings. In their manners they retain a great deal of the ſimplicity of uncultivated nature. The mildneſs of the climate renders them indolent. They often make uſe of their liberty, granted them by their laws, of divorcing their wives, upon ſlight pretences, for the ſake of novelty; though they have generally two or three of them, and are confined to no number of concubines they can maintain. They are very forward to beg any thing they like; but far from being diſ-

poſed

poſed to theft. They treat the Engliſh, in particular, very cordially and fraternally; not purely from a principle of intereſt and convenience, which, however, has doubtleſs ſome influence, but from gratitude, for the effectual aſſiſtance they formerly received from them in their wars with the Mohilians. Being moreover aſſured by a frequent intercourſe, that they have no deſign of invading their country or liberty, of which they retain a ſtrong jealouſy againſt other European nations, and of the Portugueſe eſpecially; to whoſe uſurpation of the ſea-coaſt on the continent they are no ſtrangers, againſt which they chiefly, and with great reaſon, rely on the inacceſſibility of their mountains, of which nature has formed to them an impenetrable barrier, and defence of the interior country.

Their language is a corrupt Arabic, mixed with the Zanguebar tongue, of the oppoſite part of the continent.

Their religion is a compound of ſuperſtition and abſurdity, and nothing ſtrikes them with ſuch horror as the idea of ghoſts and ſpectres.

In the iſland are a number of villages, beſides the town of Johanna, the reſidence of the chief, or king; and the number of inhabitants is eſtimated at 30,000. The town of Johanna contains about 200 houſes, moſt of which are inhabited by the principal men of the country. Theſe are built of ſtone, but are all very low, except the king's palace, which is both lofty and ſpacious. The people here ſuffer ſtrangers to come familiarly into their firſt apartment, but reſerve all the others for the uſe of their families.

The title of king is juſtly given to the chief of this iſland, he having all the eſſentials of royalty, with an unlimited power over his ſubjects, both in ſpirituals and temporals.

Mr. Groſe, who was a conſiderable time here, and to whom we are greatly obliged for many particulars relative to this iſland, has furniſhed us with a very curious account of the means by which the ſovereignty of it was firſt acquired, which, for the entertainment of the reader, we ſhall give in his own words.

"The grandfather (ſays he) of the preſent king was an Arab, or Moorith trader to Mofambique, where, on a quarrel with a Portugueſe hidalgo, or gentleman, with whom he was dealing for ſlaves on that coaſt, he had the fortune to kill his adverſary, and was thereon obliged inſtantly to fly, and put to ſea in the firſt boat he could ſeize on the ſhore, when the firſt land he made was Johanna, where he took refuge. Here, meeting with an hoſpitable reception, he remained ſome years in obſcurity, until an Arab trank being driven in there by ſtreſs of weather, he made himſelf known to his countrymen, for whom he procured all the relief the place afforded.

"In the mean time he had ſo perfectly acquainted himſelf with the language and manners of the inhabitants, and was ſo captivated with the fertility and pleaſantneſs of the country, that he not only relinquiſhed every thought of returning to his own, but laid a ſcheme to obtain for himſelf the ſovereignty of this, in which he was greatly countenanced and aſſiſted by the Arabs, his countrymen, who came into his views, from the advantage they expected to receive from his ſucceſs.

"He proceeded not on a plan of violence, but of inſinuation, in making himſelf neceſſary to the natives, whom he inſtructed in the uſe of arms, before unknown to them, eſpecially in the aſſagaye, or lance, which thoſe of any conſideration among them now handle with dexterity. This, then, with other methods of war which he taught them, entirely new to theſe ſimple people, proving of ſingular ſervice to them, againſt the inhabitants of the neighbouring iſlands, eſpecially of Mohilia, with whom they had conſtant bickerings, ſometimes invading, and ſometimes invaded, acquired him ſuch a conſideration and authority, that he ſoon availed himſelf thereof, and procured himſelf to be elected their chief or king, and inveſted with a deſpotic power. Yet this was not obtained but by degrees, and by great art; themſelves, too, being divided among one another. As ſoon, however, as he had carried his point, he made them repent of their credulity and confidence; for not only ſtrengthening himſelf by calling in ſome of his countrymen, with their families, but chuſing for his guards the moſt bold and determined of the natives, he was ſoon in a condition to eſtabliſh an arbitrary government. Such as endeavoured to oppoſe him in his pretenſions and innovations, he forced from their families, and ſold them to the Arabs for ſlaves, who, on this alteration, increaſed their reſort there for trade, which they ſtill continue. In ſhort, he ſucceeded ſo entirely as to overcome all oppoſition, and to bequeath the peaceable ſovereignty to his ſon, who was about 45 years of age when his father died, and who had no further trouble or contention with his ſubjects, until alſo dying a few years ago, he left two ſons, of whom the eldeſt is at preſent king of the iſland."

The king reſides, for the moſt part, about nine miles, according to their computation, up the country, ſeldom coming down to what they call their Lower Town, on the ſea-ſide, but when the European ſhips are lying there, at which times he is accompanied by a very numerous retinue. He ſeldom miſſes going on board the veſſels, where the captains regale him in the beſt manner they are able, after the European faſhion, and compliment him, both on his arrival and departure, with a diſcharge of five guns.

Every captain is obliged to have a licence from the king before he can trade with the natives; but this licence is eaſily acquired, nothing more being wanting than to compliment him with a few trifling articles of European manufacture.

As ſoon as a ſhip anchors in the road, it is immediately ſurrounded with a number of canoes, hurrying on board with refreſhments of all ſorts of the produce of the iſland; and it is diverting enough to obſerve the confuſion and ſtrife among the rowers, who ſhall get firſt to the ſhip to diſpoſe of their commodities. They are ſometimes overſet when the ſea is high, but without any danger to their perſons, being excellent ſwimmers, and loſe only their little cargoes of green trade. Theſe canoes are moſt of them balanced on each ſide with outleagers, compoſed of two poles each, with one acroſs, to prevent their overſetting. They uſe paddles inſtead of oars, and make no diſtinction of head or ſtern. Their larger boats, called panguays, are raiſed ſome feet from the ſides, with reeds and branches of trees, well bound together with a ſmall cord, and afterwards made water-proof with a kind of bitumen, or reſinous ſubſtance. The maſs (as few have more than one) carries a ſail or two, which is made either of cocoa leaves, or ſteer graſs matted together; and in theſe boats they will venture out to ſea for trips of three or four weeks, and ſometimes longer.

It was common, ſome years ago, for the natives, who came off with refreſhments to the ſhips, ſuch as freſh cocoa nuts, plantains, goats, fowls, &c. to deal entirely by way of barter, for handkerchiefs, rags, glaſs bottles, bits of iron, and, in ſhort, all ſorts of trifling articles, without paying any reſpect to money. They are now, however, well acquainted with the value of gold and ſilver, and are not altogether ſo fond of baubles as they uſed to be; for if the Europeans want to purchaſe cattle, fowls, or cowries, they deſire to be paid either in ſpecie, fire-arms, or gunpowder. They have likewiſe fallen upon a method of ſoliciting thoſe who come there, particularly all paſſengers, to contribute a dollar or two towards improving their navigation, which they carry on with the African continent; and, by way of perſuaſive example, produce ſeveral liſts of perſons who have ſubſcribed to that purpoſe; ſo that they ſometimes collect 30 or 40 dollars a ſhip, from thoſe who touch here; and when the captains leave the place, they generally make it a point for them to ſign, and leave with them, a certificate of good uſage.

Thus the moſt ſavage inhabitants of the world daily improve in cunning and artifice; though we muſt not

from thence infer that they grow *wiſer*, a common and miſapplied epithet for people growing more knaviſh than formerly, which induces ſome, who are fond of falſe prudence, to conclude that they are conſequently leſs fooliſh: but where integrity does not go hand in hand with improvement, we refine away happineſs, and ſacrifice every ſocial virtue to chicanery and artifice. In the pure ſimplicity of nature, the productions of the earth are as free as the air we breathe, and every one partakes as he pleaſes of the bounties of Providence. At length the people improve till they get an idea of private property, and that immediately puts them upon the expedient of valuing one commodity by another, and making uſe of barter to ſupply each other's neceſſities. Again, ſucceſſive improvements evince that barter is attended with many inconveniences, as it is almoſt impoſſible, where the truck is various, properly to eſtimate one commodity by the caſual value of another; hence the neceſſity of coinage appears, in which commodities of all kinds and values may be eaſily paid for, an equivalent readily given, and commercial intercourſe carried on with the greateſt facility. But if a people who thus refine, in the courſe of their improvement loſe their probity, and become fraudulent, exchange their natural benevolence for the avarice of trade, and ſacrifice their integrity to commercial artifices, their refinement is a misfortune, and their improvements contribute to their unhappineſs; for the poor ſhepherd, bleſſed with purity of conſcience, is ſenſible of more eſſential bliſs than the rich and great, whoſe minds are monitors againſt them for their deviation from the line of rectitude.

The Iſland of Mayotta, according to the account of a French commodore, is rather low, but abounds with proviſions and fruit; cool, moiſt, covered with verdure, and inhabited all along the ſea-ſhore. "The tide (ſays he) carried us weſtward along the coaſt to a point where we came in ſight of a ſhip, upon which I ſent out our long-boat with 10 muſketeers, who brought me word that it was a veſſel of 40 tons, bound from Mecca, and that the captain, taking us for Dutch ſhips, had run all the goods on ſhore. The captain of this veſſel ſhewed me two letters, one from an Engliſh commander named Martin, and another from Capt. Banner, to inform their countrymen, that they had taken in ſeveral refreſhments at that place, eſpecially fruit; that they had found no water; and that linen cloth and paper were proper commodities for that place; adding, that care ought to be taken not to diſoblige the inhabitants, who, though they appeared friendly, were able to do them a great deal of miſchief. The road being ſurrounded with rocks, the Arabian maſter adviſed me not to attempt landing without fetching a pilot from the ſhore; and accordingly I ſent my boat along with him, and in the afternoon he returned with two of the inhabitants, who, before ſun-ſet, brought our ſhip ſafe to anchor. I then ſent the Arabian maſter back to his own ſhip with full aſſurances of the innocence of our deſigns, and the friendly diſpoſition of the French, together with a letter to the ſame purpoſe, addreſſed, in Spaniſh, to the king of the iſland.

"Afterwards the king ſent ſome of his chief favourites to aſſure us of his friendſhip, and readineſs to ſupply us with whatever the country afforded. Upon this I ſent him a preſent of a ſilver hilted hanger, a couple of very handſome knives, a ream of paper, and a looking-glaſs, which he received with pleaſure, and, in return, ſent me a young kid and ſome fruit. I at the ſame time deſired the Arabian captain, who was then on ſhore, to buy me ſome proviſions, promiſing to ſend ſuch commodities as were proper to be given in exchange. Upon this the captain ſent me word, that the inhabitants of the iſland were of ſuch a particular humour that they would not conclude a bargain of the value of half a rial in a day's time; and would not buy a yard of cloth, without calling all their relations and neighbours to fix the price they ſhould give for it. I was alſo informed that a Portugueſe carrack, having been caſt away upon that iſland about three years before, the inhabitants were ſo overſtocked with rials, that they ſet no value upon them.

"The next day, having obſerved a couple of ſhips belonging to that country, I had the captains brought on board, when they informed me that they came from the Iſland of Mayotta; that they were laden with rice and dried fiſh, and were bound for Monbaza. The next day they ſupplied me with as much rice, peas, and hung beef, as would ſerve us for four months; of which I was very glad, as I could buy nothing of the inhabitants without an infinite loſs of time. Beſides, I began to ſuſpect their honeſty; for the day before, when we were ſounding, in order to come to anchor, ſome of them made a ſignal for us to come over a place where we obſerved a long ridge of rocks, whence I preſumed, that the advantage they made by the ſhipwreck of the Portugueſe carrack, had tempted them to wiſh us the ſame fate. Finding, likewiſe, that the water was brackiſh, we ſailed away, and left the place."

CHAP. XXV.

The ISLAND of ZOCOTORA, or SOCOTORA.

THIS iſland, which was diſcovered by the Portugueſe in 1560, is ſituated in 10 deg. 12 min. north lat. and 53 deg. 16 min. eaſt long. about 30 leagues to the eaſtward of Cape Guardafui, on the moſt eaſterly point of the continent of Africa. It is about 80 miles in length, and 54 in breadth, and has two good harbours.

The climate of this iſland is ſultry, owing to the ſhort continuance of rains, which ſeldom laſt more than two or three weeks in the ſeaſon. This defect, however, is happily remedied by heavy dews, occaſioned by the lofty mountains, whoſe tops are generally covered with ſnow, ſo high as to condenſe the clouds, and afterwards diſſolve them in a kind of heavy miſt or fog, which thoroughly waters the earth. In ſome parts are rivers which riſe from ſprings, and are never affected even by the drieſt ſeaſons; but other parts are totally deſtitute of water, except in the rainy ſeaſon.

This iſland is populous; and the inhabitants are under the government of a prince, or ſultan, who was once ſubject to the Xeriffs of Arabia, but now is tributary to the Porte.

The country abounds in cattle and fruit, with which, and ſome other commodities, the natives trade to Goa, where they are better received than the Arabs, who are not permitted to enter that town without paſſports.

The other productions of the iſland are aloes, frankincenſe, dragon's blood, rice, dates, ambergris, and coral.

Of coral there are various kinds, ſome of which reſemble ſmall trees without leaves; others are in the form of a net, ſometimes with large meſhes, and ſometimes with ſmall. The inſide of the branches ſeems to be of the nature of horn; for it has the ſame ſcent when put into the fire; but the bark is of a ſtony nature, and contains a great deal of ſalt. Coral, properly ſo called, is of a ſtony nature, and placed in the animal kingdom, becauſe it produces ſea inſects. Some of theſe are red, others white, and others of various colours. However, the red, of the colour of vermillion, is beſt, and

and is by ſome ſaid to be of the male kind; and that which is paliſh of the female. The white coral is the next in value, and then the black; but thoſe of the other colours ſome will not allow to be corals, though they are found in the ſame places. It is always covered with bark, and is ſtony, ſolid, and very hard, even in the water; though the branches are a little flexible, but ſoon grow hard in the air. The bark of coral is a mixture of tartar, and a fluid of a glutinous nature; and though it is a little rough, it takes a very fine poliſh. Some take the black coral to be a ſea plant of a different nature.

Red coral is not ſo much eſteemed in Europe as it is in Aſia, and particularly in Arabia. It is uſed for making ſeveral ſorts of toys, ſuch as ſpoons, heads of canes, knife handles, and beads; and, when ſet in ſilver, ſerves as a play-thing for children, and is deſigned to rub their gums therewith, that they may cut their teeth more eaſily.

On the young branches of coral there are found ſmall eminences, pierced in the form of ſtars, and full of a milky fluid when they are juſt taken out of the water. Many learned men have thought ſea plants to be nothing but petrifications, conſiſting of plates of ſalt, and layers of tartar, placed one upon another; and as coral always grows with its head downwards, in caverns of rocks in the ſea, the ſituation has cauſed them to ſuſpect that they were nothing elſe but petrifications, like thoſe found on the roofs of certain caves in the rocks. But ſince the diſcovery of the flowers of coral, and ſome other marine productions, it is not at all doubted but they have a regular organization; and if their ſeeds have not been perceived, it is becauſe their ſmallneſs renders them imperceptible.

But ſome have thought that the generation of theſe plants is not owing to their ſeeds, becauſe as they always hang with their heads downwards, they would fall off to the bottoms of the caverns, and not place themſelves on the top; but this difficulty may be removed, by ſuppoſing they are lighter than the ſea-water, and that the milk which ſurrounds them is of ſo thick a nature, that it may help to aſſiſt them in ſwimming. Hence, indeed, it may happen, that many of them may riſe to the top of the water, and there periſh; but then, likewiſe, others may aſcend to the tops of caverns, and there fix themſelves, and then they will grow like coral, from which they proceed. Hence we may conclude, from the regularity of the productions, the organization of their parts, the great numbers of ſmall pores in their bark to receive the bitumen and other ſea juices, the eminences regularly hollowed in the form of ſtars, which ſerves for the caſes of flowers in the ſame ſhape, the veſſels full of a milky fluid which are found between the bark and the body of the plant, to make it grow thicker by little and little, and the perpetual uniformity of the ſame circumſtances; from all theſe particulars we have reaſon to believe, that the bottom of the ſea is covered with plants with characters different from ours.

The red coral is the only one choſen for medicinal uſes. It is a good abſorbent, and therefore proper to reſtrain the organiſm of the blood, and to blunt the acrimony of the bile and other humours in various ſorts of fluxes, as well as for the gripes in children.

The inhabitants derive great advantages from exporting theſe articles to many parts of the Indies, as well as Europe, obtaining for them, in exchange, all the neceſſaries and luxuries of life.

Beſides the natives of this iſland, there are here great numbers of Arabs; the latter of whom call the former by the name of Beduins, or ſhaped brutes. Theſe laſt are divided into two ſorts, namely, the natives of the coaſt, who intermarry with the Arabs, and are called Half-Beduins; and thoſe of the interior parts, who religiouſly adhere to their own cuſtoms, and reckon it an heinous crime to mingle blood with foreigners. Theſe laſt are the two Beduins, or original inhabitants of the country. They are much fairer than the Indians, and are in general tall, and proportionably made; but in their diſpoſitions they are deceitful, indolent, and great cowards, ſuffering themſelves to be enſlaved, in a manner, by an handful of Arabs, and attending to nothing beſides huſbandry and paſture, both which are chiefly carried on by the women. Their food conſiſts of milk, butter, rice, dates, and the fleſh of their cattle: and their common drink is water.

The other inhabitants of this iſland are of a low ſtature, diſagreeable complexion, lean habit, and have hideous features; but they are very hardy, ſtrong, and active. They feed on fiſh, fleſh, milk, butter and vegetables. Their common diſh is a compoſition of all theſe boiled together, with which they eat bread, rice, or dates.

The dreſs of the people of this iſland differs according to the ſeveral parts of it. The native Beduins go almoſt naked, having nothing more than a ſmall piece of cloth faſtened round the waiſt, and a cap made of goats ſkin. The women go bare-headed, and have a ſhort gown or cloak, with a ſhift made of goats hair. But the moſt general dreſs of theſe iſlanders conſiſts of a long cloak, which reaches from the waiſt to the ancles: it hangs down in a train behind, and is not unbecoming, though extremely incommodious, on account of the heat of the climate. When they are at work they gather it up, and faſten it round the waiſt with a girdle.

The native iſlanders are groſsly ignorant with reſpect to things in general. Their only ingenuity is diſplayed in the camboline manufacture, which is a beautiful ſtuff, made with the hair of goats and other animals.

Theſe people have ſeveral very ſtrange and uncommon cuſtoms. They practiſe polygamy, and divorce their wives at pleaſure, either for a certain time, or for ever. They may even be the father of children, without being obliged to maintain either them or the mother, provided the latter, during her pregnancy, conſents that the father ſhall give away the child, when it ſees the light. On theſe occaſions the father kindles a fire before the door of his hut or cave, and then makes proclamation that he will give away the infant of which his wife was on the point of being delivered. After this he fixes upon ſome particular perſon for its adopted father, to whom the infant is carried immediately after its birth. Here it meets with all that tenderneſs, kindneſs, and thoſe careſſes which are denied it by the unnatural father, is given to a nurſe, and ordered to be fed with goats milk. Theſe children are called, *The ſons or daughters of ſmoak*: and it frequently happens that a good-natured man ſhall have the honour of rearing a dozen children, upon whom he beſtows all the affection of a real parent. This is certainly one of the moſt extraordinary cuſtoms to be met with in hiſtory, as it does not ſeem to be founded either on the principle of religion, policy, or inclination, but upon mere caprice only; for it is common with a father, who expoſes his own, to adopt the children of others, and requite by his kindneſs to the latter, the good offices due to the former.

Theſe people have alſo another cuſtom, which is no leſs ſtrange and ſingular than the above. They generally bury their ſick before they have breathed their laſt, making no diſtinction between a dying and a dead perſon. They eſteem it a duty to put the patient out of pain as ſoon as poſſible, and make this their requeſt to their friends when they are on the ſick-bed, which, in all acute diſorders, may be called the death-bed. When the father of a family finds himſelf thus circumſtanced, and apprehends that his diſſolution is near, he aſſembles his children around him, whether natural or adopted, his parents, wives, ſervants, and all his acquaintances, whom he ſtrongly exhorts to a compliance with the following articles of his laſt will: Never to admit any alteration in the doctrine or cuſtoms of their anceſtors; never to intermarry with foreigners; never to permit an affront done to them, or their predeceſſors, or a beaſt ſtole from either of them, to go unpuniſhed; and, laſtly, never to ſuffer a friend to lie in pain, when they

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can relieve him by death. Such are the extraordinary requeſts of a dying man; after which he makes the ſignal to have the laſt of them performed upon himſelf, and expires.

This laſt duty is frequently performed by means of a white liquor of a ſtrong poiſonous quality, which oozes from a tree peculiar to this iſland. Hence it is that murders are more common here than in any country in the world; for, beſides the inhuman cuſtom laſt mentioned, the other requeſts of dying men produce numberleſs quarrels, and entail family feuds and bloodſhed upon their poſterity for generations, by taking revenge of the injuries done to their anceſtors.

How different are theſe cuſtoms from thoſe adopted by the Turks, who even found hoſpitals for ſuperannuated and decayed horſes, and gratefully repay, when old age has diſabled them, the ſervices they have received from thoſe uſeful animals while in their prime and vigour, conſidering, benevolently and philoſophically, that *the whole univerſe is one ſyſtem of ſociety*.

Look round our world, behold the chain of love
Combining all below, and all above;
See plaſtic nature working to its end,
The ſingle atoms to each other tend,
Attract, attacted to, the next in place,
Form'd and impell'd its neighbour to embrace.
See matter next, with various life endu'd,
Preſs to one center ſtill, the gen'ral good.
See dying vegetables life ſuſtain,
See life diſſolving vegetate again:
All forms that periſh, other forms ſupply,
(By turns we catch the vital breath and die,)
Like bubbles on the ſea of matter born,
They riſe, they break, and to that ſea return.
Nothing is foreign, parts relate the whole;
One all-extending, all-preſerving ſoul,
Connects each being, greateſt with the leaſt;
Made beaſt in aid of man, and man of beaſt;
All ſerv'd, all ſerving; nothing ſtands alone:
The chain holds on, and where it ends unknown.

In this iſland juſtice is adminiſtered by the chief magiſtrates, who are next in rank to the Sultan: they are called hodamos, and ſit at certain times to judge and determine in all cauſes, political and eccleſiaſtical, civil or criminal. They hold their office only for a year, during which they preſerve the moſt diſtinguiſhed power and dignity. There is no appeal from this tribunal, nor can the ſucceſſors reverſe any decree paſſed before their coming into office.

In criminal caſes the puniſhment for murder is death, which is done either by cutting off the offenders head, or impaling him alive. In caſes of theft, if the robber eſcapes with his booty, and takes ſanctuary in a temple, he is protected; but if he is caught by the perſon robbed, before he reaches the temple, he is then delivered up to juſtice, and the puniſhment for the crime is the loſs of his right-hand. Other trifling matters are puniſhed by fines, one half of which goes to the Sultan, and the other half is equally divided among the magiſtrates.

With reſpect to the religion of the inhabitants of this iſland, the Arabs amongſt them are Mahometans, but all the reſt are Pagans, and practiſe the moſt ſuperſtitious maxims. They adhere ſtrictly to circumciſion, and are ſo nice in preſerving this rite, that they cut off the fingers of thoſe whoſe parents have neglected to perform the operation upon them, or have themſelves refuſed it.

They keep lent, or at leaſt faſts equivalent to it, which they begin to obſerve at the new moon in March, abſtaining, for the ſpace of 60 days, from milk, butter, fleſh, and fiſh, and living wholly upon dates, rice, honey, and vegetables; procuring the money from Arabia, in exchange for aloes and frankincenſe. They have altars and croſſes; but as they are entirely ignorant of every tenet of the Chriſtian church, nothing certain can be deduced from ceremonies and uſages handed down by tradition, of which they can give no manner of account, or for which they cannot produce a ſingle reaſon. That they are groſs idolaters is ſufficiently evident from their worſhipping the moon, which they eſteem as the creative principle of all things; a notion extremely inconſiſtent with atheiſm, much more with Chriſtianity, and the doctrines of redemption.

At times of great drought they aſſemble in a ſolemn manner, and offer up their petitions to the moon. They make a public ſacrifice to her towards the beginning of lent, and offer up numbers of goats in honour of her. They enter into their temples whenever the moon riſes or ſets, and practiſe ſeveral other religious ceremonies, which prove them to be the zealous votaries of this inconſtant deity, and totally ignorant of the principles of the Chriſtian religion.

A late celebrated traveller ſays, "At the riſing and ſetting of the moon, (or more probably at the new and full moon,) they make ſolemn proceſſions round their temples, or moquamos, as alſo round their burying-places, ſtriking againſt each other two pieces of odoriferous wood, about a yard long, which each man holds in his hands. This ceremony they perform three times in the day, and as often at night; after which, putting a large cauldron, ſuſpended by three chains, over a great fire, they dip into it ſplinters of wood, with which they light their altars, and the porch of the temple. They then put up their prayers to the moon, that ſhe will enlighten them with her countenance, ſhed upon them her benign influence, and never permit foreigners to intermix with them. They make alſo an annual proceſſion round the temples, preceded by a croſs; and the whole ceremony ends upon the prieſt's clapping his hands together, as a ſignal that the moon is tired with their worſhip. Others ſay that the ſignal conſiſts in cutting off the fingers of the perſon who holds the croſs; in recompence for which he has given him a ſtick, with certain marks, prohibiting all perſons, of whatever degree or condition, to moleſt or hurt him ever after: on the contrary, they are to aid and aſſiſt him with all their power, in whatever manner he may require their help; and to reſpect and honour him as a martyr to religion, under the penalty of corporal puniſhment, and the loſs of an arm."

Theſe particulars, relative to the religion of the inhabitants of this iſland, are confirmed by Sir Thomas Roe, who, during his ſtay here, took great pains to preſerve, in his journal, a minute account of the manners and cuſtoms of the natives. This writer ſays, that he found the inhabitants of this iſland to conſiſt of four different ſorts of men, viz. of Arabs, whom the king of Caxem had ſent to keep the iſland in ſubjection to him; of ſlaves to the prince, who are employed in preparing aloes, and other offices of drudgery; of Beduins, the primitive inhabitants of the iſland, who were baniſhed to the mountains till they ſubmitted to the yoke, and agreed to breed up their children in the Mahometan religion; and, laſtly, of ſavages, with long hair, who live naked in the woods, and refuſe all ſociety.

To add to the particulars already mentioned, of this iſland and its inhabitants, it may not be improper to preſerve the ſhort account given of it by Mandeſloe, who was an accurate obſerver, and very particular in deſcribing the manners and cuſtoms of the people. "They live (ſays this writer) chiefly upon fiſh, roots, and fruit. They have no wild fowl, and great ſcarcity of tame; yet they are not deſtitute of cows, camels, aſſes, and ſheep, with goats, whoſe hair upon the thighs is curled in the manner in which ſatyrs are painted. Their arms are ſwords with large hilts, without a guard; poinards with long blades, which they conſtantly wear ſtuck in their girdle; and fire-arms, which they manage with ſome dexterity, but cannot keep them in order, or free from ruſt, ſo that in a few weeks they are rendered uſeleſs. They are remarkably expert in the uſe of bucklers, which they

wield

wield in such a manner as to protect every part of the body, and are wounded only when their shoulders are pierced, or cut down by blows. Though they live in an island, and trade with the continent, they are ignorant of navigation, and have no other vessels than flat-bottomed fishing-boats, with which, however, they weather great storms. The torrents that tumble down from the mountains, like rivers, either in rainy weather, or when the snow on the tops of the mountains is melted by the sun, sufficiently supplies all foreign shipping with water. Though they are Mahometans, yet they worship the sun and moon; Christians or infidels their religion is a strange mixture of truth and infidelity. But one would imagine, that idolatry and paganism prevailed, from the solemn processions and sacrifices made to those luminaries.

"The Socotorans use their women, who are chiefly Arabians, with great tenderness; but are so jealous, that they never permit them to be seen by a stranger. As they are crafty and deceitful themselves, so they are suspicious of the same insincerity in others: they adulterate their commodities, and expect that those they deal with have done the same. The islands affords some indifferent oranges, tobacco, citrons and cocoa-nuts, but they seldom come to maturity, on account of the stony, dry and sandy soil. Their chief commodity is aloes; and they have also dragon's-blood, and keep great numbers of civet cats; so that the civet may be purchased at Socotara for three or four crowns per ounce, which shews how plentiful it is; but, unhappily, there is no method of being secured from fraud for they find means to adulterate the civet."

CHAP. XXIV.

The Streights of Babelmandel, the Islands of Babelmandel, Dahlak, Massua, Marate, Swaken, and Barbora.

THE Streights at the entrance of the Red Sea were called Babelmandel, signifying *the gate of weeping, or port of affliction*, from the danger that attended the navigation of them. The Arabian Gulph, or Red Sea, which includes the Streights of Babelmandel, begins on that part of the ocean bounded on the side of Africa by Cape Guardafuy, and on the side of Asia by Cape Fartash. The intermediate streight was called by the Arabians and Indians, Albado, signifying *the gates or mouths*, as it is not more than six leagues wide, and so interspersed with little islands as scarce to admit of shipping to pass through its channel.

The Arabians, however, are either more skilful in maritime affairs, or less timid than they were when they named these streights, as at present they do not seem afraid to navigate them.

The Island of BARBELMANDEL

IS situated towards the entrance into the Red Sea. It stands in the very middle of the streights, about four miles from the Arabian, and the same distance from the Abyssinian coast, directly opposite the Cade Zela. Hence it forms two channels, one on each side of it, and from its situation, might if properly fortified, command both.

The Abyssinians and Arabians formerly contended with great fury for the possession of this island, as it commands the entrance into the South Sea, and preserves a communication with the ocean. This streight was formerly the only passage through which the commodities of India found their way to Europe; but since the discovery of the Cape of Good Hope the trade by the Red Sea is of little importance.

The island is a barren sandy spot of earth, not more than five miles in circumference. The Mahometans being now masters of both coasts, it is almost deserted having only a few poor inhabitants, for whom it just supplies a subsistence. Yet these people, though poor find the most perfect happiness in their situation; they possess what they deem a competence, and find the utmost felicity in what some might falsly call penury.

O happiness! our being's end and aim!
Good, pleasure, ease, content, whate'er thy name:
That something which still prompts th' eternal sigh,
For which we bear to live, nor fear to die,
Which still so near us, yet beyond us lies,
O'erlook'd, seen double, by the fool—and wise,
Plant of celestial seed, if dropp'd below,
Say in what mortal soil thou deign'st to grow?
Fair op'ning to some court's propitious shrine,
Or deep with di'monds, in the flaming mine?
Twin'd with the wreaths, Parnassian laurels yield,
Or reap'd in iron harvests of the field?
Where grows? where grows it not? If vain our toil,
We ought to blame the culture, not the soil:
Fix'd to no spot, is happiness sincere,
'Tis no where to be found, or ev'ry where;
Some place the bliss in action, some in ease,
Those call it pleasure, and contentment these;
Some, sunk to beasts find pleasure end in pain,
Some, swell'd to gods, confess e'en virtue vain;
Or indolent, to each extreme they fall,
To trust in ev'ry thing, or doubt of all.
Who thus define it, say they more or less
Than this, that happiness is happiness?
Take nature's path, and mad opinion's leave;
All states can reach it, and all heads conceive;
Obvious her goods, in the extreme they dwell;
There needs but thinking right, and meaning well.
Know, all the good that individuals find,
Or God and nature meant to mere mankind,
Reason's whole pleasure, all the joys of sense,
Lie in three words, health, peace and competence.
But health consists with temperance alone;
And peace, O virtue! peace is all thy own.
The gods of fortune, good or bad may gain;
But these less taste them, as they worse obtain.

DAHLAK

IS situated near the coast of Abix, being about 20 leagues eastward from the continent; and about the same distance south of Massua.

It is the largest and most considerable island on this coast, being near 90 miles in circumference. The air is temperate and salubrious, the land well watered and verdant, and the people numerous and robust.

Great numbers of camels, oxen, goats, &c. feed in the pastures; the sea and rivers yield plenty of fish; and the inhabitants are profusely supplied from the continent with honey, corn, &c.

The wealth of the place arises chiefly from pearl-fishing, at which many of the natives are very dexterous; and the pearls found here are some of the finest in the universe.

Besides pearl this island produces many emeralds. These have the green colour in all its different shades, from very dark to extreme pale; and are sometimes entirely colourless: though the English jewellers call it white sapphire.

Thoſe inhabitants of Dahlak who do not concern themſelves in fiſhing are, in general, notorious pirates, and plunder all the ſhips that come in their way. They behave with aſperity to all, but particularly to the Turks, when any of them are ſo unfortunate as to fall into their hands; and when they get home they take a peculiar pleaſure in boaſting of their piratical exploits to their wives, children and relations.

The king of Dahlak is ſovereign of this, and many other iſlands; and his ſubjects conſiſt chiefly of Abyſſinian Chriſtians, or Chriſtians of the Abyſſinian church.

The people of Dahlak, who appear to be of the Ethiopic race, are black and ill-favoured; but ſtrong robuſt, bold, daring, and loyal to their ſovereign. They are exceeding ſagacious and crafty, fond of repeating and hearing entertaining tales, very pleaſant companions, and admirably ſkilled in ſtory-telling. Their cloathing is a large piece of ſilk or cotton (according to their reſpective ranks) tied round the middle, and hanging down to the feet: but from the middle upwards both ſexes go naked. Their language is Arabic, intermixed with Ethiopian words.

The goat's hair here is very fine and long, ſo that it is manufactured into tolerable camblets. The ſoil, in general, of this iſland, is red; and though it does not produce much timber, yet it yields abundance of herbs. Here is a ſmall inſect reſembling a bee, which feeds on a kind of gum that diſtils from a tree which hath ſome ſimilitude to a cherry-tree; and from this inſect it is ſaid, that gum lac, uſed in varniſhing, making ſealing-wax, &c. is extracted.

The capital city, which goes by the ſame name as the iſland itſelf, is ſituated on a point of land to the weſtward of it; but it is of no great conſideration, as the king reſides, the greateſt part of the year, at the little iſland of Maſua, of which we ſhall now proceed to give ſome account.

MASUA.

THIS iſland is only half a mile in length, and ſomewhat leſs in breadth. It is very flat, and lies very near the main land, that is, on the north-weſt ſide. It has a good harbour, ſecure in all weathers, the depth of the water being about eight or nine fathoms, and the ground oozy. The entrance of this port is on the north-eaſt ſide, towards the middle of the channel, for from the eaſt-north-eaſt point of the iſland there runs a ſhoal towards another point; ſo that ſhips muſt take care to keep the middle of the channel, which is very ſtrait, and conſequently dangerous, and runs north-eaſt and ſouth-weſt.

The people here reſemble thoſe of Dahlak in cuſtoms, manners, &c. The men are alſo of two claſſes, thoſe who follow traffic, or the pearl fiſhery, and thoſe who live by piracy.

Maſua, with all the oppoſite coaſt, was formerly ſubject to the emperor of Abyſſinia; but within the laſt century it was ſeized by the king of Dahlak, who reſides chiefly here for the convenience of carrying on a trade with the continent; from whence he receives abundance of gold and ivory.

The air is exceeding hot and unhealthy during the months of May and June for want of wind, ſo that the king and principal inhabitants retire to Dahlak during theſe months.

MARATE

IS a low barren iſland, of a roundiſh ſhape, about three leagues from the continent, and 60 from Maſua; but in compaſs it does not exceed five miles.

On the ſouth-weſt ſide, facing the coaſt, there is a very good haven, ſecure from all winds, eſpecially the eaſtern, made by two very long points, which extend north by weſt, and ſouth by eaſt, incloſing a ſpacious harbour, narrow at the mouth, where there lies a long, very flat iſland, with ſome ſand banks and ſhoals, ſo that no ſea can get in. This port has two entrances, both very near the points. The channel, on the eaſt ſide, lies north by weſt. The depth is three fathom in the ſhalloweſt place, and encreaſes advancing in the port, where, near the ſhore, it is four or five fathoms, and the bottom is rather muddy.

The people who inhabit this iſland differ in nothing with reſpect to cuſtoms, manners, &c. from thoſe who reſide in Maſua, Dahlak, &c.

SWAKEN, SUAQUEN, or SAUCHEM.

THIS iſland is ſituated in 19 deg. 45 min. north lat. and 37 deg. 30 min. eaſt long. and the port is deemed one of the beſt in the Red Sea. The entrance is by a narrow ſtreight which leads to a lake, in the midſt of which is an iſland, and a town that covers every part of the iſland.

This town was once very important, and extremely opulent; but ſince it has fallen into the hands of the Turks, like moſt other places, which thoſe haughty, tyrannical, and idle people, have become poſſeſſed of it has dwindled, loſt its commerce and conſequence, grown poor and leſs populous, and at preſent is of very trifling conſideration.

The houſes now remaining in Swaken, and the other little iſlands adjacent, are all built with ſtone and mortar, and formed much in the European manner: the decayed city of Swaken is the ſeat of a Turkiſh governor, who acts ſubordinate to the baſſa of Grand Cairo, and the modern inhabitants are, in general, Turks or Arabs.

The beſt buildings in Swaken are the baths; and the moſt pleaſing amuſement which both the Turks and Arabs take is that of bathing. We have already obſerved, that bathing was deemed by the Mahometans a religious inſtitution.

BARBORA

LIES in 10 deg. 45 min. north lat. and 47 deg. 2 min. eaſt long. and has its appellation from a town of the ſame name on the neighbouring continent.

The inhabitants are negroes, and the common people wear cotton garments, which go round their waiſts, and hang down to their feet, the reſt of the body being bare; but thoſe of a ſuperior quality have the addition of a long cotton gown, which covers them all over, their faces excepted.

Theſe people are great breeders of cattle, for which the ſoil of the iſland affords excellent paſture: and very induſtrious traders, as they carry on a conſiderable traffic, by exchanging cattle, gold, frankincenſe, ivory, pepper, &c. for amber, necklaces, glaſs beads, raiſins, dates, &c.

The inhabitants of this iſland, who tend the herds and flocks are ſome of the happieſt and moſt inoffenſive people of the univerſe: indeed, their felicity hath been ſo much the admiration and envy of others, that many capital men, from the adjacent kingdoms, and ſeveral rich Arabian merchants, have thought proper to retire hither from the adulation of courts, the dangers of war, the hazards of commercial voyages, and the painful buſtle of trade, in order to taſte, in rural retirement, thoſe delicious pleaſures, which they could not obtain in the purſuit of fame and riches.

But bleſt is he, who, exercis'd in cares,
To private leiſure public virtue bears;
Who tranquil ends the race he nobly run,
And decks repoſe with trophies labour won:
Him honour follows to the ſecret ſhade,
And crowns propitious his declining head:
If his retreats their harps the muſes ſtring,
For him in lays unbought ſpontaneous ſing.
Friendſhip and truth on all his moments wait,
Pleas'd with retirement better than with ſtate;
And round the bower where humbly great he lies
Fair olives bloom, or verdant laurels riſe.

The commodities they receive by commercial means are brought to them by Turkiſh, Mooriſh, Arabian, Egyptian, &c. merchants. Their traffic, however, is much decayed ſince the Europeans have formed ſuch powerful commercial connections in the Eaſt Indies, as the merchants above alluded to naturally repair to the beſt mart, and ſeek the moſt profitable mode of vending their commodities.

Where gold allures the heart and charms the eye,
Moſt men towards its bright effulgence fly;
Forſake old friends, new riches to acquire,
And in the arms of avarice expire.

The inhabitants of this iſland are admired by all who have traded in thoſe ſeas for their univerſal philanthropy, and are peculiar for their ſingular benevolence to each other, and their very humane treatment to domeſtic and other animals. It were to be wiſhed that ſuch virtues were more general, and that thoſe who eſteem themſelves polite people, and boaſt of a more refined education would copy the ſhining parts of all characters, however different from them in political or religious ſentiments, or remote with reſpect to the locality of ſituation.

Theſe ideas naturally turn our thoughts on the wanton cruelty and inhumanity often unneceſſarily exerciſed towards the brute creation by Europeans, and too frequently extended even to our own ſpecies; and ſuch reflections induce us to tranſcribe ſome excellent obſervations on the ſubject made by a reverend divine, as at the ſame time that theſe obſervations diſplay thoſe cruelties in their proper colours, with reſpect to ourſelves, they apply with great propriety to ſome diſtinctions too frequently made with reſpect to the generality of the inhabitants of that part of the globe now under conſideration.

"I preſume (ſays he) there is no man of feeling, that has any idea of juſtice, but would confeſs, upon the principles of reaſon and common ſenſe, that if he were to be put to unneceſſary and unmerited pain by another man, his tormentor would do him an act of injuſtice; and from a ſenſe of the injuſtice in his own caſe, now that he is the ſufferer, he muſt naturally infer, that if he were to put another man of feeling to the ſame unneceſſary and unmerited pain which he now ſuffers, the injuſtice in himſelf to the other ſhould be exactly the ſame as the injuſtice in his tormentor to him. Therefore the man of feeling and juſtice will not put another man to unmerited pain, becauſe he will not do that to another which he is unwilling ſhould be done to himſelf. Nor will he take any advantage of his own ſuperiority of ſtrength, or of the accidents of fortune, to abuſe them to the oppreſſion of his inferior: becauſe he knows that in the article of feeling all men are equal; and that the differences of ſtrength or ſtation are as much the gifts and appointments of God, as the differences of underſtanding, colour or ſtature. Superiority of rank or ſtation may give ability to communicate happineſs, (and ſeems ſo intended) but it can give no right to inflict unneceſſary, or unmerited pain. A wiſe man would impeach his own wiſdom, and be unworthy of the bleſſing of a good underſtanding, if he were to infer from thence that he had a right to deſpiſe, or make game of a fool, or put him to any degree of pain. The weakneſs of the fool ought rather to excite his compaſſion, and demands the wiſe man's care and attention to one that cannot take care of himſelf.

"It hath pleaſed God to cover ſome men with white ſkins, and others with black ſkins: but as there is neither merit nor demerit in complexion, the white man (notwithſtanding the barbarity of cuſtom and prejudice) can have no right, by virtue of his colour, to enſlave and tyrannize over a black man; nor has a fair man any right to deſpiſe a brute, or inſult a brown man. Nor do I believe that a tall man, by virtue of his ſtature, has any legal right to trample a dwarf under his feet. For, whether a man is wiſe or fooliſh, white or black, fair or brown, tall or ſhort, ſuch he is by God's appointment; and, extractedly conſidered, is neither a ſubject for pride, nor an object of contempt.

"Now if amongſt men the differences of their powers of the mind, and of their complexion, ſtature and accidents of fortune, do not give to any one man a right to abuſe or inſult any other man on account of theſe differences; for the ſame reaſon a man can have no natural right to abuſe and torment a beaſt, merely becauſe a beaſt has not the mental powers of a man. For ſuch as the man is, he is but as God made him; and the very ſame is true of the beaſt.

"A brute is an animal no leſs ſenſible of pain than a man. He has ſimilar nerves and organs of ſenſation; and his cries and groans, in caſe of violent impreſſions on his body, though he cannot utter his complaints by ſpeech or human voice, are as ſtrong indications to us of his ſenſibility of pain, as the cries and groans of a human being, whoſe language we do not underſtand. Now as pain is what we are all averſe to, our own ſenſibility of pain ſhould teach us to commiſerate it in others, to alleviate it if poſſible, but never wantonly or unmeritedly to inflict it.

"As the differences among men in theſe particulars are no bars to their feelings, ſo neither does the difference of the ſhape of a brute from that of a man exempt the brute from feeling; at leaſt, we have no ground to ſuppoſe it. But ſhape or figure is as much the appointment of God as complexion or ſtature. And if the difference of complexion or ſtature does not convey to one man a right to deſpiſe and abuſe another man, the difference of ſhape between a man and a brute cannot give to a man a right to abuſe and torment a brute. For He that made man and man to differ in complexion or ſtature, made man and brute to differ in ſhape and figure. And in this caſe there is neither merit or demerit: every creature, whether man or brute, bearing that ſhape which the Supreme Wiſdom judged moſt expedient to anſwer the end for which the creature was ordained.

"With regard to the modification of the maſs of matter of which an animal is formed, it is accidental as to the creature itſelf; I mean, it was not in the power or will of the creature to chooſe, whether it ſhould ſuſtain the ſhape of a brute or a man: and yet, whether it be of one ſhape, or of the other, the matter of which the creature is compoſed would be equally ſuſceptible of feeling. It is ſolely owing to the will of God that we are created men. For He that "formed man of the duſt of the ground, and breathed into his noſtrils the breath of life," that he might become a living ſoul," and endued him with the ſenſe of feeling, could, if he had ſo pleaſed, by the ſame plaſtic power, have caſt the very ſame duſt into the mould of a beaſt; which, being animated by the life-giving breath of its Maker, would have become a "living ſoul," in that form; and, in that form, would have been as ſuſceptible of pain as in the form of a man.

"If, then, in brutal ſhape, we had been endued with the ſame degree of reaſon and reflection which we now enjoy; and other beings, in human ſhape, ſhould take upon them to torment, abuſe, and barbarouſly ill-treat us, becauſe we were not made in their ſhape, the injuſtice and cruelty of their behaviour to us would be ſelf-evident: and we ſhould naturally infer, that, whether we walk upon two legs or four; whether our heads are prone or erect; whether we are naked or covered with hair; whether we have horns or no horns, long ears or round ears; or, whether we bray like an aſs, ſpeak like a man, whiſtle like a bird, or are mute as a fiſh, nature never intended theſe diſtinctions as foundations for right of tyranny and oppreſſion.

"But, perhaps, it will be ſaid, it is abſurd to make ſuch an inference from a mere ſuppoſition that a man might have been a brute, and a brute might have been a man: for the ſuppoſition itſelf is chimerical, and has no foundation in nature; and all arguments ſhould be drawn from facts, and not from fancy of what might be

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or what might not be. To this I reply in few words and in general: that all cases and arguments, deduced from the important and benevolent precept of "doing to others as we would be done unto," neceſſarily require ſuch kind of ſuppoſitions; that is, they ſuppoſe the caſe to be otherwiſe than it really is. For inſtance, a rich man is not a poor man; yet, the duty plainly ariſing from the precept is this—The man who is now rich ought to behave to the man who is now poor in ſuch a manner as the rich man (if he were poor) would be willing that the poor man (if he were rich) ſhould behave towards him. Here is a caſe which, in fact, does not exiſt between theſe two men; for the rich man is not a poor man, nor is the poor man a rich man; yet the ſuppoſition is neceſſary to inforce and illuſtrate the precept, and the reaſonableneſs of it is allowed. And if the ſuppoſition is reaſonable in one caſe, it is reaſonable, at leaſt not contrary to reaſon, in all caſes to which this general precept can extend, and in which the duty enjoined by it can, and ought to be performed. Therefore, though it be true, that "a man is not a horſe," yet, as a horſe is a ſubject within the extent of the precept, that is, he is capable of receiving benefit by it, the duty enjoined in it extends to the man, and amounts to this: Do you that are a man ſo treat your horſe, as you would be willing to be treated by your maſter, in caſe that you were a horſe. I ſee no abſurdity, or falſe reaſoning in this precept: nor any ill conſequence that would ariſe from it, however it may be gain-ſaid by the barbarity of cuſtom.

"In the caſe of human cruelty (that is, the cruelty of men unto men) the oppreſſed man has a tongue that can plead his own cauſe, and a finger to point out the aggreſſor: all men that hear of it ſhudder with horror, and, by applying the caſe to themſelves, pronounce it cruelty with the common voice of humanity, and unanimouſly join in demanding the puniſhment of the offender. But in the caſe of brutal cruelty, the dumb beaſt can neither utter his complaints to his own kind or deſcribe the author of his wrong: or, if he could, have they it in their power to redreſs and avenge him.

"In the caſe of human cruelty there are courts and laws of juſtice in every civilized ſociety, to which the injured man may make his appeal: the affair is canvaſſed, and puniſhment inflicted in proportion to the offence. But, alas! with ſhame to man, and ſorrow for brutes, I aſk the queſtion, What laws are now in force? or what court of judicature does now exiſt, in which the ſuffering brute may bring his action againſt the wanton cruelty of barbarous man? No friend no advocate, not one is to be found among the "bulls nor calves, (Pſal. lxviii. 30.) to prefer an indictment in behalf of the brute: the wretched unbefriended creature is left to moan in unregarded ſorrow, and ſink under the weight of his burden.

"But ſuppoſe the law promulged, and the court erected. The judge is ſeated, the jury ſworn, the indictment read, the cauſe debated, and a verdict found for the plaintiff. Yet what coſt or damage? What recompence for loſs ſuſtained? In actions of humanity, with or without law ſatisfaction may be made. In various ways you can make amends to a man for the injuries you have done him; and by your aſſiduity and future tenderneſs may, perhaps, obtain his pardon, and palliate the offence. But what is all this to the injured brute? If, by paſſion or malice, or ſportive cruelty, you have broken his limbs, or deprived him of his eye-ſight, how can you make him amends? Thou canſt do nothing to amuſe him. Thou haſt obſtructed his means of getting ſubſiſtence; and thou wilt hardly take upon thyſelf the pains and trouble of procuring it for him (which yet by the rule of juſtice thou art bound to do. Thou haſt marred his little temporary happineſs, which was his all to him. Thou haſt maimed, or blinded him for ever: and haſt done him a cruel and an irreparable injury."

The AZORES.

THESE iſlands, called alſo the Weſtern Iſlands, have been, by different geographers, deemed parts of America, Africa and Europe, being ſituated almoſt in a central line between them; but as they lie near ſome of the places lately deſcribed we ſhall here inſert them as the moſt proper place.

The Azores are ſituated between 25 and 32 deg. weſt long. and between 37 and 40 deg. north lat. They were diſcovered by the Portugueſe, to whom they belong, and were by them called Azores, from the great number of hawks and falcons found there. They are nine in number, viz. St. Michael, Terceira, Pico, Santa Maria, St. George, Oracioſa, Fayal, Flores and Corvo. They enjoy a ſalubrious air and fertile ſoil, but are ſubject to frequent inundations of the ſea, and tremendous earthquakes.

ST. MICHAEL, which is the moſt extenſive of theſe iſlands, is about 100 miles in circumference, and the ſoil is very fit for tillage. It was twice invaded by the Engliſh in the reign of Queen Elizabeth. The chief town is Punta del Gado, but it does not contain any thing remarkable.

TERCEIRA is the moſt important of theſe iſlands on account of its harbour, which is ſpacious and defended by two forts that ſecure Angra the capital. This city is the reſidence of the governor of the Azores and the biſhop. It contains eight convents and five churches, beſides the cathedral.

PICO, which is nearly as large as St. Michael, carries on a great trade in wines, and abounds with cedar and a tough red wood much valued, called teixos.

The reſt of theſe iſlands do not contain any thing remarkable, nor do they vary from thoſe deſcribed in any of their productions. But it muſt be obſerved that all of them have at leaſt one harbour capable of receiving various kinds of veſſels.