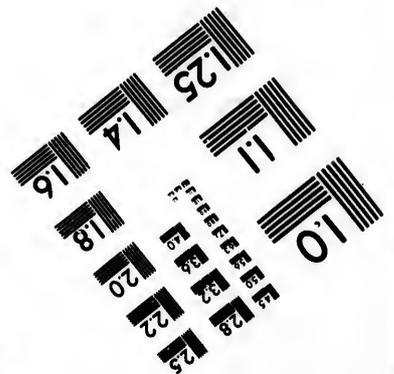
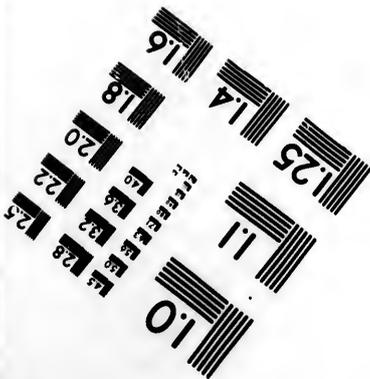
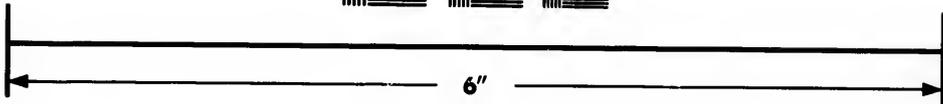
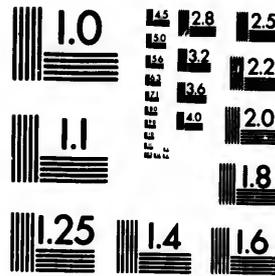


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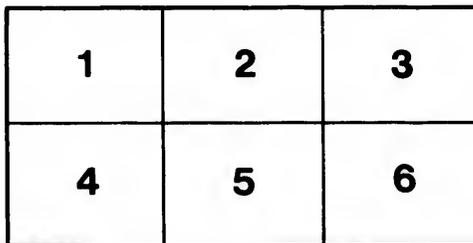
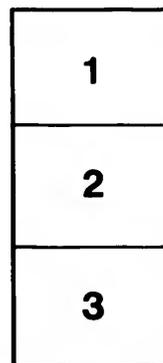
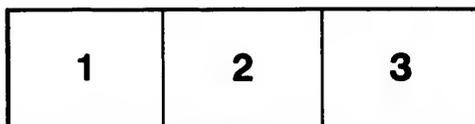
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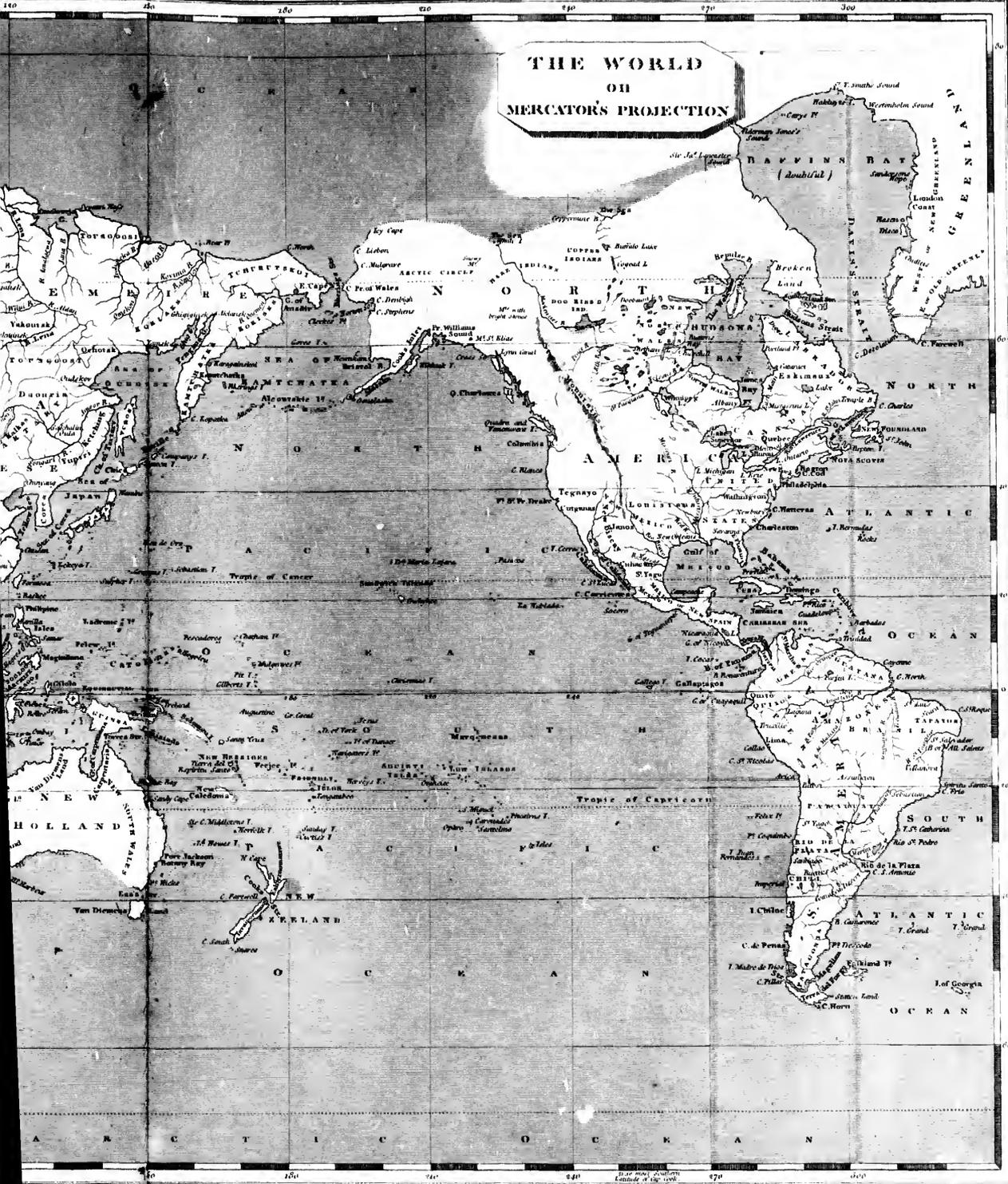
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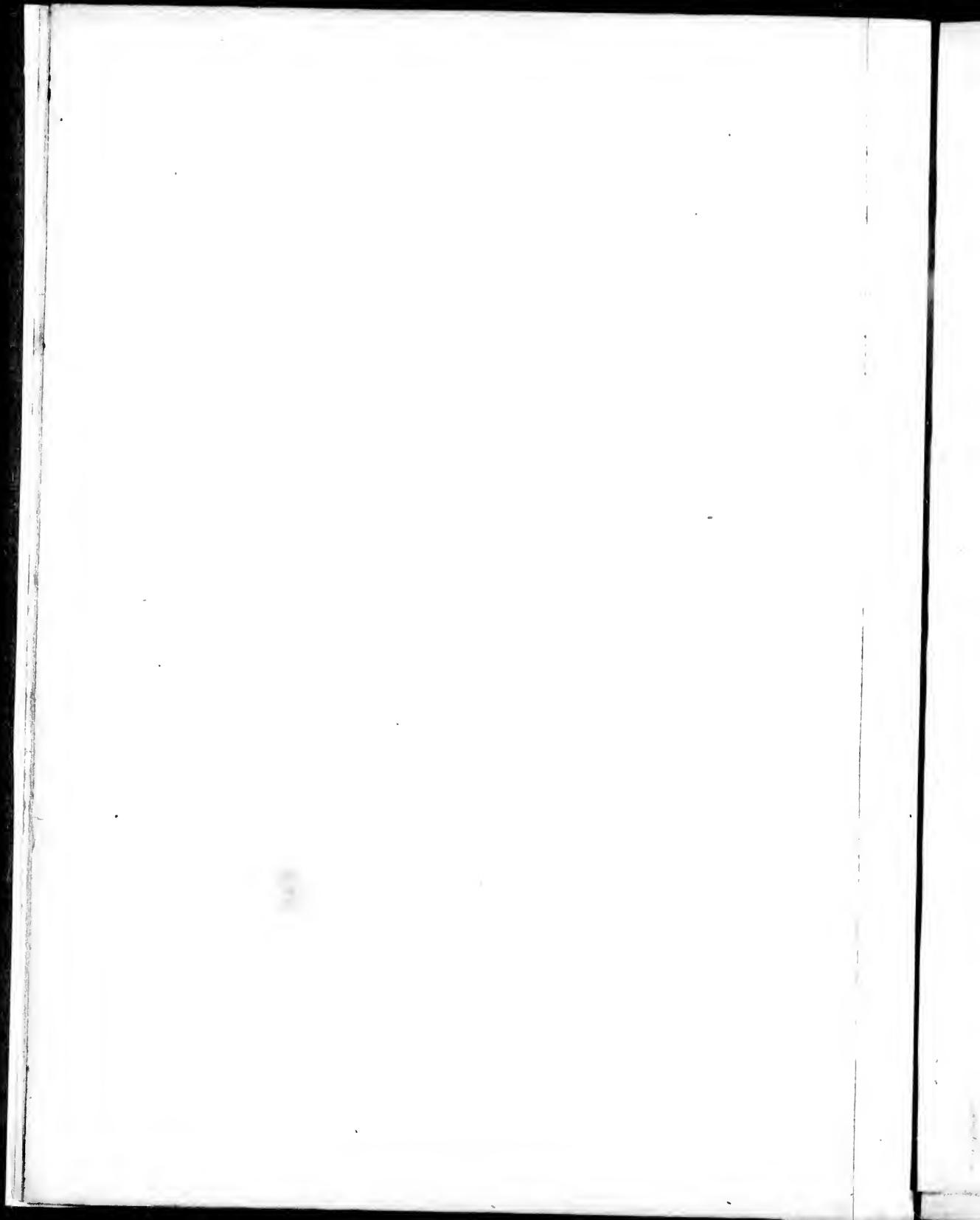
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C O N T E N T S
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T H E S E C O N D V O L U M E .

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ADDITIONS AND CORRECTIONS, VOL. II.

PAGE 80. The tusks of boars said to weigh six hundred weight, though supported by the respectable authority of Mr. Tooke, are not admitted by skilful naturalists, who affirm that they belong to the elephant, or, perhaps, the hippopotamus.

P. 346, line 24, for northern chain, *read* southern chain. It would appear that this southern ridge of the mountains of Tibet, called the Himmals, while the northern is the Mus Tag, is the highest in the world, as might be expected from the vast extent of Asia, or, rather, the joint continent of Asia and Europe, of which this chain

approaches the centre. The middle part of the chain may, as usual, be conceived to be the highest. The most elevated peak within sight of Patna has been found, by repeated and careful observations of Colonel Crawford, to be more than twenty thousand feet above the plain of Nipal, which is computed to be five thousand feet above the level of the sea. If we judge from the Alps, the southern ridge must be higher than the northern.

P. 344. That the ouran-utang lights a fire is a fable, borrowed by Linnæus from some idle traveller.

MEMOIR

part of the chain
the highest. The
has been found,
of Colonel Craw-
and feet above the
to be five thousand
we judge from the
higher than the

fire is a fable, bor-
aveller.

EMOIR



ASIA.



MEMOIR

ON THE

RISE AND PROGRESS OF DISCOVERY

IN

ASIA.

BY a singular fatality, while America, which was only discovered three centuries ago, has been since nearly explored in all its extent, Africa, the seat of the Egyptians, perhaps the most ancient of enlightened and civilized nations, remains in a great degree unknown; and Asia, whence the light of knowledge passed to Europe, has been so slowly unveiled, that Siberia is but a recent discovery, and the eastern coasts of Asia have been first delineated in a satisfactory manner by recent British navigators. Of this curious and important subject, a brief idea is given in the "progress of geography" in Asia; but as it is one of the most interesting topics of the science, it was thought necessary, in a complete system of modern geography, to enter into more ample discussions, especially as the author had procured some materials which had escaped former investigators.

Slowest of
Discovery,

If in estimating the progress of geography, we were uniformly to argue that civilized and enlightened nations may be said to discover, and record on the page of knowledge, countries more barbarous and uncivilized, it would be difficult to chuse the focus of illumination. For in the progress of society who shall pronounce if the Chinese anticipated the Hindoos; the Hindoos the Persians, the Assyrians, or the Egyptians? But as commerce is among the first marks of civilization, and the Mediterranean Sea, lying between Europe, Asia, and Africa, afforded resources for this purpose not to be traced in any other quarter of the East, it is natural to conclude that the Assyrians may have preceded any other division of mankind in the arts of civilization. The relations of the Mahometan travellers in the ninth century, universally admitted to

Centre to be
chosen.

First civilized
nations.

Egyptians.

be authentic, since the discovery in the national library of France of the manuscript used by Renaudot, evince that the progress of society in China was then more imperfect and inclined to barbarism than theory had expected. It is, indeed, reasonable to conclude from the appearances of nature, as well as from the most ancient records of various nations, that the high and extensive table land, in the centre of Asia, was the first region which arose from the primeval waters, and the first cradle of the human race, though the soil has been since exhausted, and the fertile land withdrawn by numerous rivers, and deposited, as usual on a smaller scale, in the circumjacent vallies. It is alike reasonable to infer, from the concurrent testimony of ancient records, that the light of civilization did not arise from the eastern extremities of Asia, but rather in the west, or towards the centre, of the southern parts of that vast continent. Hence many learned men have inferred that Hindostan is to be regarded as the most ancient seat of civilization; while others are rather inclined to suppose that the progress was from the confines of the Mediterranean to Persia, and thence to the east. Certain it is that the Egyptians seem to have preceded any other nation whatever in those monuments and usages which evince the most ancient civilization. That they were neither the parents nor progeny of the Chinese, as has been imagined, is sufficiently clear from their form and features, observable in the numerous mummies, in which there is no appearance whatever of the oblique eye, the thin strait beard, or any other character of the Chinese physiognomy. That they were indigenes of Africa seems equally improbable, as there is no other African nation whatever which has made any progress towards civilization. The Abyssinians, it is well known, passed from Arabia; and Sallust, who refers to Punic manuscripts, asserts that other maritime parts were peopled by the Medes, Persians, and Armenians. It is indeed among the proofs of the most ancient civilization that we never read of any colony planted in Asia; while, on the contrary, colonies have passed from that continent to Europe and Africa. As therefore, according to the most ancient records, the other distinguished nations in Africa derived their origin from Asia, so it is reasonable to infer that the Egyptians fell under this description, the more especially as they are found precisely on that side of Africa which is opposite to Asia. Hence the author had been formerly induced to believe that they were of Assyrian or Arabian extract: and their language, which is now allowed by the most learned orientalists to be peculiar and unique, would not have been an infallible argument of the contrary position, for it might have been adopted from the greater number of the preceding rude inhabitants; as, not to mention many other instances,

instances, the Quechua or language of the Incas has supplanted the Spanish among the creols of Peru. But the marked approximation of features; the nature and magnitude of their temples; the dominion of the priesthood, which in many instances has rather extended than obstructed the arts, though they monopolize the sciences; the emblems of some of the divinities said to be such as to excite the immediate devotion of the Hindoos who accompanied our army; and several other circumstances may serve to induce a belief that a willing colony of Hindoos, a party of exiles who had offended the severe regulations of their country, or perhaps merely a party driven by the natural course of the trade winds at a particular season of the year, had found an easy passage across the Arabian Sea, and landed in Abyssinia, before it was possessed by the Arabian colony; whence, according to their traditions, the Egyptians migrated towards the north, naturally preferring the fertile vale of the Nile to the rugged alps of Abyssinia and the deserts of Nubia. If the Coptic cannot now be traced among the languages of Hindostan, it may perhaps have been adopted from a conquered nation; for the Egyptians, strictly so called, appear like the Peruvians to have been only the ruling people: and though themselves of a dusky hue, as appears from numerous paintings in the tombs of Thebes, and other monuments, which, from the exclusion of the air are as fresh as if recently coloured, yet so numerous were their negro subjects that several ancient writers have described the Egyptians as of a black complexion, while the contrary is evident from their monuments, and the infallible testimony of themselves in their mummies.*

As to the fable of the Atlantes, which would indicate the most ancient civilized nation to have existed on a continent to the west of Africa, or more plausibly in Africa itself where their territories were inundated by sand, and not by water; it has never excited the least attention of men of solid judgment or profound erudition: and Bailly, its chief restorer, though profoundly versed in the history of astronomy, was in other respects extremely superficial. Plato, who from the exuberance of his imagination ought rather to be styled a poet than a philosopher, first recorded this pretty romance, as having been recited by the Egyptian priests to please the Greek credulity, and love of the marvellous. As at the same time they added that the sun had repeatedly changed its course since these events happened, it would be difficult to determine

Atlantes, a fable.

* Abydenus (apud Joseph et Euseb.) and Strabo xv. p. 687, say that Nabuchodonosor planted a colony of *Libyans* near the Euxine. Pindar Pyth. iv. 376 calls the Colchians *brown*: the Scholiast says they were *black* because they came from Egypt.

which was the east and which was the west, or in what region of the world to search for the Atlantes; as the straits of Hercules among the Egyptians may have been those of the Hindoo Hercules, Rama, between Hindostan and Ceylon. But it is idle to argue concerning this fable, for while its modern repeaters have carefully but most unfairly selected only the probable circumstances, the reader has only to consult the original; and when he finds cities walled with gold, and houses roofed with diamonds, he will only smile at the absurdity of those who are capable of repeating such Arabian tales, such palpable fictions as would not even deceive the most puerile understanding. There is yet another theory of Bailly, founded on the system of Buffon, that the earth, originally a fragment of the sun, first cooled and became inhabitable towards the poles; so that civilization must have spread from the frozen banks of the Ob, the Yenisei, and the Lena. But why spread from the northern pole in preference to the southern? Civilized nations always leave marks of their existence in monuments, weapons, utensils, and ornaments; and none such have been found in northern Siberia, where even the articles found in the tombs on the south of that country, ludicrously supposed by Bailly to belong to his primeval nation, are well known by every antiquary to be Persian relics, spoils of the armies of Zingis and Timur. Men of more sedate judgment than Bailly have however conceived a primitive civilized people, as the only supposition which can account for the identity or similarity of many objects of ancient science. But as human nature is the same in all countries, it is natural that the same objects should impress the same sensations and ideas. Different nations might invent years, and months, and constellations; might measure by their extended arms; might number by their fingers: so that to a just reasoner there is less reason to wonder that there should be identity, than that there should be variety.

Primeval
nation.

Hindoos and
Egyptians
compared.

But while the Egyptians are admitted into perhaps the first rank among the civilized nations of antiquity, it by no means follows that the Hindoos, if their ancestors, have yet a prior claim. For situation contributes as much to this effect as natural talents; and that of the Egyptians, in a country which derived all its fertility from a river, and by requiring little labour to procure the necessaries of life, left abundant time for other pursuits, was of all others the most adapted to this purpose; not to mention the Mediterranean and Red Seas, which, by prompting commercial intercourse, contributed to the diffusion of knowledge. If the Assyrians or Phenicians preceded in this career, their neighbourhood would be an additional cause; and the Egyptians might have made a great progress while their ancestors, the Hindoos, spread

OF DISCOVERY IN ASIA.

over a vast extent of country, and divided into several kingdoms, must have been retarded by frequent wars, and other unavoidable causes. So far as the records of history extend the Persians were among the first nations who were united under one sovereign; and it would be difficult to affirm whether they, or the Egyptians, present this first evidence of civilization. But the Hindoos can have no claim, as they were divided into petty kingdoms long after the period when Egypt and Persia enjoyed this prerogative. Civilization, the arts and sciences, also accompany the erection of cities, as commerce and wealth the establishment of roads and canals. It is therefore not a little observable that the whole of Egypt, a narrow valley between two ridges of mountains, and fortified as it were by surrounding deserts, may be said to have formed one city, so easy and rapid was the intercourse by the tranquil navigation of the Nile. Hence it would not be wonderful that the Egyptians had preceded the Hindoos in all the advantages of civilization, even allowing that they were a colony from Hindostan; as in like manner, not to mention numerous instances, the Saxons in England had made a considerable progress, while their ancestors in Germany remained in a state of barbarism.

Before any attempt to arrange the progress of discovery in Asia, it became necessary to indicate some focus whence the irradiation was to be measured. For if we regarded, as in modern times, Europe as the centre of discovery, the rule would be so totally inapplicable to ancient periods, that Europe itself, then lost in barbarism and ignorance, was an object of discovery to the enlightened Asiatics. It might indeed be an object of curiosity to discover what the ancient Phenicians, whose commerce first opened the stores of European knowledge, had discovered by their inland commerce concerning the extent of Asia; and whether the early Egyptians maintained commercial relations with Hindostan, as M. Denon infers from some articles of furniture represented in the sepulchral paintings. Their religion seems so far original, that they would either appear to have been a party who, as it happens, had embraced particular tenets before they abandoned their parent soil; or had passed, as more probable, when the mythology, not reduced into a system by poets or records, was left to the lax and varied tradition of the people; and in Egypt adopted new features from the local situation, which was so singular and peculiar as to resemble no other country. Nor could their intercourse with Hindostan, when, in the course of ages, they had extended their population, and begun commercial enterprises, be expected to have any influence on a system already imbibed, and recorded, and guarded by a numerous priesthood. Hence the similarity
between

Their con-
nexions.

between the Egyptian and Hindoo worship is far from being general, or even striking; while at the same time both had assumed such invincible sway over the people, that Cambyfes, the powerful king of Perfia, irritated at an obstinate idolatry which he despised, as incongruous with the Perfian ideas of a supreme deity, the creator of the objects of Egyptian adoration, spread destruction and blood in a war which may be called religious, without being able to eradicate the popular creed. But concerning the ancient Egyptian knowledge of Hindostan, and other parts of Asia, it would now be vain to enquire; nor would the Hindoos, nor the Chinese, supply many materials for such a disquisition. The first source of discovery was commerce, which the Hindoos seem in all ages to have rather admitted than practised. Conquest was another great source of discovery; but the Hindoos were rather exposed to conquests than conquerors. It is well known that Darius, son of Hystaspes, conquered a considerable portion of India: * and sufficient credit may be lent to the native annals and traditions of Perfia, to believe that its more ancient kings had repeatedly carried their victorious arms into that country. But when the ancients inform us that Osiris the Egyptian deity reigned fifty-two years in India, and planted many Egyptian colonies in order to civilize that country, perhaps it is a mythological allegory to express the relations between Egypt and Hindostan. † The conquests of Sesostris seem also to be magnified; and it is likely he only subdued part of Arabia and the country towards the Euxine. But when Cambyfes conquered Egypt it is known that many Egyptians fled to Hindostan; and the intercourse appears to have been common till that conquest, when it was impeded or annihilated by the aversion of the Perfians to maritime affairs. The first voyage of discovery however seems to have been that undertaken by Scylax, by the permission of Darius, which led to the subsequent conquest of a part of Hindostan. Though the Egyptians probably invaded at different times the opposite Asiatic shores of Arabia, and the Arabians are perhaps the bearded captives represented in their ancient monuments, yet their conquests seem more naturally to have been restricted to the negro states, on the south of their dominions.

Scriptural
account.

If we consult the scripture, from its original and simple form, and the primitive nature of the events recorded, certainly the most ancient

* When Dr. Robertson, *Disq.* p. 298, argues against the ancient facts of Herodotus, from the comparatively modern silence of Arrian, his logic cannot be much applauded. He even forgets the national vanity of the Greeks, and their jealousy of the barbarian Perfians.

† See Huet *Commerce des Anciens*, p. 40, Lyon 1763, 8vo. This celebrated work has unaccountably escaped Dr. Robertson's observation, though it would have supplied him with many valuable materials for his production on ancient India.

and venerable written record in the world, we shall find that the distant voyages of the Phenicians were the first that may be considered as leading to distant discoveries. However the original passages may have, in one or two instances, been mistaken by the transcribers of a work, the nature of which is very remote from commercial enquiries, so that the long voyages to Tarshish and Ophir are both said to have commenced on the Red Sea, yet the learned have long been convinced that *Ophir* was on the eastern coast of Africa, the very name itself being probably the original source of the word *Africa*; while the voyage to Tarshish was that to Tartessus, or the island of Cadiz, and the adjacent south-western part of Spain, a country then abounding with silver and other precious commodities: and the clear testimony of the Book of Jonah, who goes to Joppa, the only port on the Mediterranean belonging to the Hebrews, in order to embark for Tarshish, and finds a ship lying there bound for that country, will, by any man of common sagacity, be deemed conclusive. In these voyages the Hebrews were allowed to participate by the friendship of the Tyrians. The state of commerce at Tyre has been depicted in interesting colours by Ezekiel.* Among the most curious articles, were ivory from the isles of Chittim, fine linen and embroidered work from Egypt; blue and purple from the isles of Elithah; silver, iron, tin, and lead from Tarshish (all which metals are still found in Spain;) slaves, and vessels of brass, from Javan, Tubal, and Meshech; horses and mules from Togarmah; ivory and ebony from Dedan; bright or polished iron, cassia, and calamus, from Dan and Javan; spices, precious stones, and gold from Sheba and Raamah. A learned commentary on this portion of scripture would be a curious record of ancient commerce and discovery: The spices were in all probability from India, and brought at least for a considerable part of the way by inland trade: but that Tadmor in the desert, built by Solomon in a position no where indicated, though most probably between Palestine and his new havens on the Red Sea, should be the grand city of Palmyra, at such a distance from his own dominions, seems a mere gratuitous assertion. †

However this be, the Phenicians, by their intercourse with Greece and other parts of Europe, may be regarded as the first nation who disclosed a considerable portion of Asia, their native continent, to the

Phenician
commerce.

Tadmor.

Real centre
of discovery.

* Chap. xxvii.

† In the Syriac *Tadmor* is said merely to signify a grove of palm trees; so that the name is far from specific, and has no connection with the Greek Palmyra, a palm in that language being *φωμῆ*. The orientals ascribe many great monuments to the magic of Solomon. It is surprising to find Dr. Robertson, a divine, always speaking of the Jews; a name which cannot be used with any propriety till after the captivity of the ten tribes.

curiosity

Empire of
the seas.

curiosity of Europeans; and by the plantation of colonies in Greece re-established a focus of knowledge and civilization, afterwards to be diffused throughout Europe. As to the empire of the seas, idly affirmed by the vanity of Greek writers, to have belonged to successive Grecian states, the Corinthians, Ionians, tyrants of Samos, Phœceans, Athenians, &c. the exaggeration must be restricted to the narrow limits of the Egean and Ionian Seas, which had alone been explored by the Greeks; the first real dominion of the seas having been that of the Phenicians; succeeded by that of their sons the Carthaginians, vanquished after repeated struggles by that of the Romans. As masters of the seas the Phenicians must also be regarded as the first authors of maritime discovery; and the sagacity and equity of modern criticism will set aside the nationality of the Greeks, who sufficiently evidence their own ignorance by regarding themselves as the only civilised people, while the liberal appellation of barbarians was bestowed on all other nations, not excepting even those who had far preceded the Greeks in the arts of civilization.

Greek know-
ledge.

But the discoveries of the Phenicians in Asia have perished with their historical records: and it is not to the commerce, but to the conquests, of the Greeks, that we must ascribe the commencement of the knowledge which the ancients acquired of Asia. That truly great monarch Alexander, whose foundations of commercial cities, and designs of diffusing intercourse and amity among distant nations, are far more glorious than his conquests, may be said to have been the first author of a clear and steady progress in the discovery of Asia; and in establishing scientific connections between the two continents. His achievements in Persia and India; the voyage of Nearchus performed by his orders; the erection of three cities in the Panjab, (such foundations being always the fruits of his conquests, while many false heroes are only known as having destroyed cities;) the establishment of the kingdom of Bactria: the expedition of Seleucus to the Ganges, from which however, as he was not accompanied by any literary man, no information could arise; and other grand consequences of the victories of Alexander, first opened the wide regions of the east to the ardent curiosity, and recorded knowledge, of the Greeks. An antiquarian discussion of the progress of that knowledge would be foreign to the nature of this memoir, which, after having investigated the original authors of these discoveries, shall be chiefly restricted to their resumed progress in modern times; and this portion of the subject has been treated by so many able writers from the Greek and Roman authorities, that little information could be added. The late excellent historian Dr. Robertson has discussed this interesting subject

subject with his usual precision and ability; and if the reader likewise peruse the work of the learned Huet on the Commerce and Navigation of the Ancients, which Robertson seems never to have seen, he will find, though sometimes stained with minute and pedantic excentricities, such an additional treasure of information that little is left to any future inquirers. The commerce between Egypt, under the Ptolemies and Hindostan, contributed to disclose the coasts; while the inland trade opened sources of intelligence concerning the northern or rather central parts of Asia. Dr. Robertson has indicated the route of the Indian trade, which was at the same time partly maritime by the Caspian and Euxine Seas. Maracanda or Samarcand, situated on a river which falls into the Oxus, seems to have derived a part of its prosperity from the transit of this trade; and Seleucus Nicator is said to have entertained the magnificent project of opening a canal between the Euxine and the Caspian. An ancient historian has indicated a route to the country of the Seres by that of the Sacæ, in which perhaps he only copies Ptolemy.* By the route of Cabul commercial intercourse was opened between India, Bactria, and Parthia. † That with Persia was chiefly by the great route of Candahar; but there was a more easy passage by sea to the Persian Gulf, whence merchandize was conducted by caravans, on the camels emphatically called ships of the desert, to the Mediterranean, Palmyra serving as a great mart or trading station; whence alone could arise the surprising magnificence of a city, probably at first founded in an oasis, or verdant isle in the sandy expanse, but afterwards nearly covered with the increasing diffusion of sterility, and at all times receiving even the necessaries of life from the hand of commerce.

But to the work of Ptolemy, written at Alexandria in the second century, little knowledge seems to have been added by the ancients. Agathodæmon, who executed the maps for Ptolemy's geography, lived in the fifth century, and entertained a literary correspondence with Isidore of Pelusium ‡ Agathodæmon also resided at Alexandria, and was chiefly eminent in mechanics: but as maps had long before become extremely common, it is to be supposed that he not only consulted the text of Ptolemy, but also the best maps of that period, for the winding of the shores, and courses of the rivers and mountains, which no description could accurately convey. § The Peutingerian Table may also be consulted for the knowledge of the ancients in Asia, though its plan

Ancient
commerce.Ptolemy's
geography.Peutingerian
Table.

* Amm. Marcell. xxiii. 6.

† Huet, 402.

‡ Fabricii Bibl. Antiq. c. 5.

§ Sesostris king of Egypt, a great conqueror, is said to have invented maps; of which he gave the first example to the Scythians, as well as to the Egyptians. *Eustath. in pref. ad Dionys.* They were

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MEMOIR ON THE RISE AND PROGRESS

of a long roll disfigure all the positions and objects, and it is chiefly valuable for the itinerary distances. The last sheet of this Table, in the accurate edition of Scheyb,* presents India as far as the supposed mouth of the Ganges; but the objects are so much distorted as to be of little geographical value. This last sheet is divided by the chain of Imaus, passing from right to left, while on the top, right hand, and bottom, the ocean is delineated, with Taprobane or Ceylon in the latter. The Ganges joins the ocean on the right hand, which, from the position of Taprobane, should be the Eoan or oriental ocean of the ancients. On the southern ocean is the town of Muziris, with a temple of Augustus in the vicinity, which might shew frequent intercourse, and account for the number of Roman coins found in Hindostan. Palibothra is oddly placed between the mountain Paropamisus and the Ganges. On the N. of the mouth of the Ganges is the estuary of the river Calincius, with the town of Magaris. At the top of this sheet, on the north as it may be called of the mountain Imaus, are the town of Antiochia, and the river Araxes. In short such is the confusion of this itinerary table, that it may be only said to present some curious hints concerning ancient geography, especially the distances from one place to another; sometimes however so wide as 500, to 630, miles. The learned editor has, as not unusual with gentlemen of that profession, carefully avoided any discussion of the most important topic to be considered, namely, the precise age of the table itself, which he fondly affects to regard as an original, compiled and written in the time of Theodosius the Great, A. D. 393; never reflecting that, if drawn at that period, the characters would all have been Roman capitals, the only mode in solemn and public writing till the tenth century; when the form called small Roman, like modern printed books, began to be introduced, and continued for at least two centuries, the Doomsday Book of England being a noble specimen. It would be difficult to trace the appearance of what is called the Gothic letter till the thirteenth century; and the mingled writing of this celebrated monument, far from having the smallest odour of the age of Theodosius, may be assigned to the middle of the thirteenth or beginning of the fourteenth century. But an error of one thousand years is of no moment among antiquaries. The Peutingerian table is therefore only a modern, and probably very inaccurate transcript, from

were common from very early ages, even savages drawing rude maps; so that a grave German author is mistaken when he ascribes this invention to the devil, who could only thus, in his opinion, have shewn Jesus Christ *all* the kingdoms of this earth.

* Vindob. 1753, large folio.

some Roman itinerary of the lower ages of the empire; but at what Cosmas. period the original was executed cannot be ascertained.*

The fantastic labours of Cosmas, an Egyptian merchant in the reign of Justinian, in which he attempted to shew that the earth was not spherical, but an oblong plane, added nothing to the knowledge of geography, except a hint concerning Male on the modern coast of Malabar, while the Malanga of Ptolemy is on the opposite coast of Coromandel; and some intelligence concerning the commerce of the Persians with Hindostan. From other authorities we learn that this commerce was not only conducted by the Persian Gulf, but also by means of a celebrated mart in Carmania, the modern Kerman, called the city of Girofta; perhaps the modern Siraf, the province of Laristan being a recent division, and it is well known that Siraf was celebrated in Persian commerce before the mart was transferred to an adjacent isle.†

In estimating the knowledge of Ptolemy, and other ancient geographers, an indispensable observation must be made; that, compiling intelligence from all the documents which they could procure, without enjoying the instruments or other means of modern precision, they would repeatedly insert the same identical object under various appellations; naturally supposing that the different names, received or imposed by different travellers and navigators, belonged to different objects. Even with the modern lights of geographical science it is sometimes difficult to avoid this confusion; and among the ancients, who had no means of computing longitudes, except by itinerary measures and the yet more uncertain courses of ships, these errors may be conceived to be extremely numerous. The errors in the early maps of modern times may often serve to explain those of the ancient. As a different name conferred by Spanish, Portuguese, French, or English, mariners, was no unfrequent source of error; so among the ancients the Phenician, Grecian, Roman, and native appellations. But not to pursue this topic it will be sufficient to observe that the knowledge of the ancients cannot be said to have exceeded that of Ptolemy, whose work continued

General
observation.

Extent of an-
cient know-
ledge.

* This learned editor, who appears to be a complete stranger, not only to MSS. and diplomas, but also to sound ratiocination, gravely argues, p. 64, that all monuments that do not correspond with this Table are false, and must of necessity be more modern! In the Cottonian library there was or is a MS. of Dicuil, called *Meisura Terræ*, written about A. D. 800, perhaps the prototype; but more probably it belongs to the anonymous author of the Annals of Calmar, (Urtiffi Hist. Germ. i. 2.) who says *Anno MCCLXV, mapam mundi descripsi in pelles duodecim pergameni*: there being now precisely eleven skins, while the rill, containing the greater part of Britain, Thule and Scandinavia, is lost. This coincidence is such as would have opened the eyes of the blindest editor; and it only remains to compare the original MS. of the Annals of Calmar with the Peutingerian table.

† Huet, 50. 56. But see La Rochette's map of the Marches of Alexander.

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to be a standard, not only among the Arabs, to whom the torch of science had been handed by the Greeks of the lower empire, but even in Europe till the discovery of America, and the great Colon was investigated, by the erroneous extent of Ptolemy's longitudes, to expect to find India where he found America. Nay till the middle of the sixteenth century the work of Ptolemy, with a few modern additions, was considered as the sole standard of geography; while in Asia the utmost extent of his knowledge was the country of Serica now called Little Bucharìa; and the Sinæ, or the people towards Tanaferim, on the south.*

Arabian discoveries.

To Europeans no further part of Asia was disclosed till the travels of Marco Polo in the thirteenth century. The general idea was that beyond Little Bucharìa, and an oblique line drawn from thence to the south of Tanaferim, there was a wide ocean; and thus not above one third of Asia was known to Europeans.† But in the east the discoveries began to be pursued at an early period; for the diffusion of the Mahometan religion having lent a new impulse to human action, we find that two Arabian travellers in the ninth century visited China, and the intermediate countries. The Arabian geographers also display a far more extensive acquaintance with Asia and Africa, than could be obtained by Ptolemy; but in the ignorance of the middle ages only the works on medicine had been translated, and some popular tales imitated during the crusades; while the Arabian works on geography were neglected, perhaps from being considered as in some degree connected with the rise, progress, and spirit of their religion. The history of the discoveries of the Mahometans would form a very interesting topic, as they have been traced much farther to the south in Africa, and much farther to the east in Asia, than there was reason to expect; their religion being more adapted than any other to the perpetual and invincible habits and prejudices of the orientals. Till such a work can be published, the Africa of Edrisi, with the supplemental extracts from other Arabian authors by Hartmann, might serve as a model for a similar publication concerning Asia, which would be infinitely more useful than the single work of Abulfeda, or any other Arabian geographer. Even the celebrated Arabian tales, which delight age and wisdom as well as youth and beauty, the learned as much as the illiterate, might afford some curious hints on this interesting subject, many of them having

* Dr. Robertson has justly observed from the *Aveen Akbery*, vol. ii. p. 7, that Cheen was an ancient name of the kingdom of P-gu, whence the name of Sinæ, conferred on the people of that and the adjacent countries on the S. E.

† See the map of the world as known to the ancients, in the *Recherches sur les Scythes*, Paris 1804, 8vo.

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been composed prior to the crusades, as appears from European imitations. The crusades, and the foundation of the kingdom of Jerusalem, must not at the same time be forgotten, among the causes of modern intercourse and acquaintance with Asia. But though the kingdom of Jerusalem began in the year 1099, and may be said to have lasted till 1291, when Acca, or corruptedly Acre, was taken by the sultan Kalil, yet the princes appear to have been too much occupied in the defence of their own territories, to pay any attention to foreign discovery. But before proceeding to the celebrated epoch of the travels of Marco Polo, which first disclosed true ideas concerning the vast extent of this continent, it will be proper to commemorate a few facts and incidents anterior to that period.

The great Alfred, who ascended the throne of England in the year 871, and died in the year 900, not only contributed to extend the knowledge of the north of Europe, by preserving the voyage of Ohter, * but sent Suithelm, bishop of Shireburn, with a present to the shrine of St. Thomas in India, near Madras on the coast of Coromandel; and the ambassador returned in safety with some specimens of the productions of the country.† As that monarch, perhaps the wisest and most truly great who ever adorned any country, seldom acted without scientific or beneficial views, it may be surmised, with probability, that his extensive mind had formed some prospect of commercial intercourse, or at least of scientific discovery. As Ceylon appears at that time to have been the great mart of Indian traffic, in which it was afterwards supplanted by Malacca, the cause being, as Cosmas informs us, that Ceylon was nearly at an equal distance from Persia on the west, and Siam or country of the Sinæ on the east; Suithelm, in passing to the furthest coast of Coromandel, on pretext of a mere religious embassy, may have been instructed to examine that grand staple, and report the state of commerce, and the modes of navigation. The grandeur of this idea may be thought to surpass the knowledge of the age; but certainly does not exceed the sublime mind of the monarch to whom it is ascribed, alike estranged from idle or superstitious motives, and expansive beyond the utmost extent of his period.

It would be idle to detain the reader with the travels of Rabbi Benjamin, a Jew of Tudela in Navarre, about the year 1170. Some have supposed that these travels are a mere compilation from the reports of

* See King Alfred's Translation of Orosius, London 1773, 870. from which however it would appear that the king could add nothing to the account of Asia, given in the original.

† Saxon Chron. &c. It is not improbable that the voyage of Suithelm may lurk in some Saxon MS.

Crusades.

King dom of
Jerusalem.Alfred king
of England.Rabbi Ben-
jamin.

several Jewish merchants, who had travelled in pursuit of their trade. The work is full of fables concerning the number and power of the Jews: and his imaginary island of Nicrokis, towards the mouth of the Euphrates, six days journey in length, the grand seat of commerce between Persia and Hindostan, shews that no credit can be given to his descriptions; there being no vestige of such a name, or isle, in any relation or treatise of geography: and the production of Benjamin only gives an additional proof of the singular and innate propensity of the Jews to falsehood, fiction, and credulity.

Origin of
modern discovery.

But at length the discovery of Asia begins to dawn; faint streaks of light begin to glimmer in the east, and will speedily be followed by the radiance of the rising sun. The crusades, and the yet existent kingdom of Jerusalem, continued to turn the attention of Christendom towards that quarter, when the conquests of Zingis emperor of the Mongols, A. D. 1176—1227, either threatened destruction to that kingdom, or promised a powerful assistance against the enmity of the Turks and Arabs. This link in the chain has been forgotten by former writers, who seem surprised that the pope should have sent messengers to the successors of Zingis; and even ridicule the idea of converting the Mongols to the christian faith!* In a convocation held at Lyons by pope Innocent IV. A. D. 1245, it was determined to send messengers to the new dynasty of victors; and they were chosen from the severe and new institutions of the orders of Francis and Dominic, not averse to martyrdom in the first fervour of their zeal; and whose religious habits and austerity of manners might, it was presumed, not only enable them to encounter the fatigues of so long a journey, but might save them from personal outrage, at a court whose manners were little suspected

* An extract from Dr. Robertson may amuse the reader, nor is it destitute of instruction, as it shews how history is written by the greatest masters.

“All Christendom having been alarmed with accounts of the rapid progress of the Tartar arms under Zengis Khan, Innocent IV. who entertained most exalted ideas concerning the plenitude of his own power, and the submission due to his injunctions, sent father John de Plano Carpini, at the head of a mission of Franciscan monks, and father Ascolino, at the head of another of Dominicans, to enjoin Kayuk Khan, the grandson of Zengis, who was then at the head of the Tartar empire, to embrace the Christian faith, and to desist from desolating the earth by his arms.” Hist. of America, i. 45, ed. 1803. He then mentions the astonishment of the Asiatic conquerors at this mandate of a priest! 1. Zengis Khan was not sovereign of the Tatars, but of the Mongols who had conquered the Tatars. 2. The two monks mentioned were not at the head of missions, but all travelled as equals and brothers. 3. The popes had more knowledge and policy than to send such idle messages, the object was the defence or restoration of the kingdom of Jerusalem. 4. The Tartar empire is the Mongol empire. 5. Kayuk, or rather Gayuk, could not be known to the pontif, as he was not crowned till after the arrival of the messengers. Here are five historical errors in one sentence; and in the account of South America the reader will find three, of the greatest geographical import, in three successive sentences.

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to be then nearly as civilized as any in Europe. Among the friars chosen on this important occasion, Giovanni de Plano Carpini and Ascelin reported their relations on their return; and they have been preserved by the writers of that period. The former travelled by the north of the Caspian, and reached the court of the emperor of the Mongols, in the country to the north of Cathay or China. Karakum, the early seat of the Mongol emperors, whose power was far more extensive than that of the Romans, was situated on the river Ouguin, or more probably on the river Orchon, which flows into the Selinga. When the magnitude of the empire of Cathay or China, containing more than one third part of the human race, began to be disclosed to astonished Europe, it is no wonder that its celebrity, though still wrapt in a veil of obscurity, began to attract the attention of poets and writers of romance. The existence of the grand nation of the Manshurs beyond the Mongols, who had themselves been lost in the more western name of Tatars,* was now discovered; and even the Samoieds, the farthest tribe in the north of Asia, had become known to the Mongols from their settlement at Tobolsk in 1252. The fabulous Eoan ocean of the ancients began to disappear; while rude tribes, warlike nations, and vast civilized empires, emerged from the imaginary waves.

Plano Car-
pini, 1246.

The ignorance even of the Byzantine historians concerning the oriental countries is surprising; and the settlements of the Genoese in the suburb of Pera, and on the Black Sea, had contributed little or nothing to increase the fund of European knowledge. The later Greek historians generally bestow the indiscriminate name of Indians upon all the southern nations of Asia; while the classical terms of Scythians and Huns were equally misapplied. But the commerce of the Venetians with Alexandria and the east led to an enterprise of more importance, undertaken by a native of Venice, which shall presently be detailed with the minuteness due to its consequence.

Previous
ignorance.

Meanwhile, St. Louis of France, the ninth king of that name, having returned from an unsuccessful crusade in 1254, or, probably, during his absence on that crusade, which began in 1249, his captivity having commenced in 1250, sent a chosen messenger to Mangu, emperor of the Mongols. As, by the best records, this embassy happened in the year 1253, while the king was still a captive, its motives, which have been

Ruybroeck,
1253.

* This orthography is now universally adopted among the learned, as being the real indigenous and oriental appellation; while *Tartar* proceeds from a quaint application of the Latin *Tartarus*.*

wifely

wisely imputed by the gravest historians to a wish for the propagation of the Christian faith, and even the conversion of the emperor, arose from a very different object. That wise monarch knew that, if the victorious arms of the Mongols could be directed against the Saracens, his deliverance without ransom might speedily have followed. With this view, William of Ruysbroek, so called from a village near Brussels, but whose name has been corrupted by French and Italian writers to Rubruquis, proceeded by Constantinople to the Crimea, where he found a remnant of the ancient Goths speaking the Gothic tongue; and thence by land towards the great river Etilia, being the Volga, so called by the Tatars, which he describes as the largest river he had ever seen, and as emptying itself into a large lake or sea, which, to encompass, would require a journey of four months.* He afterwards passed the Yaik, and travelled by the north of Turkestan, and the lake of Balkash. The original country of Prester-John seems to have been that of a northern lama, the worship of that creed somewhat resembling the Christian. Tangut and Tibet are also objects of Ruysbroek's inquiry; nor does he neglect the grand empire of Cathay. But his own route lay far to the north, as he pursued the strait course to the court of the Mongol emperor at Karacum. But our attention must now be directed towards the chief author of the discovery of Asia.

Marco Polo.
1271—1297.

The maritime preponderance, wealth, and enterprize of the Venetians had now extended their commerce in all directions. The powerful Hanseatic league, formed in 1255, a singular maritime republic which overawed the sovereigns of the north, at the same time that it spread commerce and civilization through their dominions, but whose influence has not been duly estimated by modern historians, had greatly contributed to the consumption of oriental articles in Scandinavia, and the other wide regions on the Baltic. These precious products were generally conveyed by land, through Tyrol and Suabia, to the Rhine, the central river of the Hanseatic States. By the increase of commerce the spirit of enterprize was naturally enlarged, and the preponderance of Venice was felt and celebrated through all the commercial world, when Marco Polo, a noble Venetian, commenced his celebrated journey, which is not only of the greatest importance in itself, but which, from the ideas suggested to Colon by the perusal, as we learn from his life written by his son, contributed in no small degree to the most celebrated of all modern discoveries, that of the vast continent of America.

* Forster's History of Discoveries in the North; London, 1786, 4to. p. 98.

The father and brother of Marco had returned from the east in 1269 after an absence of many years.* They appear to have been jewellers, like honest Tavernier; and after a short residence at Venice, the father determined to return to the east, and to take his son, then nineteen years of age, as his companion on this memorable journey, begun in 1271 or 1272. The emperor Kublai, successor of Mangu, but who had resigned the western parts of the empire to Hulagu, assumed an interest in the fortunes of our young traveller; and observing his intelligence and fidelity, afterwards employed him, as a foreigner wholly dependent on his favour, in weighty embassies and solemn affairs. He had learnt to speak and write four languages, generally used among the Mongols and their neighbours; and returned to Venice with his father and uncle in 1297, after an absence of twenty-six years;† during seventeen of which, Marco had been in the service of the Mongol emperor. He was now forty-six years of age, and probably had so far forgotten his native language, that he required some assistance in the composition of his work, the fidelity of which was, however, always attested by the father and uncle, and has been amply confirmed by the light of recent knowledge.

But before proceeding to give a brief view of his chief discoveries, it may be necessary to consider the original narrative itself; and it is to be regretted that a new and authentic edition is not published of a work so important to the progress of geography.

His narrative.

It seems little probable that Marco, who had passed his life in the east, and been accustomed only to write and speak the oriental tongues, should have dictated this work in Latin, a language foreign to his original habits and pursuits; while most probably, soon after his return, he resumed the language of his country; and the record to be wished would be in the Venetian dialect. Muller, a German, who has published a pedantic, but useful edition of these valuable travels,‡ has rightly rejected the idea of Ramusio, and shews that the Latin translation is, by Pipino (Pepuri), a contemporary Dominican monk. Yet, it is generally known, that the edition given in the celebrated collection of voyages, published in Italian by Ramusio, is not the original, but a

* They set out 1250. Orig. MS. Of course, as Nicolo had not seen his son, Marco must have been born in 1251, and in 1269 was in his nineteenth year.

† The original MS. is followed as extracted by Zeno, in his valuable notes on the *Eloquenza Italiana* of Fontanini, Ven. 1753, 2 vols. 4to.

‡ Col. Brand. 1671, 4to. This book *De Catbaia*, in the same volume, is dedicated to Cassel, the celebrated publisher of the Polyglot; and he mentions a Mr. Murray as his own countryman. Perhaps they were both of Scottish families established in Pomerania.

version from the Latin translation. This is not a pedantic question, as there are many variations, not only in the names, but in important passages. A very curious and rare Italian edition is now before me, printed at Trevisi in 1590, and which professes in the title to be a wholly new edition, restored to the genuine order of the narrative. Though Ramusio published his work at Venice, yet he adopted the elegant and general style of the Italian language; while, as Trevisi is in the territory and immediate vicinity of Venice, it will not be unreasonable to expect that this edition is the most authentic, especially after the following short advertisement of the publisher: "I did not wish, discreet reader, to present this book in a more polished or concise style than that in which it was written by the author, as well that you might hear his own words, in his own native dialect, as from my aversion to diminish the authority of Marco Polo by my phrases, which would, perhaps, appear less clear than his own; for in describing the countries which he had seen, and in the sincerity and truth of his narrative, he had no equal in his time."*

This edition of Trevisi, 1590, was published after Ramusio had completed his collection; and the advertisement must allude to his having sacrificed the truth and simplicity of the narrative to an elegant translation from the Latin. After some examination, it appears to me that this is the original work of Marco Polo, the loss of which has been regretted from the time of Purchas to the present hour; for that venerable editor has expressed his pain in translating from the Latin, which he found extremely corrupt, both in the names and in the sense. By comparing a good manuscript of the Latin translation in the library of the electors of Brandenburg, now kings of Prussia, Muller has explained some passages, but had not seen this original edition; which, being no

* It is no wonder that this curious edition has escaped all the editors and commentators, being so closely printed as only to fill fifty-seven leaves; whence, like a pamphlet, it was very subject to be lost; while, being intended for common readers, the copies were of course destroyed by frequent use. It is not divided into books, but into one hundred and forty-six chapters; and instead of the usual introduction, begins with a description of Trebezond, a chapter out of its place, as the regular narrative begins with the second chapter, which is however, wholly different from the edition of Ramusio; beginning thus, "*Quando il grande Khan Signor de tutti li tartari, e de tutte sue provincie, e regione, e regni, cioe de una gran parte del mondo, ebbe intejo le conditione de li Chrystiani, mostrò in lo viso che molto li piacejti*:" while Ramusio, as well as the Latin translations, begin in the following manner: "*Dovete dunque sapere che nel tempo di Balduino Imperatore di Constantinopoli, doue allora soleua stare un Podesta ai Venetia, per nome di Messer lo Doze, correndo gli anni del N. S. MCCL. Messer Nicolo Padre ai Marco, e Messer Maffio Polo fratello di detto Messer Nicolo, nobili honorati chryvi di Venetia, travandosi in Constantinopoli con molte loro granati mercantie, &c.*"

The very transposition of the chapter on Trebezond, which had probably been omitted and copied on a loose leaf, seems to evince that the editor had blindly followed the MS. without any alteration. This chapter should follow chap. ix. on Little Armenia.

stranger to the original historians of Venice, I may safely pronounce to be in the Venetian dialect, as was to have been expected. There are besides many intrinsic marks that this is the original narrative. It is often written in the name of the three travellers, the father, son, and uncle; as ch. viii. "we have written this history, that all may be certain that Nicolo, Masio, and Marco, could hear, see, and know the things which are written in this book, compiled by them:" and when the travels of Marco, which were the most extensive, are indicated, "*Io Marco*" is put, "I, Marcus, was in that place, or saw such an object." The names of places and persons, which are often widely different from those in the other editions, seem at the same time more genuine; and the collation of a remarkable passage in the text, as it stands in this edition and in that of Ramusio, will sufficiently convince the reader of their total discordance.*

These travels having been justly regarded as the chief source of the grand modern discoveries in Asia, and even of these in America, it will be proper to lay an abstract of them before the reader; and the further to gratify his curiosity, this abstract shall be taken from the genuine edition of Trevigi, which will partly enable him to estimate the variations and corruptions in the other editions.

In the first chapter on Trebezond, which, as already mentioned, should follow the ninth, the author mentions that he saw a large flock of tame partridges conducted from Ganeza, at the distance of three days journey. The work properly begins with the second chapter, which is the third in the common editions; but the Venetian is rather abrupt, and perhaps the first leaf was wanting in the manuscript, and mistakenly supplied with the account of Trebezond. The Chan of the Mongols desires the brothers, Nicholas and Matthew, with Cogobal, one of his barons, to proceed as his ambassadors to the pontif of the Christians.

Abstract of
Polo's tra-
vels.

* *Edition of Trevigi.*

In questa isola son idoli che hanno el capo de louo alcuni l'ha de porco, alcuni de molton, alcuni de chan, alcuni hanno uno capo e quattro fazze, alcuni ha tre capi l'uno sotto collo, l'altro sotto la spalla, e laltro sotto l'altra, e alcuni ha quattro mane, e alcuni x. Quello idolo che, tenuto lo piu bello, si e quello che ha spiu mane, e chi li domanda, perche fanno tanti idoli, e si perversi e diversi. Elli risponde che cosi fece li suoi predecessori.

Ramusio.

In questa Isola di Zipangu, e in altre vicine, tutti i loro idoli, sono fatti diversamente perche alcuni hanno teste di Bovi, altri di Porci, altri de Cani e di Becchi e d'iverse altre maniere e vene sono alcuni, ch'hanno un capo e duo i volti, altri tre capi, Cioè uno nel luogo debito, gl'altri due sopra cada una delle spalle altri c'hanno quattro mani, alcuni dieci, e altri cento; quelli che ne hanno più, si tiene che habbiano più virtù e à quelli fanno maggior riverentia, e quando i Christiani gli dimandano, perche fanno gli suoi idoli così diversi, rispondono, Così nostri padri e predecessori gl'hanno lasciati.

Cogobal dies on the route; but the brothers arrive at Giaza in April 1269, having met with so many impediments that they were three years on the journey. They find the pope dead (Clement IV. died 1268, and Gregory X. was elected 1st September 1271, but he did not arrive in Italy till 1272;) and proceeding to Venice, found Marco the son of Nicolo, aged *fifteen* (nineteen) years. "This Marco is he who wrote this book." As they waited two years for the election of the pope, the real date of their arrival must be 1269. The three travellers proceed to Giaza and to Clemenif, in the dominions of the Chan, a journey of three years and a half, on account of the wide rivers, the rain, and cold. Marco studies the four languages there spoken, and is greatly favoured by the Chan; who, upon one occasion, sent him upon an embassy which lasted fourteen months. To please this prince, who was inquisitive concerning foreign countries, Marco took notes of all that he saw, and received additional marks of favour, during seventeen years that he remained in the court of the Mongols; his repeated embassies having enabled him to compile this account of the oriental countries.

Yet the two brothers and the son wished to return to Venice, but could not obtain permission. At length Belgoma, the queen of an Indian monarch, called Argon, having died, he requested a wife from the Chan, who selected a lady of seventeen, called Cazatin, and permitted the Polos to accompany her and the Indian ambassadors. Fourteen vessels were equipped; and after a navigation of three months, they arrived at an isle called Lava, afterwards to be described. Another voyage of eight months conducted them to the court of Argon, who was dead, so that the lady passed to his son. Acatu, regent, during his minority, granted an escort to the Venetians, who arrived at Trebezond, whence they passed to Constantinople, Negroponte, and Venice in 1297. Then follows the passage already quoted, that these facts are premised to convince the reader of the authenticity of these travels. Such are the first eight chapters of this edition, corresponding with the first ten of the others.

The ninth chapter treats of Little Armenia, in which lies the city of Giaza, a grand maritime mart where Polo landed. The chapter on Trebezond ought to follow. He then proceeds to Turcomania, of which the chief towns are Chirino, Cyferie, Senasto, and the place where St. Blase was martyred. Greater Armenia follows, having the province of Mozul on the east, where there are many jacobine and Nestorian Christians. On the north, Armenia borders on Georgia, which is described. In the fourteenth chapter, Polo delineates Mozul at more length

length than in the Latin, and particularly mentions *Musfolini*, or muslins, and spices which arrive in this province from India. Proceeding still, as he has already explained, towards the south, he describes Baldach or Bagdad as the seat of the caliphs, which carried on great trade with India, the intermediate marts being Leiffi, and Baschra or Bassora. The curious details on the manufactures are totally omitted by the ignorant monk who made the Latin translation. Cubli, the great Chan of the Mongols is here mentioned for the first time; and the narrative is connected and complete, while in the Latin it is broken and corrupted. Next appears the city of Totis, which should be Toris or Tauris, as in the Latin. The miracle, chap. 17, corresponding with 18 in the Latin, occupies three pages; while in the Latin it only fills half a page.

Persia follows, and here no less than two chapters are omitted in the Latin, though they depend on Marco's personal testimony; chap. 20 which now corresponds with chap. 19 of the Latin, describes the provinces of Persia; the seventh is Corcata, the eighth Trichay or Trinkay; for Curmosa in the Latin read Arcomes. The account of Jafdi or Jafoi is not divided from the rest, nor is that of Crerina which produces turquoises and other precious stones; the names of which not being understood by the Latin translator, are totally omitted. Chap. 21 corresponding with 22 Latin, is far more ample, and shall be literally translated as one specimen, after premising that Crerina is probably Kerman, and its capital Kermashir, whence there are eight days journey, according to our author, from Jafdi or Yefd.*

"When a man leaves Crerina, he travels for eight days, always finding cities and castles, and many habitations, and no small pleasure in travelling through such pleasant countries, where he may find an infinite quantity of game. When you have ridden for seven days you find a considerable descent, but abundance of fruits; for in the ancient times there were many habitations in those parts, while, at present, only herds are found conducting their cattle and sheep to pasture. From the city of Crerina to this descent, there is so intense a cold in the winter, that men cannot support it although they be well clothed. When you have descended for two days you find a wide plain, at the beginning of which is a city called Adgamad, which, in the ancient times, was noble and great, but it has been destroyed by the Tatars. This plain is very warm, and the province is called Reobarle; its fruits being dates, apples of paradise, pistachios, and others. The oxen are large, with

* The Latin puts seven.

short and thick hair, the horns short, thick, and sharp, and a hunch between the shoulders about two spans round. When they are to be loaded, these animals kneel like camels, rising afterwards, and bearing a great weight. There are here some sheep as large as asses, the tail being so broad and thick as to weigh thirty-two pounds, and is excellent food. In this plain are cities and castles, having high and thick walls of earth to defend them from their enemies. These enemies are called Carani, their mothers being Indians, while the fathers were Tatars. And when this people wish to rob, they, by incantations of demons, can obscure the air, as if it were midnight, that they may not be seen at a distance.* This obscurity lasts for seven days; and they know well the passes, marching the one after the other to the number of perhaps ten thousand, so that none can pass without encountering death or captivity, killing the old men and selling the young as slaves. Their king is styled Negodar: and I must tell you that I, Marco, was almost in their hands, in danger of being taken and killed in this darkness, if I had not fled to a castle called Ganofalmi. And many of my companions were taken and killed. This plain which I have mentioned continues for five days journey towards the south. At the end of the fifth journey is found Decufclivo,† and it continues for twenty miles, and is a bad and dangerous road on account of the robbers who despoil travellers. At the end of the twenty miles there is another plain of great beauty, which continues for two days journey, and is called the plain of Formosa. Here are many streams and plantations of dates.”

Cormos.

He then proceeds to state that the traveller now reaches the ocean, and finds a city called Cormos, with an excellent port, rich in Indian traffic; being also the capital of a kingdom of which the sovereign was called Remneda Nocomoit.

It is not the intention of the present inquiry to illustrate the various names and positions of Marco Polo, which would itself require a large and elaborate dissertation, but merely to indicate the leading features of his journey. Having mentioned that the people of Cormos are Mahometan negroes, he adds, that he shall not at present enter India, but return to the north. He informs us, that the old man of the mountain, or chief of the assassins, was taken and beheaded in 1262 by Alau, Chan of the Tatars. Thence he passes to the city Sopurgaim, and that of Balach, in which he says, that Alexander wedded the daughter of Darius: thence travelling N. E. he finds a castle called Titham, and the city Echalen, seated in a plain. Leaving this country, there is

* Foggs probably from the salt lakes.

† Perhaps an error for declivo, a declivity.

a desert of three days, after which you arrive in that of Balassia. The order is here totally different from the Latin. Ch. 24 of the original, corresponds with ch. 29 of the Latin, but with many important variations. Balassia is well known to be Badakthan, where are found the Balay rubies. Bassia is ten days journey to the S. of Balassia, while in the Latin the direction is not specified; nor is it in that of Caassimur, which lies to the S. E. of Bassia, being Cashmere, whence Polo again returns from India, leaving that country for a separate description. A controverted passage may afford another specimen.

Cashmere.

“When a man leaves Balassia he travels for three days between the N. E. and the E. along a river which terminates Balassia. Here are many castles and habitations. The men are valiant, adore Mahomet, and have a distinct language. At the end of these three days there is found a province, three days journey in length and breadth, which is called Vocan. The people have also a distinct language, are Mahometans, and subject to the king of Balassia. Leaving this country he will proceed for three days among mountains, always ascending, till he find a large mountain with a most beautiful river, and the best pastures in the world. Here the leanest beast would become extremely fat in ten days. There is abundance of wild beasts, and of wild sheep, whose horns are sometimes ten spans in length, sometimes six, sometimes four; and of these horns the shepherds make various utensils. He will then travel on the upland plain, for twelve days, without finding any habitation or grass, so that the travellers must bring provisions. And it is said that in the great cold here found the fire is not so clear, nor of such heat as elsewhere, so that cookery is slow. Let us leave this, and relate what objects occur between the N. E. and the E. Travelling for forty days among mountains, vallies, and hills, between the N. E. and the E. you must pass many rivers and deserts. During these forty days there is neither habitation, nor food; and travellers must bring all with them. This country is called Bessor (read Bellor;) the people living on high mountains, adoring idols, and being very savage. They live by hunting, are clothed in skins, being of very wicked and cruel dispositions. Let us leave this province and proceed to Chascar,” &c. In this passage there are also remarkable variations; and the plain of Pamer, mentioned in the Latin, is omitted, perhaps by the neglect of the transcriber: so uncertain are the materials upon which, in our total ignorance of Bucharia, geographers are obliged to build at the present day.

Mountains of Belur.

The description of Cashgar is more ample than in the Latin; and the same chapter includes the city of Saurmaratam in the Latin Samar-

Cashgar.

cham,

cham, but probably not Samarcand. Thence he proceeds to Barcan, in the Latin Carcan; thence to Cota or Koten, specially mentioning that it abounds in cotton, the name being probably derived from that of the province. Poim produces precious stones. Ciarchian is mostly a sandy defart. On leaving this province you pass a sandy defart of five days, after which there is another prodigious defart; and at the entrance a large city called Job (Lob) where provisions must be taken for a month; but the entire defart is so vast that it would require a year to pass. For twenty days good water is found; and, at the end of the thirty, you discover a city called Sancechian, which belongs to the great Chan, being in the province of Tangut. Such are the first ideas of the great defart of Cobi, which was totally unknown to the ancients. After a description of the manners of Tangut, he surveys Camul or Chamil, which is followed by Ringuitalas while the Latin has Chinchinthalas, and Sucur; these three provinces as he mentions being included in Tangut, and their mountains produce rhubarb in great quantity. The chief city of Tangut is Campion, where the three Polos remained seven years occupied in trade. Twelve days after leaving Campion appears the city of Ecina or Etzina, at the beginning of a sandy defart, which spreads towards the north, and requires provision for forty days. Being passed you arrive at Catacora rather Caracoram or Karacum, where Polo informs us that the first emperor of the Mongols, whom he always calls Tatars, was proclaimed. He adds an account of Zingis Chan, and of Cublai the then emperor, and of the tombs of the monarchs in the mountain of Althai. The description of the manners of the Mongols is not a little interesting. On leaving Karacum, towards the north is found the plain of Barga, forty days journey in extent; the people, called Nechrutt, living by the chase. After these forty days you reach the ocean: but this must be a mistaken report.

Defart of
Cobi.

Karacum.

Tangut.

Polo now returns from the north, and says that five days journey to the east of Campion is found Ergivul, which also belongs to Tangut. He seems greatly struck with the number of Nestorian christians in Tangut. From the city of Ergivul travelling to the S. E. you may proceed to Cathay, where the first city is Sirigai. Here are cattle of enormous size, with hair three spans in length, who labour the ground with great force and expedition. The musk animal also appears, and is tolerably described, particularly the tusks. Here are also large pheasants, whose tails are from seven to ten spans in length. At the distance of eight days journey to the E. of Ergivul is another province of Tangut called Egregia, the chief town being Calatia. The territory of Prefter John also adjoins to Ergivul, his name at the time being Zorzi

or George, who maintained a connection with the great Chan: this country produces lapis lazuli. There are here several variations in the Latin. Ch. 60 of the original corresponds with 65 of the Latin. At Ciandul is a large palace of marble and free-stone, belonging to the great Chan, with a walled forest of fifteen miles in circuit. Book 11 of the Latin begins at ch. 62 of the original. The account of the court and magnificence of Cublai Chan is minute and interesting. He passed three months of the year in the city of Pekin, called by the Mongols Cambalu, or the city of the Chan. The palace is described, but there is no hint of the great wall of China. In ch. 69 he mentions that Cambalu is at the distance of two days from the ocean, a circumstance omitted in the Latin; and the detail concerning the officers of the court is more ample. The account of coal found in the northern provinces of China is very just and striking. The second book dedicated to the Mongol court should here terminate. Ch. 27 begins towards the end of ch. 73 in the original. "The great Chan desired that I Marco should proceed on an embassy towards the west, so I departed from Cambalu, travelling towards the west for fourteen months; and I shall now relate what I found and saw with my own eyes, on my progress and my return." The narrative of the travels is now resumed; but what regards China may be omitted. In ch. 57 he distinguishes the great region of Mangi, or the southern half of China, from Cathay or the northern. In ch. 78 the king Dor is foolishly translated Darius by the monk. The city Cianfu of the Latin is here Cancianfu. After Sindinfu, or Sindirifu as in the Venetian, there is an account of the province of Chelet, which in the Latin is called Thebet, which immediately follows. Caidu is on the west, an extensive country belonging to the great Chan, which produces turquoises and pearls, with abundance of fish from a lake. Caidu is bounded by the river Brius; beyond is Earata, a large country governed by a son of the Chan. The city of Lazi is afterwards described, the money being white shells found in the sea. The province of Carian follows, so called from the capital, the king called Cocagio being also a son of the great Chan; this province abounds in gold and silver. Subject to the great Chan are also Cariti and its chief city Nocian.* That of Michai borders on India. Mien is likewise subject to the great Chan; whose order of march is afterwards described.

The dryness of this discussion must be excused from the curiosity and importance of the subject. In ch. 94, which corresponds with book ii.

Embassy of
fourteen
months.

Cathay and
Mangi.

* In the Latin Arcladam, and the city Unchian.

Bengal. ch. 45, of the Latin, our author proceeds to Bengal in India which had not been subjected to the Chan when Marco was at his court. Next is the province of Aniu subject to the Chan; whence a journey of eight days leads to that of Toloman. By the city of Similgu you pass the province of Cuigui; whence at the distance of four days is the city of Cancafu in Cathay. Seventeen days beyond the large city of Singuimatu is a large river, which comes from the land of Prester John, which is called Caramoran, being a mile in breadth, and so deep as to be navigable by large ships laden with merchandise. On this river the great Chan had fifteen vessels to conduct his people to the islands in the ocean, at the distance of a day's journey from which are two cities on the river, Coigangu and Caicui. On passing this river you enter the region of Mangi. It would be unnecessary to follow the steps of our traveller in this direction. Suffice it to observe from ch. 104. (lat. ii. 57.)

Hoang Ho. that Marco Polo ruled the city of Nangui three years, by command of the great Chan, it having been taken by the industry of the three Venetian travellers, who constructed three manganel, or machines for throwing large stones, to the great terror of the inhabitants. At Singui Marco saw five thousand vessels, the river being a thoroughfare for sixteen provinces, and presenting on its banks two hundred cities. As the wonderful population of China could not be conceived in Europe, at the time of Marco Polo, it is no wonder that the usual malignity of ignorance called him Marco Million, or Marco of the Millions, his numbers appearing to be so much exaggerated; but the vague translation of the foolish monk also contributed, for in this very passage he says that each of the sixteen provinces had five thousand ships, which is wholly foreign to the sense of the original. It is needless to observe his endless perversion of the names, which renders it impossible to give any general interpretation of this celebrated journey, except from the Venetian original. Another noted passage shall now be selected from ch. 109, 110; in Latin lib. ii. cap. 64.

Pologovernor of Nangui.

“When you leave Singui you proceed for five days journey, always finding many cities and castles; and then appears the noble city of Guintai, the largest and grandest in the world. I Marco was in this city; and if you inquire concerning it, the circumference is one hundred measured miles; the bridges of stone being twelve thousand, so high that a large ship might pass underneath (Marco Million!) These bridges are so numerous because the city stands wholly in the water, like Venice. In this city, by an useful ordinance, every one must follow the trade of his father and ancestors. In this city is a lake about thirty

miles in circuit;* and around this lake are the most beautiful palaces in the world. In the midst are also two handsome palaces; and all those who make weddings go to these palaces, where they find all things necessary for the festival. There are also several little isles in different parts of this city. Throughout this country the Tatar money *de morari* is used.† The people adore idols; and have a peculiar speech. At each of the twelve thousand bridges are ten guards, to prevent injury to individuals, or any insurrection. In the city there is a large hill, on which is a high tower, and on the tower a large table, which is struck by way of alarm in cases of fire or other causes. All the streets are paved; and the great Chan pays particular attention to its police. There are in this city fourteen thousand baths; and the men and women are extremely amorous. At the distance of fifteen miles from Guinfai, towards the ocean, between the N.E. and E. is a city called Ganfu, where there is a good haven and many ships arrive from India, there being a considerable river which passes through many countries. The province of Mangi is divided by the great Chan into eight kingdoms or governments. In this city (Guinfai) there is always a king, who rules a hundred and forty cities. It is affirmed for a certainty that in the region of Mangi there are twelve hundred districts, all garrisoned by the great Chan; and still in order that there may be no rebellion, when a child is born in the region of Mangi, the day and hour are written, to know the planet; and on a journey advice is asked of the astrologers, whose counsel is followed. When any one dies in this country the relations clothe themselves in canvass or coarse linen; and burn the bodies with horses and money as was described before. In this city is the palace of Scrifogi, who was sovereign of all the region of Mangi, and which is thus constructed. The first wall is about ten miles in circuit, very high and strong, there being within handsome gardens, with fair fruits, and fountains, and a lake replenished with excellent fish. In the midst is a beautiful palace with twenty halls of such extent, that ten thousand guests might be received at a festival.‡ Hence you may comprehend the magnitude of this city. Here is also a church of Nestorians.§ In this city it is ordered that on every door be written the name of the master, his wives, children, and domestics.

Mangi.

* This greatly diminishes the wonder of its extent.

† Paper currency, made of the mulberry paper tree.

‡ The Laton of the injudicious monk bears that each would receive ten thousand.

§ The public worship of the followers of Dalai Lama has impressed all travellers to Tibet with a great resemblance of the Christian. Hence perhaps Polo finds so many Nestorians in the east.

And if any inhabitant pass elsewhere, he must take his name with him; he who rents the house being obliged to place his. All the inn-holders are ordered to give in writing the names of their guests, the month and day of their arrival, how long they have remained, and with how many horses.* In speaking of the city of Guinfai I may briefly mention the revenue of the great Chan. From all the province of Guinfai there arises a free revenue on salt alone of nine thousand tomans of gold, each toman being nine thousand fazi, and each fazo is worth more than seven ducats. From other objects besides the salt there are raised twenty thousand tomans of gold."†

India and the
Islands.

It is unnecessary to dwell on the other cities of China, which are now so well known. The short portion which remains of Marco's interesting production is dedicated to the description of India, and the farthest regions of the east; occupying the third book of the Latin, which begins with ch. 119 of the original. The description of Japan must not be omitted, not only as a conclusive specimen of the Venetian copy, but as it was the first that disclosed that interesting country to European knowledge, and so much excited the attention of Colon, that he eagerly inquired for Zipango, when he arrived in the West Indies.

Having mentioned the city and haven of Jaitoni, possessing one of the best harbours in the world, and carrying on a prodigious trade with India, "so that for every ship that arrives in Alexandria there arrive here one hundred,"‡ and the enormous duties exacted, he thus proceeds.

Japan.

"But I will now be silent concerning these countries, and proceed to speak of India, in which I Marco remained for a long time, adding at the same time the wonderful things of this globe. I will first begin with the island of Cimpagu, which is in the ocean towards the east, distant about fifteen hundred miles from the continent; being a large land, inhabited by well made and handsome people, who adore idols. They have a king who pays tribute to no other; and speak a peculiar language. Here is found abundance of gold, but it is not permitted to be carried out of the island, whence few ships and little merchandize

* The monk has transposed the horses to the door of each house!

† The passage is difficult, and yet more confused in the Latin.

‡ It would verily appear that the translator neither understood Italian, nor the Venetian dialect. He has at hasty interpreted this clear passage, so as to imply that all the pepper and spices, which Alexandria sent to Christendom, were brought from this Chinese city to Alexandria; *nam piper et aromata quæ Alexandria ad partes mittit Christianorum, hæc ab illo imperio Alexandriam deferuntur.*

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arrive there. The sovereign of the country has a palace of wonderful magnificence, being all covered with thick plates of fine gold, and the frames of the windows are of the same metal. This island also abounds with precious stones, and vast riches. The great Chan learning the opulence of this island sent two of his barons to conquer it with a prodigious number of ships, laden with cavalry and infantry, and an abundant supply of provisions. One of these generals was called Abatan, and the other Vonfaincini. They left the port of Caicon and Gunfai, and proceeded to Cimpagu where they landed and ravaged the plains: but envy and jealousy arising between the two leaders, so that what the one wished the other opposed, they took no city, and only one castle, of which the garrison, which would not yield, was cut to pieces, except eight men, who could not be hurt with steel, because each had a precious stone of enchantment fixed in his arm, between the skin and the flesh. This being reported to the generals they were killed with clubs of wood; and the precious stones brought to these officers. One day it happened that a violent northerly wind arose, so that from fear that the fleet should be wrecked, all returned to the ships, and failed to an island at the distance of about ten miles. But the wind became so tempestuous that many of the ships were wrecked, and the men escaped to land; while the other ships returned home. Those who had escaped to the land were about thirty thousand, who were all supposed to be lost. When the sea had become calm the king of the island went with many ships to seize these invaders; but having landed with all his people, the Tatars made an unexpected turn, and seized the ships of the king, who was left in the island with his people. Proceeding to Cimpagu the Tatars landed, displaying the royal banners they had found in the ships; and approaching a city the gates were immediately opened. The Tatars entering sacked the whole, and even the women were served as at Verona. Immediately the king armed ships, and raised a new army to besiege the city. The Tatars receiving no succour, after a defence of seven months yielded on terms. This happened in the year 1269.

"In this island are idols, some with the head of a wolf, others of a hog, a ram, or a dog. Some have one head with four faces; others three heads on one neck; others the head under the shoulders; or one upon another; some having four arms and others ten. That idol is reputed the handsomest which has the most arms: and if asked why they make these idols, in such distorted and different forms, their answer is, the custom was handed down by their ancestors. When these islanders capture any man or woman, who is not of their nation, if they:

they have not money to ransom themselves, they are slain, their blood is drank, and the body afterwards eaten.* This island, as already mentioned, is in the great ocean. And, according to the report of skilful pilots and mariners, who frequent these seas, there are seven thousand four hundred and forty seven isles, of which the greater number are inhabited. And in all these islands there is no tree which is not odoriferous, does not bear fruit, or is not useful in other respects. There is also produced abundance of white pepper: and a year is required to sail from the province of Manzi, the reason being that there reign two continual winds, the one during the winter, the other during the summer." Such is the original of this famous chapter, of which the sense has often been confounded and perverted by the Latin translator. He places for example the seven thousand four hundred and forty seven islands *around Zipangu*, while our intelligent author, on the contrary, is speaking of the prodigious number of islands in the Indian ocean, and the northern part of the Pacific, which might not perhaps fall even short of the number he mentions, the Maldives alone having been computed at twelve hundred by ancient geographers. This passage is said wonderfully to have impressed Colon with the possibility, and great advantages, of reaching India from the west of Europe. For though that great man certainly did not use the ridiculous and mutilated Latin translation, followed long after by Ramusio, who rather wished to make an elegant work than to study the superior charms of veracity, yet even in the original narrative the expression being somewhat lax, might induce Colon to believe that many of these islands, abounding with the spices and precious woods of the east, stretched to a considerable extent towards Europe; as the false longitudes of Ptolemy, which left only a void of one third of the sphere, would naturally authorise him to conclude. These reasons have been indicated in the account of his life by his son Fernando:† and it is not improbable that Colon conceived that the imaginary isles of Antilla and St. Brandan, laid down in the maps of 1430 as lying opposite to Europe at no great distance, might belong to the numerous islands mentioned by Marco Polo.

* The Arabian travellers in the ninth century inform us that human flesh was sold in the markets of China. These shocking customs were however quite extraordinary, and not diurnal, as in *A r e a*. As no trace of them can be found among the ancient Egyptians, Phœnicians, Persians, and Hindoos, they evince beyond all reply that civilization did not originate in the eastern parts of Asia, but in the west: for though the reports may be false, there being still no similar reports concerning the ancient civilized nations, the climate must remain nearly the same.

† Cap. vi, vii.

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Our author next proceeds to mention that on leaving Zaitoi, a port belonging to the great Chan, and sailing towards the W. and S. W. there is a country called Ciariban, in vain attempted to be conquered in 1240; but, on submission, a tribute was exacted of twelve elephants every year. "I Marco was in this country in 1275." There are many elephants, with wood of aloes, and thick forests of black ebony. In the next chapter this country seems more justly called Cian'ni; Siampa. and is supposed to be Siampa to the south of Cambodia, in a S. W. direction from China. Leaving this country, and sailing between the S. and S. E. for fourteen hundred miles, a great island is found called Borneo. Lava, three thousand miles in circumference. This description can only apply to Borneo; and it is not a little remarkable that the chief kingdom and city of Borneo are called Lava to this day:* the Latin Java is therefore a mere corruption.

Leaving Lava, and sailing eighteen miles between S. and S. W. according to the Italian, but seven hundred according to the Latin, (the numbers being in both extremely corrupt, the most common fault in manuscripts,) there occur two islands, one called Sondur and the other Condur: and about two hundred miles beyond is the province or island of Lochach, which abounds in gold and ivory, but is little frequented, being remote from the common route. On leaving Lochach, and sailing five miles to the S. but by the Latin five hundred, so that the direction and not the distances must guide the research, there is an isle called Pentara, amidst such shallow water, that it does not exceed four paces in depth. Proceeding five miles by the Italian to the S. there is a kingdom called Malonir, the city and island being called PePETAM, where there is abundance of spices, † Leaving PePETAM and proceeding one hundred miles to the S. is found the island of Java Mener, Sumatra. about two thousand miles in circuit. In a kingdom of this isle called Ferlach they use much Saracenic or Arabian merchandise; and the inhabitants of the low lands are Mahometans. From Ferlach he proceeds to Basma, and Samara, ‡ both in the same island of Java Mener, where Marco Polo remained ten months. The polar star is not visible, nor that *Del Maestro*. The natives use palm wine. Another kingdom is Deragola: Lambri forms the fifth, and Fanfur the sixth kingdom of Java. I have in vain consulted the large map of Java in many sheets published by Valentyn, but can find no indication of the names men-

* See Valentyn's large map and description, vol. iv. p. 236.

† Perhaps Malacca and Patan.

‡ This perhaps gave the name of Samatra or Sumatra.

tioned.

tioned by Polo; nor even in that of Sumatra, though by many supposed to be the Java Mener.

Leaving Lambri, and proceeding a hundred and forty miles to the north, two islands appear, Necunera and Namgama. They produce red sandal wood; and the inhabitants are cruel anthropophagi. From Namgama a course of one thousand miles to the S. W. conducts to Silan, which is clearly Ceylon. From this resting place a retrospect may therefore be made. Necunera seems to be Nicobar, while Namgama is Andaman; as by both the Latin and Italian Necunera is a hundred and forty or a hundred and fifty miles from Java Mener, it seems evident that this is Sumatra; and the consumption of Arabian articles, and introduction of the Mahometan religion, indicate that most westerly of the Indian isles. As this isle is a hundred miles to the S. E. of Pepetam and Malonir, he must have sailed from the western coast of Malacca, and proceeded in that direction to Sumatra; and by not an uncommon mistake of the copyist it is probable that for Petan we should read Peran or Peirah, though the Pentam of some manuscripts may be Pendaon. But Malonir lies due south of Pentara and Lochach which seem to be described as S. S. W. of Lava or Borneo. As the numbers in the Italian are sometimes palpably corrupt, it is probable that the MS. used by the Latin translator, being perhaps more ancient, was in some instances more correct. If we read with the Latin, that from Lava or Borneo there are seven hundred miles to the islands of Sondur and Condur, without any direction being indicated, we shall judge that Polo returns from Lava towards Siampa, whence he commenced his voyage, near which we find the island of Condur, at the distance of about seven hundred miles from Borneo. It is from these isles that the courses must be taken to Lochach: but this is not the place to clear these difficulties.

Hindoostan.

Nachabar,
Moabar, or
Coromandel.

On proceeding forty miles to the west of Ceylon, the author at length arrives in the vast country of Hindoostan; and in the original begins his description with the grand province of Nachabar, which he says is justly called India Major, as being in the Terra Firma.* The king of Vor is one of the princes of Nachabar, and has the tenth part of the numerous pearls which are found in a neighbouring gulf from April to May. Polo describes some of the customs of the Hindoos, particularly that of the women burning themselves with their dead husbands. The king of Vor purchases yearly about ten thousand horses in the country of Cormos formerly mentioned, each horse costing five sazi of gold.† They were

* The account of Polo's travels given by Dr. Robertson, (Disq. on India, p. 132, 133, and Notes p. 342.) is so wholly erroneous, that he appears never to have seen the book.

† One Latin translator has put five hundred sazi of silver.

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chiefly supplied by the merchants of Guinsai, Sufur, and Eden. This nation descends from those who slew St. Thomas, hence none of them dare to enter his church. The heat is intolerable; the rainy season is in June, July, and August. These hints from the description of Nachabar, which is transposed in the latin edition, indicate that he begins with the coast of Coromandel fronting Ceylon. In the following chapter, 131, he says that when you have left Moabar, and proceeded a thousand miles to the north, you find a great kingdom called Muis (in the latin Murfili) which abounds in diamonds. The body of St. Thomas is in the province of Moabar, revered both by christians and saracens; and he adds a miracle dated 1297. It is well known that the shrine of St. Thomas is near Madras on the coast of Coromandel, so that the Moabar of Marco Polo cannot imply Malabar, if his memory have not much deceived him; and as the two brothers and the son were concerned in this valuable labour, it is not probable that the mistake should have escaped them all. The other provinces of Hindostan described by our author are Lahe to the west of the shrine of St. Thomas; Orbai to the S. W. from Moabar, another proof that Malabar is not implied. In Comati the polar star is discoverable, but not visible from the island of Java to this country; whence if you proceed by sea for thirty miles you perceive the polar star, in appearance seven paces above the waves. Three hundred miles to the W. of Comati is the kingdom of Eli. Melibar is a great kingdom of India Malabar. toward the W. wholly independent. This kingdom, and that of Gefurach, perhaps Geriah, swarmed with pirates, as common in ancient as modern times. Proceeding from Gefurach by sea towards the W. you find the kingdoms of Toma and Sebelech. "Know that I have only told you of the provinces which are upon the sea, and have said nothing of those inland, which would require a very long description."

Marco Polo afterwards proceeds to describe a portion of Africa, Africa. his intelligence concerning which he must have derived from the merchants whom he met in his travels; and which he vaguely and indistinctly includes among the distant countries of India, as he did not study geography but merely repeated what he had seen and heard. His island of Scorfia or Scoria, from which Madagascar is distant about a thousand Socotra. miles, seems to be the island of Socotra; the real distance being about twenty-five degrees or fifteen hundred g. miles. It is probable that at this time Socotra was subject to Abyssinia, as he says the inhabitants were christians, with an archbishop; but he does not mention aloe the peculiar product of that isle. Madagascar. Mandeigascar or Madagascar first appears on the scene of European knowledge. He says that this isle is four thousand miles in circumference, abundant in ivory, and red sandal wood. The

tusk of a wild boar, more probably of the hippotamus which resembles the boar in its habits, was brought to the great chan, and weighed seventeen pounds. He also ascribes to Madagascar the *rucki*, fabulous large birds of the orientals. Then passing to the continent of Africa, he describes Zangibar, which he supposes to be an island one thousand miles in circumference. Thence he proceeds to Abasaia, Habasch, or Abyssinia, which is also, in his geography, a country of India. He rightly describes the inhabitants as christians; and says that the country was divided into six kingdoms, three christian and three saracen, who acknowledged one supreme monarch. The wars with the sultan of Aden and Nerbia, perhaps Nubia, are stated; and he mentions that the king of Abyssinia, in 1287, obtained a great victory over the sultan of Aden, which province is briefly described, and where St. Thomas is said to have converted several people before he went to the country of Mochabar in India, where he was martyred; this Mochabar being the Moabar of a former passage.

Quitting Africa he then turns his view towards the north of Asia. He gives a faint idea of Siberia, where the Mongols had established a kingdom; of the ermines, and other products; and even of the sledges drawn by dogs which are used in the eastern part. Beyond he justly says that all is ice in the winter, and all is mud in the summer: but he idly derives the name of a country Scuricha from the continual obscurity. Adjacent to this country is the wide region of Rossia or Ruffia, then partly subject to the Tatars; with a short account of which Marco Polo closes his work, which is truly wonderful for that period.

From these details, which the curiosity and importance of the subject authorize, the reader will perceive what prodigious accessions to the knowledge of Asia arose from the travels of Marco Polo; whose discoveries may be said even to have exceeded those of Colon himself. While the ancients, as already mentioned, scarcely knew above one third of Asia, there are few regions of any consequence, which have escaped the researches of this great traveller. It seems singular that there should be no mention of the Moluccas or Spice Islands, whence the clove, nutmeg, and mace, must have been brought to Asia; and which were certainly included in the range of Chinese and oriental commerce. Exclusive of these, and of the Philippines, few important isles in the Indian Ocean have escaped the notice of Polo, whose manuscript probably first appeared about the year 1300, but being wrapt in the Venetian dialect long escaped the notice of the learned, so that the intelligent pope Pius II. who wrote a description of Asia about 1450, did not know its ex-

istence.* From the north of Siberia to the Indian Ocean, from Constantinople to Japan, few objects of consequence have escaped the eye of

* Baretto in his Italian Library p. iv. London 1757, 8vo. from the Notes of Zeno, on Fontanini's *Biblioteca*, informs us that the travels of Marco Polo were dictated by him to one Rustigielo of Pisa, in the year 1299, in the prisons of Genoa, where that great traveller was then confined. Baretto has given a specimen which at the same time that it shews that the edition of Trevigi (unknown to him) is from a genuine original manuscript, also supplies the greater part of the introduction which is wanting in that edition; so that the short ch. 2, of the latin alone remains unpublished. It is to be regretted that a splendid edition is not given from the original manuscripts, with illustrations. That they may be more easily discovered, the beginning is

Qui comenza il prologo del libro chiamato, de la istinzione del mondo.

Vui signori, imperadori, duchi, &c.

The decisive passage concerning the imprisonment of Polo is as follows; *Et dicho chel dito Messer Marco Polo stete in queste diverse parts et pro: inxie vintise ani; et questo per poter saver queste tal chosse: le qualstano destagnudo in chazzare da Zenoressi, tute ste chosse fura scribuer per messer Rustigielo, citadin de Pisa, lo qual era ne la dicta prizione con el dito messer March Polo: et fo scribito le dite chosse nel ano del nostro Signor Jesu Christo mille ducento e nonanta nuove.*

In all probability this captivity arose from the noted defeat of the Venetian fleet commanded by Dandolo, on the 8th September 1298, in which the victorious Genoese took eighty-five ships, and seven thousand four hundred prisoners, among whom were the admiral, and many distinguished Venetians. Peace was re-established, and the prisoners restored, towards the end of the year 1299. Baretto has observed that copies of this manuscript, though written in the Venetian dialect, multiplied with great rapidity in all parts of Italy, and even in France and Germany; and that, if the Venetians could have boasted several writers like Polo, their dialect would probably have passed through all Italy, an honour reserved for the Florentine or Tuscan.

The dialect of Pisa, of which Baretto gives a specimen, is very different from that of Venice; and Rustigielo had probably been long in the service of Venice, and taken prisoner with Marco Polo. Baretto also mentions, p. 233, an edition of Polo Ven. 1597, 8vo. and adds that some suppose that Polo acquired the name of *Millioni*, because his family were said to have gained a million of ducats in the east. His travels were long regarded as fables beneath the notice of the learned; and it was not till after the discoveries of the Portuguese, that they obtained due credit. Zeno first demonstrated that these travels were written in the Venetian dialect, from the MS. above mentioned, preserved in the family of Soranzo at Venice. The first edition in the Venetian dialect, though somewhat modernized like the others, is supposed to be that of Venice 1496. 8vo. The academicians Della Crusca used a Tuscan translation, of the beginning of the fourteenth century, by Ormanni. Pepuri, the latin translator, was of Bologna, and seems not to have understood the Venetian. Ramusio must have been a most careless and indolent editor, as he supposed the work was first written in latin; and was an utter stranger to all the circumstances though writing at Venice!

Though Polo assures us that he was at Cambalu or Pekin, he says nothing of the great wall; whence some have argued that it was built after China was delivered from the Mongol conquerors. The romantic Prevost, editor of the *Hist. Gen. des Voy.* hence asserts that Polo never was in China; though he informs us himself that he had been for three years governor of one of the principal cities! At what period Pipino (or Pepuri) the ignorant monk, wrote his latin translation is not specified, perhaps about the end of the fifteenth century, till which time the travels of Polo seem to have been little known, being in a dialect seldom studied. Muller mentions a remarkable translation by a courtier attendant on the queen of Portugal, wife of Emanuel, but in whose name he seems to err, for that king did not marry Eleonora of Austria till 1519. The queen must therefore be Mary of Castille, whom he married in 1500. However this be, in 1502 there was published at Lisbon, a Portuguese translation of the travels of Marco Polo, with those of Nicolo Conti, also called Nicolo of Venice, who about 1440 returned from his travels of twenty five years in the east, and an account of which was written from his own mouth in latin by the celebrated Poggius; so that this work which was supposed to be lost may probably be found among the works of Poggius, but with certainty in the Portuguese edition. The third production in this volume is an epistle from Jerome de S. Stephano, a Genoese, written from Tripoli in Syria in 1499 to a friend in Germany. This remarkable edition of Polo was published for the use of the new discoverers, the Colons and the Gammas.

our inquisitive traveller, to whose memory justice at length begins to be rendered.

Haitho.

Haitho king or prince of Armenia, having abdicated the crown or his pretensions, and become a monk, retired to France, where he composed his Oriental History about the year 1307. This work presents a geographical description of Asia, which is not without its merit. Cathay he represents as the most populous and powerful empire in the world, inhabited by a people who asserted that they alone had two eyes, and the Europeans one; while all other nations were blind. The dominions of the Yugurs, Turkestan, Kharisim, are also described; nor are Tangut and Tibet forgotten.*

S. Odoric,
1317—1330.

While the careless Venetians have published no standard edition of Polo, whose name confers the most lasting honour on their country, not to mention that he may be regarded as the father of their written language, a splendid edition appeared in 1761 of the far inferior work of Odorico; perhaps, because he has the honour of being a reputed saint, while Polo was merely a great and sensible sinner. † This friar, Odorico, is known in Latin by the name of *Odericus Utinensis*, being a native of Pordenone in the diocese of Udine. Embarking in a Venetian vessel, he arrived at Trebezond in 1317, whence he proceeded to the Greater Armenia, the cities Tauris and Soldania. After other courses he arrived at Tana in 1322; and afterwards sailed to Maabar, now called the coast of Coromandel; thence to Lamori, and the isles of Java and Paten, and Zapa. Thence to Silan and Dandin, whence he proceeded to Mangi or the southern part of China, where it appears that the minorites had already some establishments; and Odorico is said to have remained three years in Cambalu or Peking, revered by the Chinese as a travelling Bramin. Leaving Cathay, he returned by the provinces of Prester-John, and the wide country of Tangut, where were also several minorites. Thence he probably passed by Persia, and arrived in Italy 1330, after an absence of thirteen years. He died with the reputation of sanctity, and of having wrought some miracles, in 1331, aged only forty-six; but does not appear to have been canonized till 1753. To this canonization we are particularly obliged for the edition of his travels, which seems to be accurately published from

* He sometimes illustrates Polo. Mozul is Mesopotamia: Turcomania extended on the W. to the city of Natalia on the Greek Sea.

† *Elogio Storico alle Gesta del Beato Odorico, dell' Ordine de' Minori Conventuali: con la Storia, da lui Dettrata, de' suoi Viaggi Asiatici; illustrata da un Religioso dell' Ordine Stesso, e preientata agli Amatori delle Antichità.* Venice 1761, large 4to. with three plates, but the map is useless.

ancient manuscripts preserved in the convent of Udine, and elsewhere. But a translation had been published by Ramusio in his very inaccurate and mutilated collection; and some fragments of the Latin are given by the Bollandists. Such are, however, the merits of Odorico, that, as every trade has its saint, he might be chosen as the patron saint of geographers.

Independently of its curiosity, the work of Odorico forms, in many passages, an excellent commentary on that of Marco Polo, in which view only his steps shall be briefly traced. The account of Trebezond corresponds with that of Marco Polo. Arziron in the Greater Armenia and Tauris follow. Soldania was the summer residence of the Persian kings. Odorico travels with a *caravan* towards upper India, and arrives at the city of Gest or Yefd; thence, unaccountably, he passes to the town of Job, and tower of Babel. Leaving *this India*, he arrives at Ormes or Ornes, where he makes a wonderful observation for a monk and a saint; thence in twenty-eight days he sails to Tana, where four minorites had been martyred, and where it was reported that king Porus had resided. From the notes it would seem to be near Surat, but is perhaps Tatta on the Indus. He then describes the empire of Minebar which produces pepper. This the innotator interprets to be Malabar; while the long account of Mobar in the next chapter indicates Coromandel. He then goes to Lamori towards the south, perhaps the Lambri of Polo. Odorico here loses sight of the polar star, and finds such heat that the people are wholly naked; they eat human flesh, and the women are all common. In the same island, to the south, is a kingdom called Sumoltra, interpreted Sumatra, and another kingdom Botonigo. Next is the great island of Java, which the editor supposes to be modern Java. A kingdom here is called Panten or Malamulin, probably the kingdom of Patan in Malacca. The mode of making sago is clearly indicated, as in Polo. Zampa is next described, which the careless editor supposes to be Zipango, while it is Siampa. The isle of Nicuveran follows, where our saint finds a people with the heads of dogs. Silam is Ceylon; whence proceeding to the south, he reaches a great island called Dondin or Dandin, where the people are anthropophagi; but no such name or position occurs in these seas, and the saint seems not averse to fiction. Mangi, he says, was called Superior India. The Chinese mode of fishing with pelicans is described. The description of Guinsai, here called Cansai, is literally taken from Marco Polo, the hundred miles in circuit, the twelve thousand bridges, &c. Of Cambalec, the description may be compared with that of Polo, from whom our author has again largely borrowed. Critics have already re-

India.

marked the same feature in the travels of Sir John Mandeville, in which whole chapters are taken from Polo; as it often happens that an original writer is robbed, and afterwards reviled. An edition of the travels of Marco Polo might present in the notes the few additions to be found in the travels of Odoric and of Mandeville; for the knight or his transcribers are also shameful plagiarists, the obscurity of the Venetian dialect having long thrown a veil over the fraud. Perhaps it would not even be rash to infer that Odorico, who died soon after his return, never wrote any account of his travels, but that the whole is a fabrication by some copyist, who knew that his reputation of a saint, and the fame of his long residence in the east, would procure a speedy sale for the manuscripts. The simplicity of the style and manner, the frequency of personal adventures, and innumerable other circumstances, affix the stamp of authenticity on the narrative of Polo; while those of Odoric and Mandeville seem only miserable copies and extracts, and abound with numerous fables beneath the gravity of the great Venetian traveller.

The kingdom of Tibet or Tibet is also described, or rather one or two singular customs; and our author again returns to Mangi: thence he proceeds to the land of the Assassins, where the minorites wrought a miracle: and this whole work, which occupies more than thirty pages in quarto, does little credit either to the veracity or observation of the friar; and might, perhaps, even be classed among the pious frauds, from the repeated miracles ascribed to his order, and from the large plagiarisms extracted from Polo.

Mandeville.

Mandeville is said to have proceeded on his journey in 1322, and to have returned in 1355, having travelled over great part of Asia, and served in the army of the sultan of Egypt, and in that of the great chan. He is buried at Liege, where he died on the 17th November 1371. The best edition of his travels was published at London 1725, 8vo. in the old English dialect, the other copies being said to be extracts; but if the plagiarisms from Polo be there omitted, they are rather to be considered as the most genuine narratives.

The travels of Sir John Mandeville have been more celebrated than read, though it would have been pleasing to have found an English writer assuming his share in the great discoveries in Asia. A brief account of his work will enable the reader to judge of his pretensions.*

* The edition used is the English, London, 1725, 8vo. published from a MS. in the Cotton Library, by Mr le Neve. He says himself that he wrote the work in Latin; whence he translated it into French and English.

Sir John Mandeville informs us that he was born at St. Albans in England; and, having a desire to travel, passed the sea in the year 1322, or, according to other manuscripts, 1332, and visited, among other countries India, and the Indian isles; but it is remarkable that he here says nothing of Cathay, though, if he had visited that country, it was precisely the most striking object. He then indicates various routes to Constantinople; and in this, as in other parts, there are more marks of compilation than of originality, the personal adventures, and many other circumstances, which impress veracity on the page of Marco Polo, being here totally wanting. Concerning the cross and crown of Jesus Christ at Constantinople, there are long fables, which his contemporary, Chaucer, would have turned into ridicule, and affirmed them to be 'dremes of ouden wemen.' Similar fables, disgraceful to any writer of common sense, stain every page of Mandeville. He afterwards proceeds to the Holy Land, which he seems to have really visited; and a description of which, replete with monkish tales, occupies one half of his book. Our author says, that he served the sultan of Egypt against the Beduins or wild Arabs; yet seems an entire stranger to that country, there being only a slight mention of Cairo, while the account is filled with pedantic confusion concerning Babylon in Egypt, which he confounds with Babylon in Chaldea. The sultan is represented as residing at Babylon; and there is nothing in the whole description which might not have been drawn from books common at the time. Though Mandeville appear to have taken many wild descriptions from Pliny, yet he is such a stranger to ancient lore, as gravely to inform us, that roses were first seen when an innocent virgin, condemned to death, addressed her prayers to Jesus Christ. It is unnecessary to pursue the description of the Holy Land given by our weak author, in the most injudicious and credulous manner, so that sometimes his singular ignorance approaches to blasphemy.

In his twelfth chapter, or about the middle of his book, Mandeville gives some account of the manners of the Saracens, or rather of their ideas concerning Christ; and afterwards falls into a roaming description of various countries, bearing the usual indelible stamp of the compiler, and not of the original traveller, for most of the names and ideas belong to ancient geography, as Mesopotamia, Chaldea, Scythia, Albania, Hircania, Bactria, Iberia, &c. &c. all totally unknown to Marco Polo, who only pretends, as a real traveller, the modern names and divisions, having been fortunately unacquainted with ancient geography. Where any thing modern appears, it is some childish fable. Noah's ark is by his account still visible on Ararat. The land of Job seems to have been

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borrowed from Odoric; and our voracious knight has fairly taken from ancient writers the account of the Amazons, whom he represents as an existing nation. He then describes diamonds, and says, he has often found by experience that, if they be wet with May-dew, they will in the course of years, grow to a great size! We next find our author in India without any account of his journey.* He then proceeds to the isle of Lamary, the Lambri of Polo, and his mention of the star Transmontane, an idea and expression purely Italian, demonstrates the source of his information. The description of the other islands seems also to consist of disguised extracts from Polo, with ridiculous additions, such as, the shells of snails so large that many persons may lodge in them. The English editor has also shewn, that his account of the pretended varieties of the human race, as nations of hermaphrodites, &c. &c. which our skilful author places in separate isles in the Indian ocean, are mere transcripts from Pliny's natural history. The description of Mangi is most inaccurately borrowed from Polo, and disguised, as usually happens to stolen goods. The city with twelve thousand bridges has twelve principal gates, and before every gate extends for the length of three or four miles a detached town or great city! In short, a more weak or injudicious author, or rather plagiarist, never disgraced literature; and as he does not mention Cathay in his prologue, a description of that country appears, as already stated, to have been a posterior idea. Yet he gravely asserts, p. 263; that his companions, and he, with their yeomen or attendants, served the emperor of Cathay fifteen months against the king of Mangi; while it is evident, from his relation, in which there is neither personal adventure, nor new route, nor even expression that indicates actual inspection, that he has merely added extravagant fables to the plain description of Marco Polo. Nor does he even know the name of the Chan whom he served, † as he closes the succession with Kublai, who, by his account, was a Christian; a remark which, of itself, evinces that he never had visited the Mongol court; and instead of continuing the series to his own time, he only adds, "the next great Chan who succeeded became a pagan, and all the others after him." The account of the Mongol court, of the paper money, &c. is borrowed from Polo; with the addition, that a hundred and fifty thousand men were occupied in feeding wild beasts and birds in the emperor's menagerie. In

* Perhaps the following is the only new article of intelligence, p. 207. "In that Cintree growen manye strange Vynes: and the Women drynken Wyn, and men not: and the Women schaven hire Berdes, and the men not."

† He, however, in another passage, p. 297, says, that his Chan was called Thiaut, and his eldest son Tossie, neither of which is exact.

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short, if Sir John Mandeville ever visited Cathay, he has added nothing to the information given by Polo; and if not, as seems more probable, his narrative deserves still less attention.

Leaving his description of Cathay, he returns to Tharse, a kingdom, by his account, on the western boundaries of Cathay, while on the west of Tharse is Turkestan! Thus our pretended great traveller knew nothing of the wide region of Tangut, which really adjoined to Cathay on the west. His account of Turkestan, &c. seems a mere transcript of Odoric. After this digression he returns to the isles beyond Cathay, in his idea; but again evinces that he never travelled in that direction, for these countries are unexpectedly on the Caspian sea. Prester John is also with him only a designation of the emperor of India; which is a country divided into many islands by the great torrents descending from Paradise! There is also in this country a sea of gravel and sand without one drop of water, which, nevertheless, always moves in waves like the ocean! Prester John dwells in the city of Susa (in Persia); the gates of his palace are of solid sardonix, the bars of ivory, the windows of rock crystal, the tables of emerald, while carbuncles one foot in length enlighten the palace by night. These ridiculous tales, with others still more extravagant, our author probably heard in the Holy Land; for if he had visited the Mongol court, like Polo, his account of Prester John would have been as modest and consistent as that of the great Venetian traveller; and his repeated scriptural names of rivers, as Phison, &c. indicate the source of his fables to have sprung from Christian pilgrims who visited Jerusalem. In his passage through the Valley of Death, he says, he was accompanied by two friars minor of Lombardy; and his account of apparitions, of precious stones, &c. is a mere transcript from Odoric: but Sir John has added, in his usual style, two great islands in the midst of the continent, one inhabited by giants thirty feet in height, while those of the other are from forty-five to fifty. In the work of Marco Polo there are two or three fables, arising from natural phenomena; but here there are a thousand fictions, so utterly ridiculous as to surpass the credulity of childhood. Our author proceeds to find many islands full of singular customs, borrowed from Pliny, and from the romances of the middle ages. As, in his account of Syria, Andromeda is not the name of the lady, but of the monster about to devour her, so in this learned account of India, there is an isle called Brahmin, and another called Gymnosophist, which was entered by Alexander the Great. Follows an isle called Pytan, in which the inhabitants live on the smell of wild apples, an idea borrowed from Pliny; and from the same author is also borrowed the account of the Indian ants, as large as cats,

who guard caverns of gold. Near the land of Prester John is Paradise; but our author is for once ingenuous, for he says,* "Of Paradise I cannot speak properly, because I was not there. It is far beyond, and that disheartened me; and, also, I was not worthy. But as I have heard say of wise men beyond, I shall tell you with good will. Terrestrial Paradise, as wise men say, is the highest place on earth that is in all the world, and it is so high that it toucheth near to the circle of the moon, where the moon maketh her turn. For it is so high that the flood of Noah might not come to it.—And this Paradise is inclosed all about with a wall; and men wit not whereof it is, for the walls be covered all over with moss, as it seemeth." Then, by his description, the four rivers proceeding from Paradise are, the Ganges, the Nile, the Tigris, and the Euphrates; an idea which a traveller in the east could have adopted. After having exhausted the fables of Pliny, our author has again recourse to Odoric and Marco Polo, distorting their relations as usual.

From this analysis it will evidently appear, that if Sir John Mandeville ever passed the boundaries of the Holy Land, he was so weak, ignorant, and credulous, that he has rather distorted the accounts of preceding travellers, than opened any new source of knowledge; and that he has not added one particle of solid information to the discoveries of Polo. But it rather appears that, having resided many years in the Holy Land, he had gathered materials for his book from the confused tales of Christian pilgrims, who crowded to that country from the east, as well as from the west, from the frontiers of Cathay, as well as from England. And, upon the whole, his work is so visionary and useless, that the complete oblivion into which it has fallen is most justly merited.

Before the return of Mandeville, an Italian author published a singular work, whence a curious extract has been given by Dr. Forster, though somewhat foreign to the design of his compilation. †

Pegoletti's
work.

* Francisco Balducci Pegoletti, an Italian, wrote in the year 1335, a system of commercial geography, of great importance, considering the period in which it was written: the title is, *Di divisamenti di paesi, e di misure, di mercatanzie, ed altre cose bisognevoli di sapere a mercatanti, de diversi parti del mondo.* † No historian has hitherto profited by this treatise. Professor Sprengel has been the first to make use of it

* P. 368. † History of Voyages and Discoveries in the North, London, 1786, 4to. p. 150.

† This Commercial Geography has been reprinted entire in a book where one would hardly think of looking for it, viz. in the 3d vol. of the work, intitled, *Della Decima e delle altre gravanze. Livorno e Lucca, 1765, 4to. F.*

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in his 'Extent and Increase of Geographical Knowledge.' We shall therefore insert here a translation of that part of it which relates to our present undertaking, entire and without any abridgment; he calls it, *Avvisamento del viaggio del Gattajo per lo Cammino della Tana, ad andare e tornare con mercatanzia*, i. e. an indication of the route that may be taken with merchandise from Tana (or Azof), to Gattay, (Cathay, or North China) and from thence back again.

'In the first place, from Tana (or Azof) to Gintarchan¹ or (Astrakhan) it is twenty-five days journey with waggons drawn by oxen; but with rogons drawn by horses it is only ten or twelve days journey. On the road, one meets with a great number of armed Moccals (Mogols). From Gintarchan to Sara², by the river, it is but one day's sail; but from Sara to Saracanco³, it is eight days journey by water; one may, however, travel either by land or water, which ever is most agreeable; yet, with merchandise, it is cheapest to go by water. From Saracanco to Organci⁴, it is twenty days journey travelling with camels. Whoever travels with merchandise will do well to go to Organci, it being a convenient country for the expeditious sale of goods. And from Organci to Oltrara⁵, it is thirty-five or forty days journey with camels. But in going from Saracanco straight on to Oltrara, it takes up fifty days journey; and if one has no merchandize, it is a better way than that by Organci. From Oltrara to Armalecco⁶, it is forty-five days journey travelling with asses, and in the road one meets every day with

¹ Gintarchan, or Zintarchan, is, by Josephat Barbaro, also called Gitarchan; and Witfen says, in his Noord en Oost Tartarve, p. 709, *Astracan was van ouds genaemt Citracan*, i. e. Astrakan was anciently called Citracan. By the Calmucks, it is called *Hadzchi Aidar Khan Balgajun*, or the city of Hadzchi Aidar Khan; whence all those names are derived of Zitaikhan, Sutrakhan, and Astrakhan. F.

² Sara is undoubtedly the town of Saray, so often spoken of above, and situated on the eastern arm of the Wolga or Achtuba. The Altrachan, mentioned by Balducci Pegoletti, was not on the same spot where that town stands now, but the ancient Altrachan was demolished together with Saray, by the emperor Timur, in the winter of 1395. The old town of Saray was pretty near the ancient Astrakhan. F.

³ Saracanco is very probably the town formerly existing on the river Jaick, or Ural, the remains of which are still called Saratkik. F.

⁴ It is easy to recognize Organci in the town of Urgenz, in Kheucarefm. This place is called likewise by Abulfeda, Dichordichania, and, by the Persians, Korkang. But there were two towns of this name, viz. the Great and the Lesser Urgenz. The one was very near the place where the Gihon discharges itself into lake Aral, this was called Old Urgenz; another of this name called New Urgenz, is to be found near Chiwa, on the Gihon. F.

⁵ Oltrara, is properly called Otrar, and also Farah, which latter name is to be found in so early a writer as Abulfeda. It is situated on the river Sihon, or Sirr. The Chinese, who cannot pronounce the letter r, call it Uotala. F.

⁶ Armalecco is the name of a town called Almalig, which, according to Nassir Ettuli, and Ulughbegh, is in Turkestan. From Scherfeddin Ali, the author of the life of Timur, it appears, that this Almaleg is situated between the town of Taschkent and the river Irtisch, in the country of Geré, on the bank of the river Ab-Eile, which, at this very day, discharges itself into the Sihon, or Sirr-Daria. F.

Moccols (Mogols). From Armalesco to Camexu⁷, it is seventy days journey on asses, and from Camexu to a river called Kara Morin⁸, it is fifty days journey on horses. From this river the traveller may go to Cassai⁹, to dispose of his loading of silver there; this being a very good country for the expeditious sale of merchandise, and from Cassai he goes through the whole land of Gattay with the money he has received at Cassai for his silver; this money is paper only, called Babifchi, four of which Babifchies make a silver somno. From Cassai to Gamalecco¹⁰, which is the capital of the land of Cattai, it is thirty days journey.

“ If the reader has any idea of the difficulty attendant on making out so many names of places disguised by a vicious orthography, a difficulty which is still more increased by the necessity there is for determining with accuracy the situation of these places, and their probable distance from each other, he will perhaps be ready to allow, that the task is certainly not very trifling, nor to be accomplished without much labour.

“ Balducci Pegoletti certifies also the existence of the paper money in China, previously mentioned by Ruysbroeck, Haitho, Marco Polo, and Oderic of Portenau, which some of the above authors describe as being made of cotton paper; others, on the contrary, remark very justly, that it is made of the bark of the mulberry-tree. Oderic of Portenau calls it Balis, Balducci Pegoletti Balifchi; Mandeville says that it is made of leather. A jesuit, named Gabriel de Magaillans, pretends, that Marco Polo was mistaken with regard to the paper-money: but it is pretty clear, by the testimonies of about six travellers, eye-witnesses to the fact, that such paper-money actually did exist in the times of the emperors of the Mogul race, or of the regal tribe of Yu, and then only, having been abolished afterwards.”

Schildtberger. Dr. Forster proceeds to mention the travels of a German, called Schildtberger, who being taken prisoner by the Turks in 1395, was again captured by Timur, whom he accompanied in some expeditions, and resided in Tatarry some time after the death of that emperor. After an absence of thirty-two years he returned to Munich. Dr. Forster has given a brief account of his travels, which do not seem to have passed the bounds of Independent Tatarry; but has omitted to mention where he found the work, probably printed in old German.

⁷ Came xu is probably nothing more than the name of Khame, or Khami, with the addition of Xu, instead of Ticheu, which, in the Chinese language, signifies a town. F.

⁸ The river above mentioned is, doubtless, the Kara Morin, i. e. Kara Moran, but which the Chinese call Hoang-ho. F.

⁹ Cassai seems to be the place called Kissen, on the northernmost winding of Hoang-ho. F.

¹⁰ Gamalecco is, without doubt, Cambaleg, or Pekin; in like manner as Gattay is put for Cathay. F.

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The fifteenth century opened with little promise, though it was to close with the grand discovery of the passage to Asia by the Cape of Good Hope. Nicolo Conti of Venice seems to have returned from the east about 1440, after a residence of twenty-five years. His travels, as already mentioned, were written in Latin from his own mouth by the celebrated Poggius; and a Portuguese translation appeared at Lisbon in 1502, at the end of one from Marco Polo. Conti is repeatedly quoted by Eneas Sylvius, afterwards pope Pius II. and by Ortelius who calls him Nicolaus de Comitibus and Nicolaus de Conti. His work is however of little consequence to the progress of geography.

Conti.

The intention of this memoir is only to commemorate the chief epochs of Asiatic discovery; nor is it necessary to dwell on the travels of the ambassadors of the Shah Rokh the son of Timur, from Herat to Cathay, in 1419, published by Mirchond, and republished by Wittsen in his curious Dutch work called *Norden Oost Tartarye*; or on the journey of Barbaro the Venetian ambassador to Tana or Azof, then belonging to the Genoese, in 1436, that journey being chiefly curious from the early account of Russia. From this period till the discovery of the passage to India by the Cape of Good Hope, there appears to have been a pause, as if the attention of mankind had been diverted towards the progress of the Portuguese discoveries by sea; nor would it be easy to indicate travels of any consequence during the latter half of the fifteenth century. The art of printing however began gradually to impart more enlarged ideas, and the numerous editions of Ptolemy, shew the wide demand for the only scientific work then extant of general geography.

The discovery of the Cape of Good Hope, the voyage of Gama, at length disclosed the shores of Asia to the exact indications of the compass, and the accuracy of modern knowledge. So rapid was the progress that about 1540 Japan had already been visited by European navigators; and the successive discoveries may be traced in the course of this volume.

Gama.

As the southern nations of Europe had discovered an entrance to the opulent commerce of India by the south, so it was natural that the northern nations should inquire for such a passage in an opposite direction. In this pursuit the English and the Dutch eagerly engaged with spirited rivalry, being the most commercial nations in the north, after the fall of the Hanseatic League, which had been contented to diffuse along the Baltic the Indian articles sent from China. In 1497 Sebastian Cabot, by the command or permission of Henry VII. attempted to discover a passage to India by the north of America, in which he and many successors failed; but it was not ascertained till very lately that such a passage cannot exist, being utterly prohibited by the ice of the

English discoveries.

Western passage.

Arctic

Eastern pas-
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Arctic Ocean. During the despotic reign of Henry VIII. enterprize was mute; the attention of that monarch to his marine being directed, with his usual ostentation, to the construction of large ships of war; and he had besides married a Spanish princess, and was probably averse to interfere in the progress of Spanish discovery. The failure of Cabot, who had been created grand pilot of England, and whose maritime skill was greatly revered, probably contributed to direct the attention to another quarter, and excite a new pursuit, that of reaching India by the north of Europe and Asia. With this view Sir Hugh Willoughby proceeded with three ships in 1553. He perished with his crew at the mouth of the river Petchora, not in Russian Lapland, but in the eastern part of the government of Archangel. Another ship, separated in a storm, returned to England; while the third commanded by Chancellor made a discovery, which in some degree compensated the failure of the main object; for entering the White Sea, and the mouth of the river Dvina, the English captain was surpris'd to hear that he was in the empire of Russia, subject to a powerful and opulent monarch, now delivered from the yoke of the Tatars, and ready to burst into the system of European policy. The period was critical and fortunate. Chancellor lost no time in proceeding to the court at Moscow. The czar was equally surpris'd and pleas'd at this unexpected arrival, and eagerly embraced offers of commerce, that of his country having been long shackled by the Hansatic League. The boldness and novelty of the enterprize, the important discovery that commerce might be conducted by the Arctic Ocean, so as to open new sources of opulence and prosperity to his dominions, delighted the barbaric sovereign. The cargo was speedily sold; encouraging privileges granted; and the trade with Russia to the new town of Archangel, founded in consequence of this adventure, first began to open the views of England towards that extent of commerce which now encircles the globe.

This incident is however rather foreign to the objects of the present inquiry; and other attempts to discover a passage to India by the north of Asia, have proved equally fruitless, for the same causes which exclude all navigation on the north of America.

Slow im-
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geographical
works.

Though many important discoveries of the Spaniards and Portuguese were concealed by the commercial jealousy of these nations; yet geographers began to avail themselves of the new enterprizes, and to enrich the work of Ptolemy, which still remained the sole standard of universal geography. By a singular fatality the very reputation of that author contributed to retard the progress of the science; for the wide extent of his longitudes, admitting even the new discoveries in Asia, they were by
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writers, merely scientific, adapted to his delineations; and fcarcely was there a rational inquiry, or even a doubt concerning the extent of ancient knowledge in the three continents, till d'Anville fet the example, which has fince been ably followed by Goffellin. The geography of Ptolemy, like the philofophy of Aristotle, was fuppofed to be infallible; and never was the chain of routine more intenfely felt; fucceffive geographers, for two or three centuries, blindly following the fteps of their predeceffors. Nay in Italy itfelf, where the light of modern fcience firft arofe, the work of Ptolemy was republished till the feventeenth century, only with the addition of fome modern maps. The tranflation of Rufcelli, Venice 1574, 4to. is not without learning; and prefents very neat engravings of ancient and modern maps, fo as ftill to intereft the hiftorian of geography. That of Magini, alfo published at Venice, 1598, 2 vols. in folio, adds to the maps of Ptolemy thirty-feven modern delineations, engraved by the celebrated Porro, being intended as a complete fystem of the fcience.

Mean while navigators, finding little or no affiftance from the maps of Ptolemy, were conftrained to conftitute charts for their own fafety, and that of their fucceffors. It is evident, from many maps mentioned in the account of Australafia, that the Portuguefe had explored nearly one half of the country, which has fo abfurdly been called New Holland, before the year 1540. But as they found neither fpecies, nor other objects which could intereft them; and perhaps, becaufe the parts difcovered rather feemed to belong to the Spaniards, according to the papal line of demarcation; thefe refearches, though known to the fovereigns and chief navigators of Europe, continued to efcape the notice of the theoretic geographers, who published their lucubrations; and who, in the pedantic fpirit of the times, would rather have explained or diftorted a paffage of fome obfcure ancient, than have recorded the difcovery of a new continent, or contributed to the advancement of knowledge and enterprife. The deplorable bondage under the chains of Ptolemy, the fubjection to the leaden fceptre and Saturnian reign of routine, cannot be better evidenced than by this ftriking inftance, which will ever remain a proof of the want of refearch, and of common talents, among the profoundly learned and profoundly dull authors, who during two centuries ufurped the name and authority of geographers; and whofe works, by an equal routine, were received in all fchools and univerfities, to the great injury of education and of real and practical fcience. Modern geography, which, being infinitely more exact and authentic, ought to be the firft object of ftudy, and followed by the ancient, which can only be juftly efteemed by recent and precise knowledge of the windings of the fhores,

Confufion of
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courses of the rivers, directions and extent of the chains of mountains, was on the contrary postponed to the ancient, and interwoven by way of supplement: a plan which, joined with the miserable arrangement of the topics, rendered confusion more confused, and presented a chaos instead of a world. As one grand object of geography is to illustrate history, it may easily be perceived that the absurdity was precisely equal to that of interweaving the modern history of Italy with that of ancient Rome, or the history of Timur with that of Alexander the Great. While even a man of learning was often embarrassed by the inevitable obscurity arising from this confusion, it may be imagined what effect it had on the minds of youth, to which the most clear, precise, and luminous ideas should be presented; so that they left the schools and universities with a chaotic medley of ancient and modern notions, instead of just and clear conceptions of a science, calculated above all others to interest their minds, and open the temple of universal knowledge. When it is called to remembrance that so late as 1769, D'Anville, whose judgment, sagacity, and long experience of the subject, justly render his decisions of the greatest weight, was the first who completely burst this chain, and treated ancient geography apart, as a distinct branch; the heavy sway of prejudice, the extreme rarity of judgment and sagacity, and the slow progress of practical and legitimate science, are lamentably perceivable. Will it be believed by an enlightened posterity that there still remain some sciolists in his own country, who, to cover their own ignorance, attempt to revive the antiquated method of confounding ancient and modern geography, as by means of this artificial darkness their errors become less apparent?

Not only was Ptolemy blindly followed in Italy, but in other countries; as appears from the system of Ortelius 1570;* and that of Cluverius 1620, which continued to be reprinted till nearly the middle of the eighteenth century, as the sole modern classical system of geography. Cellarius, 1690, began to supersede the use of Cluverius in ancient geography; while little separate systems of the modern began to appear for the use of youth. But as no writer of distinguished talents had arisen, to treat this important branch with the name and dignity of a science, it was merely regarded as a youthful pursuit; and no writer except D'Anville has been quoted by any historian of eminence. Such was the want of judgment and sagacity in these systems, that the great modern discoveries in Asia, far more important than those of America, were merged in the old maps of Agathodemon, and the ancient appellations

* The *Cosmographia* of Sebastian Munster, Basel, 1544, folio, cannot be called a system of geography. The translation by Belleforest, Paris, 1575, 2 vols. folio, is rather curious.

of Ptolemy. The Sinae were extended over all China and Japan; while the Seres occupied all Siberia: and some profound dunces even filled America with the Atlantes! This wide confusion necessarily arose from the mixture of ancient and modern geography, while the former only includes one quarter of the habitable world; and it is a further argument against this mixture, that it can only be attempted with regard to that portion, so that there is a necessary discrepancy in any such system, as one quarter of it must be constructed upon one plan, and the three remaining quarters upon another.

Nevertheless the great Atlas of Blaeu, which began to be published about 1650, and that of Jansson, containing minute and even topographical maps of the various countries then known, are productions of surprising magnificence; and remain unrivalled monuments of the spirit of the publishers, and the opulence of a great commercial country. The exactness of the descriptions in the Latin, French, and Spanish languages, this expensive work being destined for universal sale, the splendour of the decorations, and even the beauty of the colours, which, by a process now apparently lost, retain their original freshness,* render this grand production one of the most singular monuments of literature. To this work the reader may be referred for the knowledge concerning Asia in the middle of the seventeenth century, which he will find extremely imperfect. Nor in tracing the progress of that knowledge, as more immediately and precisely derived from the accurate delineation of maps, which form the chief basis of geography strictly considered, must the Atlas of China, reduced from the operations of the jesuits, and superintended by D'Anville, be forgotten; the previous ideas being vague and inaccurate concerning that vast empire, which includes the third part of the human race, in the highest state of civilization, industry, and prosperity; being solely conducted by men of knowledge and experience, educated for that special purpose, and gradually promoted according to merit; while many states in less enlightened Europe have in all ages fallen, and will continue to fall, because knowledge and merit conferring no power, their affairs are often directed by female caprice, intrigues of courtiers, and the irremediable errors of passion and ignorance.

Another eminent accession to the geography of Asia was the map of the central parts, published by Strahlenberg in 1737. That officer

* The modern colours have been found so perishable that at the *Depot de la Marine* only blue is permitted to be used.

having been sent as a prisoner to Siberia, laudably occupied his leisure in drawing up an account of the surrounding countries, and a map, which gave the first precise ideas concerning the seats of those nations, whose invasions had repeatedly subjugated the eastern half of Europe. The wide extent of Siberia, the courses of the rivers Ob, Yenelei, and Lena, were introduced into geography; and the grand chain of the Uralian mountains first indicated as a natural boundary between Asia and Europe, at least this limit was firmly established, for in the maps to the edition of Cluverius, London 1711, it is hinted, while in the map of Asia the most eastern part of Siberia is called *Syrbia extra Innam*, and the river Paropamisus occupies the place of the Lena; Tangut is at lat. 60°, and Mongulia 68°! Errors of twenty degrees or twelve hundred g. miles! The map of Strahlenberg still remains a curious and valuable monument of the progress of discovery in Asia. The Caspian Sea is probably for the first time, in a general map, laid down in its true form as ascertained by Peter the Great, that is extending from N. to S. while in preceding maps Ptolemy had been followed, who gives the length from E. to W. and there are many other important improvements. But in the eastern extremities, though the Techuks be justly placed, Kamschatka is supposed to be the same with the Land of Jedso, and a large island occupies the place of America. Bering however soon after disclosed the strait which separates the two continents; and the discoveries of Cook and other late English navigators have thrown a steady light over the eastern extremities of Asia, for the Russians being unskillful in the observations of the longitudes, still a most difficult part of the science, they have often introduced confusion instead of precision. The unfortunate La Perouse examined the large island opposite to the mouth of the river Amur, which was found to be far more considerable than formerly laid down; and has lent his name to a strait between that island and the Land of Jesso. As the intention of this memoir is only to commemorate the chief epochs of discovery, the more minute being left for the accounts of the various countries, it is unnecessary to dwell on the improvements of the geography of Siberia or the northern half of Asia, in the maps published by the Russian government; on the Aleutic Isles; the recent rectifications of some positions in Japan and China; the improved geography of the Birman empire, and of various parts of Hindostan, a vast region in which even D'Anville was bewildered, and many gross errors remained till Rennell published his excellent map and memoir, which may justly be said to have laid the first foundations of geography as a science

Recent discoveries.

science in this country. The grand discoveries of Dampier, the immortal Cook, and other navigators, English and foreign, in Australasia and Polynesia, are not included in the present design; as in this system these divisions of the globe, though more strictly connected with Asia than with any other region, and therefore arranged by some among the Asiatic islands, are considered as portions of a new denomination, (for names must be accommodated to nature, and not nature to names,) being **MARITIME**, but rivalling the **TERRENE** in extent; so that to arrange them under prior denominations, established before they were explored, would be to persist in a confusion destructive of clear ideas and accurate knowledge, which can only be obtained by a proper and judicious arrangement of the objects of any science.

It now therefore only remains briefly to mention the deficiencies, which still obstruct the geography of Asia. Proceeding in the natural course, from the west and the confines of Europe, it is well known that, though Beauchamp have somewhat improved the hydrography of the Caspian shores, yet the interior of Asia Minor, which D'Anville has justly represented as one of the most difficult objects of geography, presents an ample and illustrious scene of research to the geographic traveller. The eastern part of Asiatic Turkey remains in considerable obscurity; and the large and interesting region of Persia presents a thousand doubts and difficulties, both in regard to the ancient and modern geography.* The researches of Niebuhr only illustrate a small portion of Arabia; and the map of D'Anville is far from being perfect. Of Independent Tatory, or the wide and interesting countries on the east of the Caspian, our knowledge is more often conjectural than exact: and the same observation may be applied to Tibet, or by the indigenal appellation Butan, where the sources of the Ganges in particular remain a celebrated object of research; and the map of the lamas, so often contradictory to recent discovery, begins to lose all credit. The admeasurement of the height of some of the mountains by Colonel Crawford, who found the highest to surpass the Andes, exceeding twenty-five thousand feet above the level of the sea, bears every mark of exactness; but though I saw the detail of the observations, I do not wish to forestall the public curiosity, but only to announce his valuable labours. To the north of Tibet, Little Bucharua and the western part

* It is to be regretted that the excellent traveller Chardin paid no attention to geography. M. Chardin of Paris informed me that he had the original manuscript, from which he intended to print a new edition, as the best, that of Holland, had been mutilated in many passages by a kind of licenter of the press, a Calvinistic clergyman, who sourly effaced any freedom in the description of manners, which did not correspond with his fanatical notions. It is pleasing to reflect that nature is of no sect.

of Mongolia, remain in such obscurity, that even D'Anville is obliged to borrow from Marco Polo; while the travels of the emperor of China, reported by the jesuits in his train, leave little to wish for the eastern parts of Mongolia, and nearly the whole of Manshuria. The northern parts of the Birman empire, the kingdom of Laos, and the interior provinces of the island of Borneo, may also be mentioned; though of the latter a large map may be found in the work of Valentyn, which contributed greatly to increase the precise knowledge of Asia, but being written in a language little studied, and in a prolix and uninviting form, it seems to have escaped even the general knowledge of D'Anville, but is not a little interesting in a scientific library, as it evinces, among many other examples, that geography is often retrograde, and, like the ocean, loses in one part what it gains in another. It is however to be hoped that, by indicating the sources of information, there may be little future danger of retrogression.

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MODERN GEOGRAPHY.

HAVING thus given a description sufficiently ample, as is presumed, of Europe, the most interesting portion of the globe, that of the remaining three quarters shall be now pursued at a proportionate extent. Of some parts of America, and the vast central regions of Africa, little is known: but Asia presents a more extensive theme, and teems with scenes of important events in ancient and modern history.

A S I A.

THIS great division of the earth extends, in length, from the Hellespont to what is called the East Cape; that is from about the 26° of longitude, east from London, into the other hemisphere to near 190 degrees of east longitude, or 170° west from London; being no less than 164° or (taking the degree at a medial latitude) more than 6500 geographical miles. From the southern cape of Malacca to the cape of Cevero Vostochnoi, which braves the ice of the Arctic ocean, the breadth extends from about 2° of northern latitude to about 77°, or nearly 4500 geographical miles. If, for the sake of a rude and merely comparative calculation, one sixth part be added for the difference between the statute and geographical mile, the length of Asia in British miles would be about 7583: and the breadth 5250.

VOL. II.

B

OF

MODERN

EXTENT.

Of the vast extent of Asia the ancients entertained most indistinct ideas; and in fact the discovery of this great division of the world may be said to have commenced with the travels of Marco Polo, the Venetian, in the end of the thirteenth century; and it was not completed, with regard to the eastern extremities, till the recent travels were published in Russia, and the voyages of Bering, Cook, and La Perouse. It is now well known that Asia is limited, on the east, by a strait which divides it from America; and which in honour of the discoverer is called Bering's strait. The northern and southern boundaries are the Arctic and Indian oceans, in which last many large islands, particularly that of New Holland, now more classically and properly styled by some *Australasia*,* afford a vast additional extent to this quarter of the globe. The western limits of Asia have already been discussed in the account of the eastern limits of Europe. It may however be added, that the small river Karposka which rises near Sarepta, and falls into the Don, may be regarded as a boundary between Asia and Europe. †

Original Population.

The population of Asia is by all authors allowed to be wholly primitive and original; if we except that of the Techuks or Tchuktchi, who, by the Russian travellers and Mr. Tooke, are supposed to have passed from the opposite coast of America. A few colonies have migrated from Russia to the northern parts, as far as the sea of Kamtchatka: and there are well known European settlements in Hindostan and the isles to the S. E.; but the first serious attempt to colonize what is esteemed a part of Asia was the recent settlement at Port Jackson. With these and other trifling exceptions Asia presents a prodigious original population, as may be judged from the following table, which will be found more clear than any prolix discussion on the subject.

LINNÆAN TABLE OF THE NATIONS AND LANGUAGES IN ASIA.

<i>Ordo.</i>	<i>Genus.</i>	<i>Species.</i>
I. Assyrians.	Assyrians. Arabians. Egyptians.	Chaldee. Hebrew, &c.
II. Scythians.	Persians. Scythians <i>intra et extra Imaum, &c.</i>	Armenians. †

* More briefly *Notasia*, from the Greek, as from them we receive the name of Asia: and in such new terms the Grecian language is justly and properly preferred.

† See Pallas's Travels. Atlas, plate v. Paris, 1792.

‡ The Parfi and Zend are cognate with the Gothic, Greek, Latin, according to Sir William Jones. Indian Dissert. vol. i. p. 206. The Pehlavi is Assyrian or Chaldaic. Id. 127, 188, 206.

<i>Ordo.</i>	<i>Genus.</i>	<i>Species.</i>	ORIGINAL POPULATION.
III. Sarmatae.	Medes. Parthians.	Georgians. Circassians.	
IV. { Seres. Indi.	Hindoos.	Northern and Southern, &c.	
V. Sinae.	Chinese. Japanese.	•	
Barbaric nations from north to south, and according to the degrees of barbarism.			
VI. Samoeds.	Ostiacs, Yurals, &c.		
VII. Yakuts.	Yukagirs.	(Expelled Tartars, according to Tooke and Lesséps.)	
VIII. Koriacs.	Techuks or Tchuktchi.	†	
IX. Kamchadals.	Kurillians.	‡	
X. Mandshurs or Tunguese.	Lamuts.	(Ruling people in China.)	
XI. Monguls.	Kalmucs.	Soongars. Torguts. Burats, &c.	
XII. Tartars or Huns. §	Turks. Khafars. Uses. Siberians.	Ngays. Bashkirs. Kirgules or Kaisaks. Teleuts.	

Besides these numerous original nations, the Malays and Asiatic islanders constitute another large and distinct class of mankind, with a peculiar speech, in the south of the extensive continent of Asia.

The

• These have a Tataric form and face: they are probably highly civilized Tartars, Monguls, or Mandshurs.

† From the opposite coast of America. Tooke's Russia. The Yukagirs are a tribe of the YAKUTS (around Yakutsk), and both are expelled Tartars. Tooke's View, ii. 80. Lesséps, ii. 312.

‡ These resemble the Japanese.

§ After the destruction of Attila's swarms, and the effects of unfortunate inroads, the Huns became subject to the Monguls, who, under Zingis or Genghis-Khan, Timur, &c. constituted the supreme nation in Asia.

The great share of population which Europe has received from Asia will appear from the following little table:

PRIMÆVAL INHABITANTS.		
<i>Ordo.</i>	<i>Genus.</i>	<i>Species.</i>
I. Celts.	Irish. Welsh. Armorican.	Erse, Manks. Cornish.
II. Fins (chief god <i>Yum-mala</i>).	Finlanders. Esthonians. Hungarians.	Permians or Biarmians. Livonians. Votiacs and Chermiffes. Voguls and Ostiacs.

B 2

COLONIES

most indistinct of the world may to Polo, the Venetian not completed, travels were published and La Perouse. by a strait which the discoverer is boundaries are the islands, particularly styled by some center of the globe. and in the account added, that the rivers into the Don, be. †

the wholly primitive Tchuktchi, who, to have passed and migrated from Alaska: and there the isles to the esteemed a part With these and original population, be found more

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Ordo.

The progressive geography of this quarter of the globe might afford an important and interesting subject of discussion, if treated at due length, as embracing the various discoveries which, at long intervals of time, successively disclosed its vast extent. The most authentic information concerning the knowledge of the ancients is to be found in the geography of Ptolemy; but modern commentators differ in the elucidation of his text. The extreme points of discovery mentioned by Ptolemy are, towards the Indian Ocean, the town of Sina; and, inland, in the parallel of the south of the Caspian, Sera, the metropolis of the Seres. That able geographer D'Anville has expressed his opinion, concerning Sina, in the following terms:

“The oriental geographers, to whom the country of the Sines must have been well known, comprise its capital in the zone of the first climate; which rising to twenty degrees and a half does not extend to China: but by an extravagant error *Sinarum Metropolis* has been applied to Nañ-kin in the thirty-second degree. The imperial rank of the last mentioned city, to which it did not attain till towards the close of the fourth century, could not have caused it to be thus distinguished by Ptolemy, who lived under the Antonines, about two ages before. The Chinese do not acknowledge the name that we have given to their nation. They are fond of borrowing for the purpose of distinction, the name of some dynasties, whose memory is precious to them: and above all, from that of Hañ, which commenced two hundred and some years before the Christian æra, they denominate themselves Hañ-ngiñ,

COLONIES FROM ASIA.

III. Scythians or Goths (<i>Odin</i>).	Icelanders, Norwegians. Swedes, Danes. Germans. English.	Swiss, Frisic. Flemish, Dutch.
IV. Sarmats or Slavons (<i>Perun</i>).	Poles. Russians. Kossacs.	Heruli. Vendi. Lettes.

The inhabitants of France, Italy, and Spain are also of Asiatic origin; and speak corrupted Roman, which, like the Greek, is a polished dialect of the Gothic, according to Sir William Jones, and other able antiquaries. The Heruli, Wends, and Lettes, used mixed and imperfect dialects of the Slavonic. *Critical Review*, vol. xxvii. p. 129.

or the people of Hañ; and by an idea which they have of the most advantageous situation of their country, they name it Tchon-koué or the middle kingdom. But the name of Sines is preserved in that of Cochin-China, which, without the alteration that it has suffered on the part of Europeans, is Kao-tfii-Sin. The Arabs have found the name of Sin in the country where Ptolemy knew the Sinæ. The name of Singi, which the Indians as well as the Arabs give to the sea which involves this country, is a derivation from the same name. This name of Siñ has followed the progress of navigation and commerce, beyond the true limits of the ancient country of Siñ; having been extended by the Portuguese, who preceded the other western nations in these remote longitudes, and become common among those which have followed. And that the country of Sinæ ought not to be transported to China, as it appears in all the maps which have preceded those of the author of the present work, is an article in ancient geography which may justify the foregoing discussion.

“The capital of the Sinæ is named Thynæ by Ptolemy; and according to the Latin version, which is regarded as a text, Sinæ. Its position appears at a distance from the sea, at the mouth of a river named Cotiaris, having communication on the left with another river, whose name was Senus. This then can be no other than the great river of Camboja; which, eighty leagues above its mouth, divides into two branches. The principal, or that of the right, corresponding with the Cotiaris, and which is called the Japanese river, conducts to a city of which the Arabian geographers speak as being very celebrated for its commerce under the name of Loukin; and this position appears to answer to that of Thinxæ in Ptolemy. But the city of the Sinæ, named Siñ by the Arabian geographers, and in the Chinese memoirs Teheñ-teheñ, is a position more remote than Loukin, and is found distinguished by the name of Siñ-hoa, as having been the most flourishing city of Cochin-China, before its port was destroyed by alluvions of sand. The name of Thoñ-hoa, which its district bears, seems, together with the other circumstances reported, to favour the application of the name of Thinxæ to this city also. Thinxæ is mentioned diversely in many authors of antiquity. But what cannot have a place here will

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be found in a memoir, contained in vol. xxxii. of the Memoirs of the Academy, on the limits of the world known to the ancients beyond the Ganges."¹

So far this industrious geographer, whose reasoning must, at the first glance, be pronounced to be vague and inconclusive. Nor has he been able to avoid that rock upon which many geographical theories have split, the attempt to trace ancient appellations by modern names: while the latter, though bearing even strong resemblance, may be very recent, and have no connexion whatever with the ancient etymon. The opinion of D'Anville has since been ably controverted by Gossellin;² who seems to demonstrate that the Golden Chersonese of Ptolemy is the southern part of the kingdom of Pegu, not Malacca as D'Anville supposed; and that the capital of the Sinæ is Tanaferim in the west of the country of Siam. In this Gossellin seems well founded; though in a later work he certainly has too much restricted the knowledge of the ancients concerning Africa.

With regard to the other extreme position, that of Sera, while D'Anville ridicules the idea of transporting it to Pekin, he himself seems to have placed it too much to the east, when he infers, from very vague circumstances, that it is Can-Tcheou, a town of Tangut, now comprized in the Chinese province of Shen-si. There can on the contrary be little doubt, from the aspect of Ptolemy's maps, that his Serica is the country now called Little Bucharìa. Nor is there any reason to believe that the ancients had ever passed the great desert of Cobi. His Scythia beyond the mountains of Imaus, or Belur Tag, is by himself restricted to a *narrow stripe* on the east of these mountains; and seems now to correspond with the mountainous districts on the west and north of Little Bucharìa.

From this discussion it will appear that not above one quarter of Asia was known to the ancients; and this knowledge was little increased till Marco Polo, whose travels became well known in Europe in the beginning of the fourteenth century, established a memorable epoch in geography, by passing to China, and disclosing the extent of that coun-

¹ D'Anville, Ancient Geography, p. 563. London, 1791. 8vo.

² Geographie des Grecs analysée. Paris, 1790. 4to.

try, the islands of Japan, and a faint intelligence of other regions, illustrated and confirmed by recent accounts. The wide conquests of the famous Zingis, in the beginning of the thirteenth century, first opened the discovery of the distant parts of Asia, the Monguls, whose sovereign he was, being situated to the east of the Huns, who had before diffused terror over Europe. The first seat of the Monguls was in the mountains which give source to the river Onon; and at a short distance to the S. W. was Kara-kum, the first capital of the Mongul empire. The victories of Zingis extended from Cathay, or the northern part of China, to the river Indus; and his successors extended them over Russia, while their inroads reached Hungary and Germany. This widely diffused power of the Monguls naturally excited an attention and curiosity, never stimulated by a number of petty barbaric tribes; and at the same time facilitated the progress of the traveller, who, as in Africa at present, had been formerly impeded by the enmities of diminutive potentates. By force of arms the Monguls also first opened the obscure recesses of Siberia. Sheibani Khan, A. D. 1242, led a horde of 15,000 families into those northern regions; and his descendants reigned at Tobolskoy above three centuries till the Russian conquest. Two European travellers, Carpini and Rubruquis, were commissioned to inspect the power and resources of the new empire of the Monguls; the latter found at Kara-kum a Parisian goldsmith, employed in the service of the Khan; and by Carpini's relation it appears, that, from their brethren in Siberia the Monguls had received some intelligence concerning the Samoieds.

Thus the discovery of Asia, which had been nearly dormant since the time of Ptolemy, began to revive in the thirteenth century. Yet after the publication of Marco Polo's travels little was done for two centuries; and the authenticity of his accounts even began to be questioned.* One man indeed, of great mental powers, was impressed with their veracity, and in consequence accomplished a memorable enterprise. This was Christoval Colon, or as we call him Christopher Co-

* Gibbon, xi. 424.

* From the map of the world by Andrea Bianco the Venetian, 1440, it sufficiently appears that the discoveries of Polo had, even in his native country, been rather diminished than increased. See Formaleoni, Saggio sulla Nautica Antica dei Veneziani. Ven. 1783. 8vo. See also the description of Asia by Pope Pius II, who does not appear even to have seen the travels of Polo.

lumbus,

lumbus, who was led by the relation of Polo to conceive that, as Asia extended so far to the east, its shores might be reached by a short navigation from the western extremity of Europe. In this erroneous idea, when that great man discovered the islands now called the West-Indies, he thought that he had arrived at the Zipango of Polo, or Japan; and thus the name of India was absurdly bestowed on those new regions.

After the discovery of America and the Cape of Good Hope, the maritime parts and islands of Asia were successively disclosed. Yet the recent voyages of the Russian navigators, of our immortal Cook, and of the unfortunate La Perouse, evince that much remained to be done; and concerning the interior of Siberia scarcely any solid information arose, till Peter the Great, after the battle of Pultowa, sent many Swedish prisoners into that region; and Strahlenberg, one of the officers, published an account of Siberia. This knowledge was greatly improved and increased by the well known journies of Pallas, and others. Yet our knowledge of Asia is far from being perfect, especially in respect to Daouria, and other regions near the confines between the Russian and Chinese empires; not to mention central Asia in general, Tibbet or Tibet, and some more southern regions; nor had even the geography of Hindostan been treated with tolerable accuracy till Major Rennell published his excellent map and memoir. It is almost unnecessary to remind the reader of the recent discoveries to the south of Asia, in which the interior, and southern coast, of New Holland remain to be explored: with other defects of smaller consequence. But while many improvements are wanted in the geography of several European countries, it is no wonder there should be great deficiencies in that of the other quarters of the globe.

The importance of the subject will excuse the length of these remarks on the progressive geography of Asia, than which no part of the science can be more justly interesting; from the vast extent of that portion of the globe; from the great variety of nations, civilized and barbarous, by whom it is peopled; and from its intimate connexion with the destinies of Europe, which it has frequently overawed, while the savage tribes of Africa and America can never become formidable to European arts or happiness.

The religions of Asia are various, and will be illustrated in the accounts RELIGIONS. of the several countries. The climate also admits of every variety, from the equator to the arctic sea.

Though Asia cannot vie with Europe in the advantages of inland Seas. seas, yet, in addition to a share of the Mediterranean, it possesses the Red Sea, the Arabian Sea, and gulph of Persia; the bays of Bengal and Nankin; and other gulphs, which diversify the coasts much more than those of Africa or America, and have doubtless contributed greatly to the early civilisation of this celebrated division of the earth.

The Red Sea, or the Arabian gulph of antiquity, constitutes the grand Red Sea. natural division between Asia and Africa; but its advantages have chiefly been felt by the latter, which is entirely destitute of other inland seas; Egypt and Abyssinia, two of the most civilised countries in that division, having derived great benefits from that celebrated gulph, which from the straits of Babelmandeb to Suez extends about 21°, or 1470 British miles; terminating not in two equal branches, as delineated in old maps, but in an extensive western branch, while the eastern ascends a little beyond the parallel of Mount Sinai.

The Persian gulph is another noted inland sea, about half the length of the former, being the grand receptacle of those celebrated rivers the Euphrates and the Tigris.

The other gulphs do not afford such strong features of what are properly termed inland seas; if the Euxine be excepted, which has already been briefly described in the general survey of Europe.* But the vast extent of Asia contains seas totally detached, and of a different description from any that occur in Europe, or other quarters of the globe. Such is the Caspian sea, extending about 10° or 700 miles in length, Caspian. and from 100 to 200 in breadth. Strabo and Pliny idly supposed this sea to be a gulph, extending from the northern ocean; while Herodotus, many centuries before, had expressed more just ideas. Yet the Caspian seems at one period to have spread further to the north, where the deserts are still sandy and saline, and present the same shells that are

* The form of the Euxine has been greatly improved, from recent observation, in Mr. Arrowsmith's maps; the breadth from the southern cape of Crimea to the opposite Asiatic promontories being found to be far less than formerly supposed.

SEAS.

found in the Caspian: but the chain of mountains which branches from the west of the Urals to the north of Orenburg, and reaches to the Volga, must, in all ages, have restricted the northern bounds of the Caspian.* To the east this remarkable sea, in the opinion of most geographers, extended at no very remote period to the lake of Aral; the deserts on that side presenting the same features as those to the north, though there be now an elevated level between the sea of Aral and the Caspian, occasioned perhaps by the quantity of sand rolled down by the Gihon, the Sirr, and other rivers which now flow into the sea of Aral. The northern shores are low and swampy, often overgrown with reeds; but in many other parts the coasts are precipitous, with such deep water that a line of 450 fathom will not reach the bottom. This sea is the receptacle of many important rivers, as the Jemba, the Ural or Jaik, and the Volga from the north: the Kuma, Terek, Kur, and Kizil Ozen from the west: those from the south are of small moment; but from the east the Caspian is supposed still to receive the Tedjen; and the Gihon, or Oxus of antiquity, flowed into the Caspian, at least by one or two branches, till it bent northward and joined the Sea of Aral. Besides herrings, salmon, and other fish, with porpuses and seals, this sea produces sterlet, and great numbers of excellent sturgeon; which last in particular ascend the Volga, and supply kaviar and other articles of exportation. The birds most generally seen are storks, herons, bitterns, spoon-bills, with many others; particularly a kind of heron of a pure white, while the tips of the wings, the beak and feet are scarlet.† The best haven in the Caspian is that of Baku: that of Derbent is rocky, and that of Enfil, or Sinfil, not commodious, though one of the chief ports of trade.

Aral.

About 100 miles to the East of the Caspian, is the sea or lake of Aral, which is about 200 miles in length, and about 70 miles in breadth; receiving the river anciently called Iaxartes, more recently the Sirr or Sihon, and the river Gihon, the Oxus of antiquity: both streams of

* See Pallas, VII. 214. The mountains of Ohtschei Sirt, between the Volga and the Jaik, which are a continuation of the Uralian chain, present horizontal beds, and the shells of the Caspian are found no further to the north.

† Tooke's View of the Russian empire, i. 239.

considerable course, flowing from the mountains of Belur 'Tag or Imaus. ^{SEAS.}
The sea of Aral being surrounded with sandy deserts, has, been little explored; but it is salt like the Caspian, and there are many small saline lakes in the vicinity.

Another remarkable detached sea is that of Baikal in Siberia, or Asiatic ^{Baikal.}
Russia, extending from about the fifty-first to the fifty-fifth degree of north latitude, being about 350 British miles in length, but its greatest breadth not above 35. The water is fresh and transparent, yet of a green or sea tinge, commonly frozen in the latter end of December, and clear of ice in May. The Baikal is, at particular periods, subject to violent and unaccountable storms, whence, as terror is the parent of superstition, probably springs the Russian name of Svetoie Morè, or the Holy Sea.' There are many seals, and abundance of fish, particularly a kind of herring called omuli. Several islands appear, and that of Olchon has sulphureous springs. The chief river flowing into the Baikal is the Selinga, from the south; while from the north it emits the Angara, which joins the prodigious stream of the Yenisei.

Of the other Asiatic seas a minute account would be superfluous; but a few observations may be offered on the remarkable strait which divides Asia from America. This strait, which was discovered by Bering and afterwards by Cook, is about 13 leagues, or near 40 miles in breadth. Bering, a Dane, was employed by Peter the Great in 1728, and actually passed this strait, probably in the usual fogs of the climate, without discovering land to the east; but our great navigator gave the name of the Danish adventurer to these straits, when he afterwards explored them with his usual accuracy.⁵ On the Asiatic shore is the East Cape; and on the American that called Prince of Wales. The depth of the strait is from 12 to 30 fathoms. To the north of these straits the Asiatic shore tends rapidly to the westward; while the American proceeds nearly in a northern direction, till, at the distance of about four or five degrees, the continents are joined by solid and impenetrable bonds of ice.

⁵ Tooke's View, i. 141.

⁶ Pennant, Arc. Zool. clxxvix. See Müller's Voyages et Decouvertes des Russes. Amst. 1766, 2 vols. 12mo. Vitus Bering had passed to the service of Peter the Great, in 1707, and died on the 8th of December 1741, having discovered the American capes, Elias and St. Hermogenes, vol. i. 142. 254. 256.

SEAS. In the Asiatic seas there are numerous shoals, or sand banks; but few of them have been described as conducive to human industry.

RIVERS. The chief rivers of Asia are the Kian Ku and Hoan Ho, the Lena, the Yenisei, and the Ob, streams which rival in the length of their course any others on the globe. The Volga has been named among the rivers of Europe, to which the principal part of its course belongs. Next in consequence are the Amur, and the Maykaung of Laos, if the course be rightly delineated, the Sampoo or Burrampooter, and the Ganges; compared with all which the Euphrates and Indus hide their diminished heads. A more particular account of these rivers will be given under the respective regions.

Mountains. The Asiatic mountains are said not to equal the European in height. The Uralian chain, forming a boundary of Europe, has been already described. The Altaian chain may be classed among the most extensive on the globe, reaching from about the seventieth to the hundred and fortieth degree of longitude east from London, or about 5000 miles, thus rivalling in length the Andes of S. America. But as chains of mountains rarely receive uniform appellations, except from nations highly civilized, the Altaian chain, beyond the sources of the Yenisei, is called the mountains of Sayansk; and from the south of the sea of Baikal the mountains of Yablonnoy: branches of which extend even to the country of the Teckuks, or extreme boundaries of Asia. To the south of the Altaian ridge extends the elevated desert of Cobi or Shamo, running in a parallel direction from the east to west; and the high region of Tibet may be included in this central prominence of Asia. The chain of Alak may perhaps be regarded as a part of the Altaian, branching to the south, while the Taurus, now known by various names in different countries, was by the ancients regarded as a range of great length, reaching from cape Kelidoni on the west of the gulph of Satalia, through Armenia, even to India: but this last chain has not impressed modern travellers with the same idea of its extent.* Other

* See Pliny, lib. v. c. 27, who says that the Imaur, the Emodus, and the mountains running through the centre of Persia, including the Niphates of Armenia, and even the Caucasus itself, are all parts of the Tausian chain, which thence spreads S. W. along the Mediterranean. But this great southern chain is unknown to modern geography, and seems rather theoretical in reducing mountains of various directions to one series. The northern chain of Natolia was called Anti Taurus by the ancients.

considerable

considerable ranges of mountains are Bogdo, Changai, Belur, those of MOUNTAINS.
Tiber, the eastern and western Gaults of Hindostan; and the Caucasian
chain between the Euxine and Caspian; all which will be afterwards
more particularly described.

The Asiatic governments are almost universally despotic, and the very
idea of a commonwealth seems to be unknown. The mildest systems
are perhaps those found in Arabia.

In arranging the extensive states of Asia, according to their popu-
lation and relative consequence, the first and chief rank, beyond all
comparison, must be assigned to the Chinese empire. But that pro-
digious domination being estranged from Europe, and having in no
age exerted the smallest influence on its destinies, it seems preferable, in
this instance, first to consider two powerful states, intimately blended
with European policy. The Turkish empire in Asia constitutes a na-
tural and easy transition from the description of Europe; and the Russian
empire, though in population far inferior, yet in military and political
force transcends that of China.

From the Russian empire in Asia the transition is easy to that of
China, a bordering state; after which shall be described Japan, and a
new great power, the Birman empire. Hindostan and Persia being
now divided into several distinct sovereignties, and Arabia containing
many independent states, the scale of political importance becomes
transitive and indistinct; and may justly yield in such cases to mere
geographical arrangement. Hence the smaller states of India beyond
the Ganges, or between Hindostan and China, will follow the Birman
empire, to which, or to China, they may perhaps soon be subjected:
A western progress leads to Hindostan, Persia, and Arabia: and a short
account of the various interesting and important islands in the Indian,
and in the Pacific, oceans, will close this grand department of the work..

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TURKEY IN ASIA.

CHAPTER I.

HISTORICAL GEOGRAPHY.

Extent.—Boundaries.—Original Population.—Progressive Geography.—Historical Epochs and Antiquities.

EXTENT.

THIS region extends from the shores of the Egean sea, or Archipelago, to the confines of Persia; a space of about 1050 British miles. The boundaries towards Persia are rather ideal than natural, though somewhat marked by the mountains of Ararat and Elwend. In the north the Turkish territories are now divided from the Russian by the river Cuban, and the chain of Caucasus; in the south they extend to the junction of the Tigris and the Euphrates, which last river, for a considerable space, divides the Turkish possessions from those of the Arabs. From the river Cuban to the junction of the Tigris and Euphrates, may be about 1100 British miles.

This extensive territory, which in itself would constitute an empire, could it resume its pristine population, is divided into nine or ten provinces. Natolia, the most westerly, is followed by Karaman in the south; and Roum in the north east. To the north of Armenia are Guria, or Guriel, Mingrelia, and the Abkhas of Caucasus, the ancient Circassians. Armenia is also styled Turcomania; to the south of which are Kurdistan, and Irak Arabi, a part of ancient Persia around the

celebrated capital, Bagdad. The ancient Mesopotamia, between the Tigris and the Euphrates, now partly corresponds with the province of Algezira; and the classical name of Syria or Soria is still allotted to the celebrated countries along the eastern extremities of the Mediterranean. Some of these provinces are of comparatively recent acquisition; Bagdad having belonged to Persia till 1638; while on the contrary Erivan, reconquered by the Persians in 1635, has remained free from the Turkish domination.

EXTENT.

These provinces are subdivided into governments, arbitrarily administered by Pashas, a detail of which would afford little satisfaction, especially in the present declining state of the Turkish empire.

The original population of these regions consisted chiefly of Scythic nations, mingled with a few Assyrians from the south. But a complete illustration of this subject would be foreign to the nature of this work. At present the ruling language is the Turkish, next to which may be placed the modern Greek; but the Arabic, Syrian, Persian, and Armenian, with various dialects used by the tribes on the Black sea, indicate the diversity of population.

Original Population.

The progressive geography may be traced from the remotest antiquity to modern times; but Turkish barbarism has prevented the precision of recent knowledge from adding complete illustration to the geography of this part of Asia.

Progressive Geography.

The chief epochs of Turkish history have already been mentioned, in describing their European possessions. Armenia and Georgia were subdued by the Turks in the eleventh century, and the whole of Asia Minor rapidly followed. Their kingdom of Roum extended from the Euphrates to Constantinople, and from the Black sea to the confines of Syria. Successive warlike princes acquired additional territory from the Mamaluks of Egypt, and the Persians. Syria, formerly an appanage of Egypt, was conquered by Selim II in 1516; Tauris and Diarbekr, which last had formerly belonged to Persia, were subdued by the same monarch; and in 1589 Abbas, the great sovereign of Persia, was obliged to yield three provinces to the Ottomans, though he extended his conquests to the east; and Bagdad, as already mentioned,

Historical Epochs.

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HISTORICAL EPOCHS. tioned, with the surrounding province of Irak Arabi, became subject to the Turks in 1638. The present limits seem to have been fixed by the treaty between the Porte and Persia, 1736: since which period the Turks have been chiefly occupied in their own defence against the Russians; but their ascendancy over Persia had been such, that in 1727 they had acquired the territory from Erivan to Tauris, or Tebriz, and thence to Hamadan, a boundary which seems indeed more precisely, marked by nature than the present.

Antiquities. The antiquities of Asiatic Turkey, once the chosen seat of the arts are numerous, and important, but have been so repeatedly described as to have become trivial themes, even to the general reader. The splendid publications by the society of Dilettanti, and the descriptions of Balbec and Palmyra, will convey a more just idea of those august remains than the most elaborate description. The most splendid ruins are those of Palmyra, or Tadmor in the desert, about 150 miles to the S. E. of Aleppo, at the northern extremity of the sandy wastes of Arabia. It is conceived, with some probability, that the sands must here have encroached upon a territory formerly fertile; but as there is no river the situation remains equally surprising, for a capital of such opulence. It is now understood that this city owed its splendour to the Indian trade, conducted by caravans to the mercantile shores of Syria.

Balbec, the ancient Heliopolis, is about 50 miles to the N. W. of Damascus; the most remarkable ruin being that of a temple, supposed to have been dedicated to the sun.

Recent investigation has disclosed another remarkable scene of antiquities, in the site and celebrated plain of Troy, which have been exhibited by Mr. Morritt, and other travellers, with laudable zeal for classical lore. The Simois is now demonstrated to be a considerable stream, which runs into the Hellespont, nearly opposite to the New Castles constructed under the order of Tott. The Scamander, which formerly flowed into the western side of the Simois, having been diverted by the Romans into a different channel, this unnoted circumstance not a little baffled antiquarian research. The tombs of remote antiquity having been constructed like the large barrows of our an-

cestors, in the lasting form of small hills, they withstood the assaults of time, or avarice; and our travellers indicate, with some plausibility, that of Hector, behind the site of Troy; those of Achilles, and Patroclus on the shore; and a few others of the Homeric heroes.*

HISTORICAL
EPOCHS.

* See Morritt's vindication of Homer, &c. 1798, 4to; Dallaway's Constantinople; and Dalzell's translation of Chevalier's memoir. The map of Dallaway is inferior to that of Morritt, but adds a few modern names. A curious general map of the Troad, Hellespont, &c. may be found in the edition of the *Voyage d'Anacharsis*, Paris, An. vii. 1799, drawn up by Barbié du Bocage, from a drawing of the plain of Troy taken in 1786, by the direction of the Count Choiseul Gouffier, and of the coasts in 1785-6-7 by Truguet. This last excellent map perfectly corresponds with that of Morritt, except that the latter supposes the Thymbrius to join the Simois from the north; and the former from the south. There is yet wanted an exact translation, with notes, of the long description by Strabo; and a comparative map arranged solely according to that description. Du Bocage observes, p. 67, that in his opinion new Ilium held the very site of ancient Troy, as Strabo says it stood upon a height, which corresponds with the hill of Bounar-Bachi. The rivulet of Kirké-Keuzler, he agrees is the Scamander of Homer; but supposes that the new settlers applied that name to the larger river, or Simois of Homer, which rises near the summit of Ida, and is now called Menderé-Sou. The second Volume of the *Voyage Pittoresque de la Grèce*, by M. Choiseul, is about to appear. As M. Chevalier was employed by M. Choiseul, and made use of a memoir printed under his eye, it is literary justice to restore this curious discovery to its real author.

CHAPTER II.

Population, &c.

MANY of the topics assigned to this chapter have been already treated in the description of European Turkey. The Turkish empire in Asia is estimated at 470,400 square miles; and the population at ten millions; which, allowing eight for the European part, will render the total 18,000,000. Geographers have, contrary to the united voice of travellers, considered Egypt as a Turkish province: while in fact it was only occasionally tributary, and was subject to the military aristocracy of the Beys. Some of the maritime Mahometan powers have likewise assisted the Porte with ships in time of war; but cannot with any justice be regarded as subject to the Ottoman sceptre. The population of these African states is therefore foreign to the present consideration.

CHAPTER III.

CIVIL GEOGRAPHY.

Manners and Customs.—Language.—Literature.—Education.—Universities.—Cities and Towns.—Edifices.—Roads.—Inland Navigation.—Manufactures and Commerce.

THE manners and customs of the Turks have been briefly described in the former volume; but the Asiatic character is deeply impressed upon the subject nations. So lax is the government that hords of banditti carry on their depredations almost within sight of the capital. Near Erzeron Tournefort found encampments of Kurds.¹ In the summer the Kurds pass from Mousoul to the sources of the Euphrates; and they are never punished either for robbery or murder. They are a pastoral people, conducting their herds from one country to another; and in the time of that traveller they extended as far west as Tokat; where other hords, those of the Turcomans, began to appear.* The Armenians, though they profess the Christian faith, retain many singular manners and customs; but they are described as a sensible and polite people, and the chief conductors of the Levant trade, for which office they are singularly qualified by frugality and enterprize. They embrace the Eutychiean persuasion, which only admits one nature in Jesus Christ; a tenet which renders them irreconcilable enemies of the Greeks.

MANNERS
AND
CUSTOMS.

¹ ii. 199.

* See Volney, i. 369, who says that the language of the Turcomans is the same with that of the Turks, but the mode of life nearly similar to that of the wandering Arabs. Their property consists in sheep, with some goats, camels, and buffaloes. He seems to acquit the Turcomans of the charge of robbery.

MANNERS
AND
CUSTOMS.

The Druzes, a remarkable people of Syria, have attracted the observation of many writers. Though they affect the exterior appearance of Mahometans, yet they seem to have little or no religion; but even among them there are sects, who do not accord in the modes of disbelief. According to Volney, they practise neither circumcision, prayers, nor fasting; they observe neither festivals nor prohibitions. They drink wine, eat pork, and allow marriage between brothers and sisters, though not between fathers and children. Near Antioch there is said to be a sect, which professes some of the most dissolute tenets of paganism. The Maronites are christians, who acknowledge the superiority of the Roman church, but have many minute peculiarities.

In the northern extremities of Asiatic Turkey, there are also many tribes who have adopted singular manners and customs. Six or seven languages are spoken in the country between the Euxine, and the Caspian.¹ The Abkhas are, by the Circassians, called Kush-Hafsi, which implies a people beyond the mountains: they retain some traces of christianity. The Tcherkess, or Circassians, occupy an extensive territory, and might become formidable if they were united. Part of the Circassians is now subject to Russia; but little alteration can have taken place in their manners. The princes cannot possess lands: the nobles are chosen by the princes from the vassals, or third class. Public measures are proposed by the prince, and debated by the nobles and deputies of the people, on a spot destined for this purpose, near the royal residence. The agriculture of the Circassians barely suffices for their own consumption; but they export sheep, and horses, and the slaves taken in their predatory excursions. The beauty of the Circassian women having been so much vaunted, the following extract from a recent and authentic author, may perhaps interest the reader.²

“Girls are brought up by the mother. They learn to embroider, to make their own dress, and that of their future husbands. The daughters of slaves receive the same education; and are sold according to their beauty, from twenty to one hundred pounds, and sometimes much higher. These are principally Georgians. Soon after the birth

¹ Ellis's Memoir, p. 14.

² Id. p. 24, &c.

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Ed. p. 24, &c.

of

of a girl, a wide leather belt is sewed round her waist, and continues
till it bursts, when it is replaced by a second. By a repetition of this
practice their waists are rendered astonishingly small; but their shoulders
become proportionably broad, a defect which is little attended to on
account of the beauty of their beasts. On the wedding night the belt is
cut with a dagger by the husband, a custom sometimes productive of
very fatal accidents. The bridegroom pays for his bride a marriage
present, or *Kalyin*, consisting of arms, or a coat of mail; but he must
not see her, or cohabit with her, without the greatest mystery. This
reserve continues during life. A Circassian will sometimes permit a
stranger to see his wife, but he must not accompany him. The father
makes the bride a present on the wedding day, but reserves the greater
part of what he intends to give her till the birth of her first child. On
this occasion she pays him a visit, receives from him the remainder of
her portion, and is clothed by him in the dress of a matron the prin-
cipal distinction of which consists in a veil. Until this time the dress of
the women is much like that of the men, excepting that the cloak is
longer, and frequently white, a colour never worn by men. The cap
too is generally red or rose-coloured.

“ Before marriage the youth of both sexes see each other freely, at the
little rejoicings which take place on festivals. Before the ball the young
men shew their activity, and address, in a variety of military exercises;
and the most alert have the privilege of choosing the most beautiful part-
ners. Their musical instruments are a long flute, with only three stops,
a species of mandoline, and a tambourin. Their dances are in the
Asiatic style, with very little gaiety or expression. The steps seem
very difficult, but not graceful.

“ The Circassian women participate in the general character of the
nation; they take pride in the courage of their husbands, and reproach
them severely when defeated. They polish and take care of the
armour of the men. Widows tear their hair, and disfigure themselves
with scars, in testimony of their grief. The men had formerly the
same custom; but are now grown more tranquil under the loss of their
wives and relations. The habitation of a Circassian is composed of
two huts, because the wife and husband are not supposed to live to-
gether.

MANNERS
AND
CUSTOMS.

MANNERS
AND
CUSTOMS.

gether. One of these huts is allotted to the husband, and to the reception of strangers; the other to the wife and family: the court which separates them is surrounded by palisades, or stakes. At meals the whole family is assembled; so that here, as among the Tartars, each village is reckoned at a certain number of kettles. Their food is extremely simple, consisting of only a little meat, some paste made of millet, and a kind of beer composed of the same grain, fermented."

The Mameluks of Egypt were, as is well-known, slaves regularly imported from Circassia and Georgia. In Imeritia, Mingrelia, and Gurjel, as well as in Georgia, which forms a Persian province, the barons have power of life and death over their vassals; and form a powerful aristocracy, formidable to the prince, who resides at Cutais.¹ The Dadian, or chief of Mingrelia and Gurjel, though possessed of a more extensive country, is tributary to the former sovereign. The religion of all is the Greek; and these provinces can scarcely be regarded as subject to Turkey.

In general the most striking feature of manners and customs, in the Turkish empire, is that half the people may be considered as somewhat civilized, while the other half are pastoral wanderers, ranging over extensive wastes. This laxity of government renders travelling in Asia Minor very unsafe; and has proved a great impediment to any exact geographical knowledge of these regions. Under a prudent government the wandering hords of Turcomans, and Kurds would be expelled; and regular troops and garrisons maintained on the frontiers; whence industry and the arts might again visit this classical territory.

The capital of the Turkish empire has been already described. Next in dignity and importance is the city of Haleb, or Aleppo, supposed to contain about 250,000 inhabitants. This city is constructed with some elegance, and the tall cypress trees, contrasted with the white minarets of numerous mosks, give it a most picturesque appearance.² The buildings and population seem to be on the increase; but the adjacent villages are deserted. The chief languages are the Turkish and Arabic.* The manufactures of silk and cotton are in a flourishing con-

¹ Ellis's Memoir, p. 57.

² Russell's Aleppo, Browne, 384, &c.

* The Syriac is only used in the churches of the Maronites and one or two villages. See Browne's edition;

Cities and
Towns.
Aleppo.

dition; and large caravans frequently arrive from Bagdad and Bassora, charged with the products of Persia and India; Aleppo being the modern Palmyra. Consuls from various European powers reside here, to attend the interests of the respective nations.

CITY AND TOWNS.

Damascus is supposed to contain about 180,000 souls. It was formerly celebrated for the manufacture of sabres, which seem to have been constructed, by a method now lost, of alternate thin layers of iron and steel, so as to bend even to the hilt without breaking, while the edge would divide the firmest mail. When Timur subdued Syria, about the beginning of the fifteenth century, he ordered all the artists in steel to migrate into Persia. The manufactures now consist of silk and cotton, chiefly mingled together; and excellent soap is made of oil of olives, with kali, and chalk. From the Mediterranean are imported metals and broad cloths: and the caravans of Bagdad bring Persian and Indian articles. This city also increases, by the gradual depopulation of the villages and country, which last always present the chief symptoms of national prosperity, or decline. The Pashalik of Damascus is esteemed the first in Asia; and the office of Pasha has, in the decline of the Turkish empire, become in some measure hereditary, with absolute power of life and death, and without any appeal.

Damascus.

Smyrna may be regarded as the third city in Asiatic Turkey, containing about 120,000 souls. This flourishing seat of European commerce, and chief mart of the Levant trade, is said to have been founded by Alexander the Great,* eminently distinguished from all other conquerors by the foundation, and not the destruction, of cities. In the wars between the Turks and the Greeks Smyrna sunk into great decline; and was taken with vast slaughter by Timur in 1402. The excellence of the haven renders Smyrna the centre of all the traffic of Asia Minor; but the frequent visits of the pestilence greatly impede its prosperity.[†]

Smyrna.

In the month of March 1797, a dreadful insurrection arose in this city on account of a Janissary, who was killed by a Scлавon, a subject of

* The more ancient city stood on the other side of the bay. My excellent and respected friend Mr. Laumont, counsellor of state, formerly consul at Smyrna, assures me that the population has been under-rated, being probably 160,000, of whom 40,000 are Turks.

† Chandler, 65.

CITIES AND
TOWNS.

Venice. The Turks became furious, but not daring to attack the Franks, turned their rage against the Greeks in murders, rapes, and every act of atrocity. At length they set fire to the city, and it was with the utmost hazard that the French consul could protect the Europeans. At this instant an Aga arrived from Constantinople, and with great difficulty appeased the tumult, having condemned eighteen Turks to be put to death. The first Greeks found in the street were constrained to be the executioners, and among them was an old respectable merchant, who, performing his new office with much timidity and awkwardness, put his patient to some unnecessary pain. A Turkish officer, after reproaching the venerable Greek, struck him with his cane. The Aga in a rage exclaimed, "What, in my presence, and towards a man already unhappy by the meanness of his new office? Off with the head of that dog!" The Turkish officer was seized and instantly decapitated.

It has been observed, that the sands in the bay of Smyrna gradually increase, and may probably in time impede the commerce. Two magnificent basins encircled by mountains crowned with villages and trees form the harbour of Smyrna, where numerous vessels complete the enchanting prospect; but the earthquakes are terrible and the pestilence frequent. It is a singular remark, that if the plague do not appear in the village of Bournabac before the agnus castus be in flower, it will not be felt for that season. The Greeks in general suffer greatly by the small-pox on account of their rigid fasts, and unwholesome diet. The Turks, when seized with rheumatism, apply to the Franks for a cure by electricity which they regard as magic, but call it art or science. The climate is however very healthy, and in 1798, there were twelve men aged upwards of eighty, all living in the same street. Cortazzi, formerly consul from Venice, was eighty-five years of age, and had had thirty-two children by one wife. He had kept a medicine by him for fifty-five years, never having had occasion to try its effects.*

Prusa.

Prusa is a beautiful city, in a romantic situation at the northern bottom of mount Olympus. By Tournefort's computation of families the inhabitants may be about 60,000. It is enlivened by numerous

* Laumont's papers.

springs,

springs, which descend from the mountains, and by the proximity of the hot baths. Prusa was formerly the chosen residence of the sultans, and contains many of their tombs. Magnisi, or Magnesia, is also a city of some repute in this quarter of the empire, but the modern situation seems different from the ancient; and Kireagatch has risen to considerable population, from the cultivation of cotton, being about 40 miles to the N. E. of Magnisi, on the rout to Prusa.*

CITIES AND TOWNS.

Angora may contain 80,000 inhabitants; and is a striking, and agreeable city in a lofty situation. The trade is chiefly in yarn, of which our shalloons are made; and in their own manufacture of Angora stuffs, made chiefly of the fine hair of a particular breed of goats, which, like that of the cats, occurs in no other country. Yet there seems no peculiarity in the air, situation, or soil, which is a fine red marl.

Angora.

Tokat is also a flourishing place. The inhabitants are computed at 60,000. The situation is singular, amidst rugged and perpendicular rocks of marble; and the streets are paved, which is a rare circumstance in the Levant.† Silk and leather are manufactures of Tokat; but the chief is that of copper utensils, which are sent to Constantinople, and even to Egypt. The copper is from the mines of Gumiscana, at the distance of three days journey from Trebifond; and from those of Castan Boul, yet richer, and situated ten days journey from Tokat, on the west towards Angora.‡

Tokat.

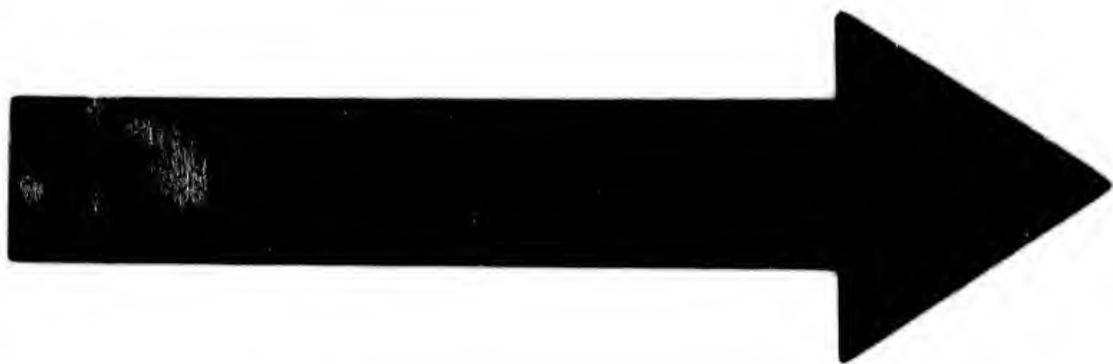
Basra, or Bassora, on the estuary of the Euphrates, and Tigris, must be regarded as rather belonging to an independent Arabian prince, who

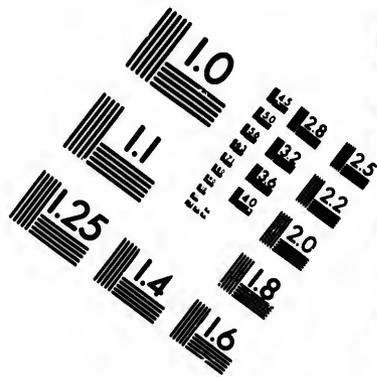
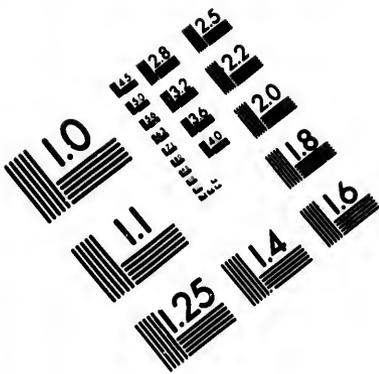
Basra.

* Hunter's Travels, 1795, 8vo. p. 159. See also the map in Peyssonnel's journey from Smyrna to Sardes, and Thyatira, at the end of his Observations Historiques et Géographiques, &c. Paris, 1765, 4to. This journey is full of inscriptions and antiquities, like most of those to the Levant, and of course contains very little solid information. Voyages to the Levant, as they are called, are indeed of all others the most common, and the most vague and unproductive. A few useless inscriptions, and a thousand quotations from the classics, or descriptions of Egypt and Syria, repeating what has been repeated a hundred times before, constitute what is called a voyage to the Levant. If an able traveller were to investigate the geography, natural history, and other topics of real importance in Asia Minor only, he would supply many deficiencies in modern knowledge.

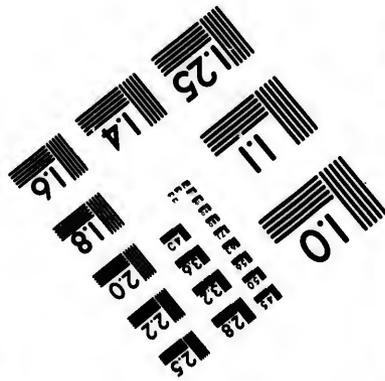
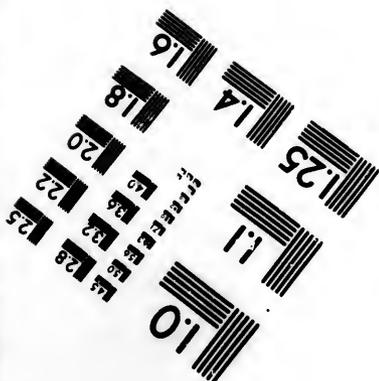
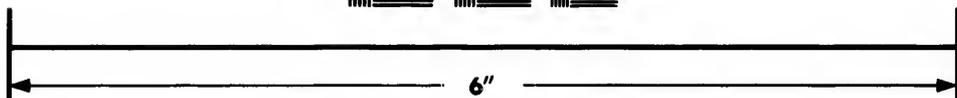
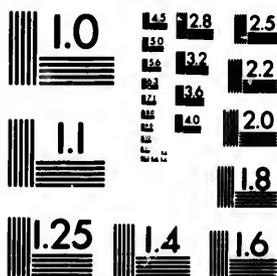
† Angora, Smyrna, Constantinople, are all paved, as I learn from the oral information of Mr. Browne whom I consulted on this part of my work.

‡ Tournefort, ii. 324. In modern times the copper mines are at Korek, Gaban Madan, and Argana. From the information of Ismael Effendi, ambassador from the Porte at London, formerly Secretary to the mines.





**IMAGE EVALUATION
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CITIES AND TOWNS.

pays dubious homage to the Porte, but as it has an intimate connexion with Asiatic Turkey, it may be here briefly mentioned as a city of 50 000 inhabitants, but of great commercial consequence, being frequented by numerous vessels from Europe and Asia, and the seat of an English consul. Here the various products of Europe and India are exchanged for those of Persia; and opulent caravans proceed to the chief cities of Asiatic Turkey, to all which it is the most central port of the more oriental trade.

Bagdad.

The great and romantic Bagdad, the seat of Califs, and the scene of many eastern fictions, has now dwindled into a town of about 40,000 inhabitants. Not far to the south are some ruins of the celebrated Babylon, which have been ably illustrated in a recent work of Major Rennell.⁹

Many an important city of antiquity has sunk into a village, and even the village often into a mass of rubbish, under the destructive domination of the Turks, perhaps the only people whose sole occupation has been to destroy. The maps are crowded with many names, now only known by miserable hamlets; and an enumeration which would seem short may yet be complete. The ancient and celebrated city of Jerusalem is reduced to a mean town, chiefly existing by the piety of pilgrims. Towards the frontiers of Persia the ravages of frequent war have spread additional destruction; yet Erzeron, the capital of Armenia, retains about 25,000 inhabitants. Kars, the extreme town upon the frontiers of Persia, is tolerably fortified; but is an inconsiderable place.¹⁰

Manufactures.

The chief manufactures of Asiatic Turkey have been already incidentally mentioned in the preceding account of the cities; to which may be added the excellent carpets so frequent in England. These, with rhubarb, and several other drugs, may be regarded as the chief articles of commerce.

The Levant, or Turkey, trade was formerly of great consequence to Great Britain; but since the middle of last century has been more advantageous to France. Sir James Porter, formerly ambassador at Con-

⁹ Geography of Herodotus.¹⁰ Tournesfort, ii. 217.

Constantinople,

Constantinople, has published several important observations on this subject.^{MANUFACTURERS.} He remarks that many of the stems of our nobility sprung from this great root of opulence; for in former times the Turkey merchants were the most rich and respectable body of men in the city. The capitulations of this commerce, so called because they were mere concessions granted by the Porte, date from the reign of Elizabeth. Though the charter were granted to a company there was no common stock; but each individual traded in his own way, and upon his own fund. There was a code of regulations: the ships were sent annually: and no bullion was allowed to be remitted to Turkey. The decline of this trade appears, from the account of this author, to have arisen from several injudicious bills brought into parliament, which from their severity induced the merchants to export cloth of an inferior quality. Yet as he confesses that the trade had declined, before the statutes had passed, it seems reasonable to infer, that the avarice of some traders was the real cause of the inferiority of our articles to those of the French, who artfully availed themselves of the opportunity, and by strict regulations maintained their superiority. In the period from 1729 to 1738 the English cloth sent to Constantinople amounted annually to 574 bales; while from 1739 to 1748 it had fallen to 236 bales. For the nature and causes of the decline of our Turkey trade, and the ascendancy of that of the French, the reader, who wishes for minute information, must be referred to the same judicious traveller.

From most respectable authority, some additional information concerning the Levant trade chiefly carried on at Smyrna, shall here be laid before the reader.

France sends coffee, sugar, indigo, cloths, and cochineal.

England, shalloons, muslins, iron, tin, spices, refined sugars.

Holland, muslins, India goods, cloths, spices.

Austria, from Trieste, cloths, glass, hard-ware, linen, wood, amber.

Russia, iron, corn, caviar, dried fish, furs.

Italy, silks and velvets, wax and paper.

European Turkey, wines, silks, tobacco.

Natolia and Syria, woollens, cottons, silks, drugs.

¹¹ Observations on the Turks, 1771, 8vo, p. 351.

MANUFACTURES.

Egypt, coffee of Yemen, rice.

Barbary, dates, woollen caps from Tunis, butter, wax.

The port of Marseilles which carries on the French trade with Smyrna, draws the wool and cochineal from Spain, but this country has lately begun to conduct her own commerce. Venice, under the Austrian power, might become the chief port of the Levant business. Of the French commerce the chief staple is coffee. It was neglected under the monarchy on account of the intrigues of women and quarrels of priests, nor can it resume much vigour until France shall attain a greater naval power.

Upon the whole, if the commerce of Smyrna be at present valued at fifty millions of franks, the English trade for thirty millions, the Dutch for ten, while France shares the remaining ten millions with the emperor, Italy, and other states above enumerated.

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CHAPTER IV.

NATURAL GEOGRAPHY.

Climate and Seasons. — Face of the Country. — Soil and Agriculture. — Rivers. — Lakes. — Mountains. — Forests. — Botany. — Zoology. — Mineralogy. — Mineral Waters. — Natural Curiosities.

THE climate of Asia Minor has always been considered as excellent. CLIMATE AND SEASONS.
 There is a peculiar softness and serenity in the air, not perceivable on the European side of the Archipelago. The heat of the summer is considerably tempered by the numerous chains of high mountains, some of which are said to be covered with perpetual snow.

The general appearance of Asiatic Turkey may be regarded as Face of the Country.
 mountainous; but intermingled with large and beautiful plains, which, instead of being covered with rich crops of grain, are pastured by the numerous flocks and herds of the Turcomans. The soil, as may be expected, is extremely various; but that of Asia Minor is chiefly a deep clay; and wheat, barley, and durra form the chief, if not the only products of agriculture. Agriculture. But excellent grapes and olives abound; and the southern provinces are fertile in dates. In Syria the agriculture is in the most deplorable condition; and the instruments, and management are alike execrable. The peasants are in the most miserable situation; and though not sold with the soil, like those of Poland, are, if possible, yet more oppressed; barley bread, onions, and water constituting their constant fare.¹

The principal river of Asiatic Turkey is, beyond all comparison, the Rivers.
 Euphrates, which rises from the mountains of Armenia, a few miles to Euphrates.
 the N. E. of Erzeron;² and chiefly pursues a S. W. direction to Semifat,

¹ Browne, 418.

² Volney, ii. 413.

³ Tournefort, ii. 198.

where

RIVERS.

where it would fall into the Mediterranean, if not prevented by a high range of mountains. In this part of its course the Euphrates is joined by the Morad from the east, a stream almost doubling in length that of Euphrates; so that the latter river might more justly be said to spring from mount Ararat, about 160 British miles to the east of the imputed source. At Semifat, the ancient Samofata, this noble river assumes a southerly direction; then runs an extensive course to the S. E., and after receiving the Tigris, falls by two or three mouths into the gulph of Persia. The comparative course of the Euphrates may be estimated at about 1400 British miles.

Tigris.

Next in importance is the Tigris, which rises to the north of Medan, about 150 miles south from the sources of the Euphrates, and pursues nearly a regular direction S. E. till it join the Euphrates below Korna, about 60 miles to the north of Bassora; after a comparative course of about 800 miles. The Euphrates, and the Tigris, are both navigable for a considerable distance from the sea.

Kizil Irmak

The third river in Asiatic Turkey is that called by the Turks Kizil Irmak, the celebrated Halys of antiquity; rising in mount Taurus not far from Erekli, but by other accounts more to the east, and, pursuing a winding course to the north, nearly across the whole of Asia Minor, till it join the Euxine sea on the west of the gulph of Sansoun. The

Sacaria.

river Sacaria, the ancient Sangarius, or Sangaris, rises about 50 miles to the south of Angora, and running to the N. W. joins the Euxine, about 70 miles to the east of Constantinople.

Mæander.

In the next rank may be placed the classical river of Mæander, rising to the north of the ancient city of Apamia, and running, in a winding stream, about 250 British miles. Dr. Chandler has observed that Wheler, otherwise a most accurate and intelligent traveller, has mistaken a tributary stream for the real Mæander;* which is called by the Turks Boync Minder, or the Great Mæander, to distinguish it from this little stream, which resembles it in mazes. The Minder, not far from its mouth, is about 100 feet broad; with a swift, muddy, and extremely

* This little stream, whose windings rival those of the river, flows due south, and joins the Mæander near its mouth, after a course of about 40 British miles.

deep current having received a considerable accession of waters from RIVERS.
the lake of Myus.

The Sarabat, or ancient Hermus, renowned for its golden sands, joins Sarabat.
the Archipelago about 90 British miles to the north of the Minder, after
a course of similar length.

The other rivers of Asia Minor are far more inconsiderable, though
many of them be celebrated in classical history and poetry.

The chief river of Syria is the Orontes, now called Oron or Afi, Orontes.
rising about 12 miles to the N. of Damascus, and running nearly due
north till it suddenly turn S. E. near Antioch, after which it soon
joins the Mediterranean.

Asiatic Turkey also contains numerous lakes. That of Van in the Lakes.
north of Kurdistan, is the most remarkable, being about 80 British miles Van.
in length from N. E. to S. W., and about 40 in breadth: it is said to
abound with fish. This great lake, with that of Urmiah in Persia, about
100 miles to the S. E., appears to have been little noted in ancient geo-
graphy; and D'Anville does not seem to have considered the difficulty,
though the lake of Van may be the Thospitis of antiquity; but his
maps and disquisitions are open to many improvements from recent ac-
counts.*

In Syria what is called the Dead Sea may be regarded as a lake of Dead Sea.
about 50 miles in length, and 12 or 13 in breadth. The lake of Rack-
ama, to the south of Hilla and the ancient Babylon, is about 30 miles in
length, and flows into the Euphrates.

Towards the centre of Asia Minor there is a remarkable saline lake,
about 70 miles in length, and a mile or two in breadth, being the Tatta
or Palus Salfa of D'Anville's ancient geography.†

Numerous other small lakes appear in Natolia, among which may be
particularly mentioned that of Ulubad, anciently styled the lake of Apol- Ulubad.
lonia, which according to Tournefort is about 25 miles in circum-

* From Ptolemy it may be concluded that the lake of Urmiah is the Arissa of antiquity;
but when he derives the Tigris from the lake Thospitis he probably means the small lake of Gur-
gick, near the real source of the Tigris.

† It seems to repose on rock-salt, and is greatly frequented for that article. The modern name
is *Toussa*, or the Salt Lake. Mr. Browne's inf.

ference,

deep

LAKES.

ference, and in some places seven or eight miles wide, sprinkled with several isles and some peninsulas, being a grand receptacle of the waters from mount Olympus.* The largest isle is about three miles in circuit, and is called Abouillona, probably from the ancient name of the city which stood on it. About 50 miles to the N. E. was the lake called Ascanius by the ancients, now that of Isnik.

Mountains.
Taurus.

Many of the mountains of Asiatic Turkey deserve particular attention, from their ancient celebrity. The first rank is due to the Taurian chain of antiquity, which was considered as extending from the neighbourhood of the Archipelago to the sources of the Gauges, and the extremities of Asia, so far as discovered by the ancients. But this notion little accords with the descriptions of modern travellers, or the researches of recent geography; and we might perhaps with equal justice infer that the Carpathian mountains, the Alps, and the Pyrenees constitute one chain. Science is equally impeded by joining what ought to be divided, as by dividing what ought to be joined. The Caucasian mountains have been well delineated by the Russian travellers, as forming a range from the mouth of the river Cuban, in the N. W., to where the river Kur enters the Caspian, in the S. E. The remaining intelligence is dubious and defective; but it would seem that, in resemblance of the Pyrenees, a chain extends from Caucasus S. W. to near the bay of Scanderoon. This ridge seems the Anti Taurus of antiquity: but various parts of it were known by different names, as marked in D'Anville's map of Asia Minor. At the other extremity of the Caucasus other chains branch out into Persia, which they pervade from N. W. to S. E., but they may all be justly considered as terminating in the deserts of the south eastern part of Persia; or as having so imperfect a connexion with the mountains of Hindoo Koh, which supply the western sources of the Indus, that it would be mere theory to regard them as a continued chain.

Far less can they be regarded as an extension of Mount Taurus, which, on the contrary, terminates at the Euphrates and deserts of Algezira. Of this the ancients were aware; and in their fondness for the Taurus

* ii. 363.

represented it as winding like an immense snake, by the Anti Taurus to the Caucasus, thus including the latter in the Taurian chain. Such ideas would only introduce confusion into geography; and modern precision will be contented to observe that the chain of Taurus, now called Kurun, perhaps from the old Greek name Ceraunus, extends for about 600 miles E. and W. from the Euphrates to near the shores of the Archipelago. A recent traveller found the ascent and descent, between Aintab and Bostan, to occupy three days; and the heights abound with cedars, favines, and junipers. It is probable that these, and the other mountains of Asiatic Turkey, are calcareous; while the Caucasus alone aspires to the rank of a granitic or primitive chain.

MOUNTAINS.

Towards the east of Armenia is Ararat, of which we have a description by Tournefort; and from his account it seems chiefly to consist of free-stone or calcareous sandstone. It is a detached mountain, with two summits; the highest being covered with eternal snow. In one of the flanks is an abyss, or precipice, of prodigious depth, the sides being perpendicular, and of a rough black appearance, as if tinged with smoke. This mountain belongs to Persia, but is here mentioned on account of connexion.

Ararat.

Beyond Ararat are branches of the Caucasian chain; to which, as is probable, belong the mountains of Elwend, which seem to be the Niphates of antiquity.

In Syria the most celebrated mountain is that of Lebanon, or Libanus, running in the southerly and northerly direction of the Mediterranean shore, and generally at the distance of about 30 or 40 miles. The Anti Libanus is a short detached chain, running nearly parallel on the east. These mountains are of considerable height, the summits being often covered with snow; and they seem to be calcareous, the granite not appearing till the neighbourhood of Mount Sinai and the Arabian gulph. The chief heights are between Balbec and Damascus.

Libanus.

The eastern side of the Archipelago presents many mountains of great height and classical fame, chiefly in ranges extending from N. to S. Of these Olympus (now Keshik Dag) is one of the most celebrated, and is described by Tournefort as a vast range covered with perpetual snow.

Olympus.

MOUN-
TAINS.

He says that a day's journey would be required to visit the summit of the mountain; and adds that it is one of the highest in Asia. Many small streams spring from Olympus, and the large lake of Ullabad is another receptacle of its waters.

Ida.

About 140 miles to the west of Olympus, rises mount Ida, of great though not equal height. The summit of Ida was by the ancients called Garganus; from which extend western prominences reaching to the Hellespont, and amidst them stood the celebrated city of Troy: Garganus, or the summit of Ida, being about 30 miles from the shore; and giving source to the Granicus, the Simois, and other noted streams, most of which run to the north.

Other remarkable mountains on this classical shore were those of Rhea, at an equal distance between Ida and Olympus. Mount Pedasus seems merely the southern extremity of Rhea. Farther to the south the mountains may perhaps be considered as branching from the Taurus, such as the range which passes from the head of the Mæander, and forms the promontory opposite to Scio, known in different districts by the ancient names of Messogis, Tmolus, Sipylus, Corycus, and Mimas, while another branch passes along the shore to the mouth of the Mæander, presenting the heights of Corax, Gallefus, and Mycale, the last opposite to Samos.

To the south of the Minder, or Mæander, the Taurus detaches a chain, called Cadmus and Grius, bending towards the isle of Cos and the Cyclades.

Forests.

These numerous mountains in Asiatic Turkey are often clothed with immense forests of pines, oaks, beeches, elms, and other trees. The southern shores of the Black Sea also present many gloomy forests of great extent. This abundance of timber supplies the inhabitants with fuel; nor has pit coal been explored in any part of Asiatic Turkey. Sometimes conflagrations arise, from the heedless waste of the caravans, who, instead of cutting off a few branches, will set fire to a standing tree.

Botany.

The extensive provinces of Natolia, Syria, and Mesopotamia, since their reduction under the Turkish yoke, have been but little accessible.

to.

to European curiosity. The natural productions of Syria, however, have BOTANY. been investigated, though imperfectly, by several naturalists of eminence, while the mountains and rich vales of Natolia towards the great Caucasian chain are almost wholly unknown. These countries having been inhabited and civilized from the remotest antiquity, possessing for the most part a dry rocky soil, with fewer rivers than any tract in Europe of equal extent, contain none of those low swampy levels that form so characteristic a feature in almost all the American countries, that compose the greater part of Holland, and occupy no small proportion of Hungary and the dominions north of the Baltic. Those vegetables therefore that inhabit swamps, lakes, and bogs, will be very sparingly found in the flora of Asiatic Turkey; nor will the indigenous alpine plants be more numerous; not indeed on account of the absence of high mountains, but from their having been hitherto almost entirely unexamined. Of the scanty catalogue of plants that have been found wild in the Asiatic part of the Ottoman territory, the following are the most worthy of notice:*

Among the trees may be distinguished, the olive tree, abounding throughout the whole Archipelago and the shores of the Levant; the weeping willow, graceful with its slender pendent branches, which has adorned the banks of the Euphrates from time immemorial; *elæagnus angustifolius*, *wild olive*, bearing a small sweet esculent fruit; the white mulberry; *cercis filiquastrum*, remarkable for its long seedpods; *zygophyllum fabago*, *berry bearing tea*; *melia azedarach*, the *bead tree*; *storax tree*, from which exudes the fragrant gum resin of the same name; pomegranate; almond tree, and peach tree; cherry, a native of Pontus in Natolia, whence it was brought to Rome by Lucullus; the lemon and orange; laburnum, and myrtle, growing plentifully by the side of running streams; the vine, in a perfectly wild state, climbing up the highest trees, and forming verdant grottos among its ample festoons; the mastich, chio turpentine, and pistachia nut tree; carob; *juniperus drupacea* and *oxycedrus*, two of the largest species of this genus nearly equalling the cypress in height, and found upon Mount Cassius and other rocky hills in Syria; the cypress; and cedar, a few large trees of

* La Billardiere Icones plantarum Syriæ. Gronovius Flora Orientalis.

BOTANY.

which still remain on Mount Lebanon, the venerable relics of its sacred forests. Hibiscus Syriacus, distinguished by the uncommon splendour of its blossoms, and on this account much cultivated about Constantinople and other parts of the Turkish empire, where it does not grow spontaneously; the fig tree; and sycamore fig, abounding in Palestine and other parts of Syria; the date tree; the prickly cupped oak, from which are procured the finest Aleppo galls; the oriental plane tree, highly esteemed for its shady tent-like canopy of foliage. Mimosa arborea; and menispermum cocculus, the berries of which, commonly called cocculus indicus, are much used by the natives for taking fish, on account of their narcotic qualities.

Of the lower trees and flowering shrubs the principal are lilac, abounding on the banks of the Euphrates; yellow and common jasmine, found plentifully in the thickets and woods of Syria; the long hollow stems of the latter of these are in great request among the inhabitants, as stems to their tobacco pipes; ruta fruticulosa and linifolia, two species of rue, the former of which is rather uncommon, and has been chiefly found about Damascus; arbutus unedo, *arbut*; prunus prostrata, a trailing shrub, the smallest of the plum kind, covering the rocks near the summit of Mount Lebanon; Spanish and thorny broom, occupying many of the sandy tracts that are of such frequent occurrence in Syria; oleander, a common ornament of every rivulet; tamarisk; rhus cotinus; lycium europæum, *boxthorn*; osyris alba, *poet's cassia*; erica scoparia, with many other kinds of *beath*; baytree; caper bush; several species of cistus, especially the *sage-leaved* and *gum cistus*; and euphorbia mauritanica, *mauritanian spurge*, with the acrid juice of which the scammony is not unfrequently adulterated.

Several dying drugs and articles of the materia medica are imported from the Levant, among which may be particularized the madder; a variety of this, called alizari, is largely cultivated around Smyrna, which yields a much finer red dye than the European kind, and to this the superiority of the Greek and Turkish reds is principally to be ascribed; smilax aspera; mirabilis jalapa, *jalap*; convolvulus scammonia, *scammony*; cordia myxa, *sebesten*; croton tinctorium: ricinus communis, the seed of which yields by expression the *castor oil*; momordica elaterium,

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rium, *squirting cucumber*; cucumis colocynthis, *coloquintida*; papaver BOTANY.
somniaferum, *opium poppy*; sesamum orientale; and coctus arabicus,
spikenard.

A few esculent plants not commonly made use of elsewhere are the produce of Natolia and Syria, such as solanum melongena, *mad-apple*; cyperus esculentus, the large aromatic root of which is much esteemed; corchorus olitorius, *Jews' mallow*; arum colocasia, remarkable for its sweet farinaceous root, while those of its kindred species are intolerably acrid.

The following vegetables are remarkable either for their beauty or singularity: exoacantha heterophylla, an umbelliferous plant distinguished by its uncommonly thorny involucre, found in the vicinity of Nazareth; dianthus Libanotis, *Lebanon pink*; anthyllis tragacanthoides, a rare plant found on Lebanon, and eminently beautiful with its long clusters of purple papilionaceous flowers; amaryllis montana, also a native of Lebanon; branched asphodel; white and orange lily; narcissus tazetta; star of Bethlehem; oriental hyacinth; xeranthemum frigidum, a beautiful plant growing close to the snow on Mount Lebanon; golden henbane; winter cherry; atropa mandragora; calla orientalis; arum intortum; cretan origany; rose of Jericho.

The best horses in Asiatic Turkey are of Arabian extract, and are sparingly fed with a little barley and minced straw, to accustom them to abstinence and fatigue; but mules and asses are in more general use. Concerning the breed of cattle little is mentioned by travellers, but it seems inferior to those of Europe; and beef is scarce and bad. The mutton is superior; and the kid is a favourite repast.* Zoology.

In Asiatic Turkey appears that king of ferocious animals called the lion, which is unknown to any region of Europe, and even to Asiatic Russia. Yet he rarely roams to the west of the Euphrates: but Tournefort observed many tigers on mount Ararat. He must mean the small tiger, or perhaps the leopard or the mountain cat; for the royal or large tiger seems to be restricted to the wastes of Hindostan. The hyæna, and the wild boar, are known animals of Asia Minor; and

* Hasselquist, p. 192, says that the sheep of Anti Libanus have sometimes a crust on their teeth, with the perfect appearance of yellow pyrites. It is imputed to the grass or lucern.

ZOOLOGY. the jackal ranges in troops, which raise dreadful cries in the night, but the fable of their accompanying the lion is justly exploded. The cities and villages swarm with dogs, who are allowed to wander, as a constant defence against strangers or enemies.

The ibex, or rock goat, appears on the summits of Caucasus. The singular goats and cats of Angora have been already mentioned. The gazel, a kind of antelope, is also an inhabitant of Asia Minor; with numerous deer and hares. The partridges are generally of the red legged kind, about a third larger than the common European. Of fish there are numerous names, and many of them are excellent. The difficulties of travelling have considerably abridged our knowledge of the zoology of these various regions, Hasselquist, the disciple of Linnæus, having passed from Smyrna to Alexandria, and chiefly occupied himself in the natural history of Palestine and Egypt.

Mineralogy. The mineralogy of those extensive and mountainous provinces remains in a deplorable state of imperfection. Ancient Lydia was famous for the production of gold; but in modern times no mines seem to be indicated, except those of copper which supply Tokat. The indolence of the Turks, or indeed their industry in destruction, is alike inimical to metallurgy and agriculture. Hasselquist observed lead and copper ore, with rock crystals, in the island of Cyprus. But his account of oriental minerals only contains whetstone and natron, both Egyptian; and he informs us that Moses must have inscribed the laws on granite, which constitutes mount Oreb and Mount Sinai.* The mountains of Judæa, he says, are of a very hard limestone of a yellowish white; and towards the east of a loose grey limestone. If such be the profound observations of a naturalist, what is to be expected from other travellers?

Mineral Waters.

The most noted mineral waters are those of Prusa, at the bottom of mount Olympus. The baths are splendid, and paved with marble, with two reservoirs or rather cisterns for bathing, one for the men,

*P. 292. When the author of this work was at Paris, M. Roziere, an able mineralogist who accompanied, with Dolomieu, the French expedition to Egypt, presented to him specimens of Mount Sinai and Arabia Petræa. The granites are sometimes peculiar, and mixed with a green substance resembling smaragdite. The stone on which, according to the monks, the laws of Moses were written, is a beautiful white felspar with black hornblende. The others are grunitin, serpentine, &c.

another

another for the women. The water smokes continually, and is so hot ^{MINERAL} as to scald the hand; but in the baths it is mingled with cold water. ^{WATERS.} from the numerous streams of Olympus. There are many other hot springs in different quarters of Natolia.

The natural curiosities, and singular features, of so mountainous a ^{Natural Cu-} country, must be numerous; but as such seldom occur in the beaten ^{riositys.} tracks, and there is no safety in visiting distant recesses, the chosen haunts of banditti, it is no wonder that this topic is left barren by travellers. The beautiful mazes of the Minder have been celebrated from early antiquity; and it is probable that the large salt lake, in the centre of Asia Minor, might afford a curious object of investigation. Dr. Chandler describes the singular cliff near Pambouk or Hierapolis, produced by the hot petrifying waters, and resembling an immense frozen cascade, as if the water had been fixed and suddenly converted to stone. In the same vicinity is a cave remarkable for pernicious effluvia.

ISLANDS BELONGING TO ASIATIC TURKEY.

THE chief islands in the Archipelago, considered as belonging to ^{Islands.} Asia, are Mytilene, Scio, Samos, Cos, and Rhodes.

Mytilene, the ancient Lesbos, is the most northerly and largest of ^{Mytilene.} these isles, being about 40 British miles in length by 24 at its greatest breadth. The mountainous appearance of this isle is agreeably diversified with bays, and inlets of the sea, and plantations of olives, vines, and myrtle. There are hot baths issuing from cliffs resembling those of St. Vincent near Bristol, and which indicate the isle to be chiefly calcareous. The climate is exquisite; and it was anciently noted for wines, and the beauty of the women.

Scio, the ancient Chios, is about 36 British miles in length, but only Scio. about 13 in medial breadth. The Chian wine is celebrated by Horace, and retains its ancient fame. The town of Scio, on the east side of the

? P. 230.

? Dallaway's Constantinople, p. 313.

ISLANDS.

isle, is handsome and convenient. The Greeks here enjoy considerable freedom and ease; and display such industry that the country resembles a garden. This particular favour arises from the cultivation of the mastic trees, or rather shrubs, for they are small evergreens which supply the gum, so acceptable to the ladies of the sultan's haram, or, as we term it, the seraglio. The beauty of the women is confined to one form of features, as in the Grecian statues; and even the clearness of their complexion cannot atone for the preposterous form of their dress, which is here, if possible, more ridiculous than in the other Egean isles. Pococke's figure of Homer, which he pretends to have found here, is imaginary; and the original seems to be an image of Cybele. This isle is also very mountainous. The earth of Scio was celebrated by the ancients, but was only a common bole like that of Lemnos. Tournefort observed here tame partridges, kept like poultry; and it is probable the custom is retained, for among the Turks every thing is stationary, except destruction. Chandler saw numerous groves of lemons, oranges, and citrons, perfuming the air with the odour of their blossoms, and delighting the eye with their golden fruit. The Genoese possessed this beautiful isle about 240 years, but lost it in 1566. Opposite to Scio, on the Asiatic shore, is Chesmé, where the Turkish fleet was destroyed by the Russian, 1770. The inhabitants of Scio are supposed to be about 60,000.²

Samos.

Samos is about 30 miles in length, and 10 in breadth. This isle is also crossed by a chain of hills, and the most agreeable part is the plain of Cora. Tournefort computes the inhabitants at 12,000, all Greeks; with a Turkish Aga or military officer, and a cadi or judge, magistrates usual in every Turkish district. The women are celebrated for their complete want of beauty, thus forming a remarkable exception to the other Greek isles. The pottery of Samos was anciently excellent; at present most branches of industry are neglected; but nitre, emery, and iron, might still be worked. Pitch is prepared from the pine trees in the north part of the island; and the silk, honey, and wax, are esteemed. Most of the mountains are of white marble, and swarm with game of

² Tournefort, p. 281. Van Egmont, i. 237, &c. Chandler, 48.

various descriptions. The best haven is that of Vati to the N. W. ISLANDS. Some remains are observed of the celebrated temple of Juno.³

Cos is about 24 miles in length, by three or four in breadth; but has been little visited by modern travellers. Pliny styles Cos a most noble isle; and from it was first derived the name and substance of the whetstone. It is now covered with groves of lemon trees, and there is an oriental plane tree of vast size. The chief trade is in oranges and lemons; and Cos is the residence of a Turkish pasha.⁴ Rhodes is about

Rhodes. 36 British miles in length, by 15 in breadth, an island celebrated in ancient and modern times. It is fertile in wheat, though the soil be of a sandy nature. The population is computed at about 30,000. The city of the same name, in which no Christian is now permitted to dwell, stands in the north end of the isle; and was anciently noted for a colossus in bronze, about 130 feet high, which could not have stood over the harbour as fabled, for it was soon cast down by an earthquake, and the fragments many centuries afterwards were sold by the Saracens; while if it had stood over the port it must have fallen into the sea.⁵ This isle was for two centuries possessed by the knights of St. John of Jerusalem, thence styled of Rhodes, till 1523, when it was taken by the Turks; and the emperor Charles V. assigned to the knights the island of Malta.⁶

Along the southern shore of Asia Minor there are some small isles, among which is that of Castel Rosso, S. E. of Patira. But they are of no moment, when compared with the large and celebrated island of Cyprus, which is about 160 British miles in length, and about 70 at its greatest breadth. It was long possessed by the Ptolemies of Egypt, till it fell under the Roman power; when it remained a portion of the Byzantine empire, till it was usurped by a Greek prince, who was expelled by Richard I. of England. This monarch bestowed the kingdom of Cyprus on the house of Lusignan, as a compensation for the loss of the throne of Jerusalem. In the fifteenth century the heirs of the house of Lusignan resigned this isle to the Venetians; but in 1570 it was seized by the Turks. The soil is fertile, yet agriculture in a neglected state. The oxen are lean and of a small size: the sheep are of

³ Tournefort, i. 307. Dallaway, 251.

⁴ Van Egmont, i. 262.

⁵ Gibbon, ix. 425.

⁶ Van Egmont, i. 263, who gives a long description of Rhodes.

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ISLANDS. a better description. The chief products are silk, cotton, wines, turpentine, and timber. The wine of Cyprus is deservedly celebrated. The oranges are excellent; and the mountains are covered with hyacinths and anemonies, and other beautiful flowers. Cyprus is supposed to have derived its name from the abundance of copper ore; and it is said to have anciently produced gold, silver, and emeralds. What is called the Paphian diamond is a rock crystal, found near Paphos; and there is a quarry of amianthus, while several hills consist chiefly of talc. The other mineral productions are red jasper, agates, green earth, and umber. The Cypriots are a tall and elegant race; but the chief beauty of the women consists in their sparkling eyes. To the disgrace of the Turkish government the population of this extensive island is computed at 50,000 souls!* Cyprus is pervaded by a chain of mountains, among which is a third *Olympus*, some primitive name, which seems to have been general for a mountain of great height. Van Egmont says that there is not one river in the island, he means that continues its course in the summer; but that there are many ponds, lakes, and fens, producing a damp and malignant air. The chief cities are Nicosia, the capital and residence of the governor, and Famagusta.†

* Mr. Browne rather conjectures 100,000. The Christians in Cyprus are however more exposed than any others to the Turkish oppression, and emigrate to Syria in great numbers.

† Van Egmont, i. 281. Mariti, &c.

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RUSSIAN EMPIRE IN ASIA.



CHAPTER I.

HISTORICAL GEOGRAPHY.

*Names.—Extent.—Boundaries.—Original Population.—Progressive Geography.—
Historical Epochs and Antiquities.*

THIS large portion of the habitable globe extends almost the whole EXTENT.
length of Asia, from about the 37th degree of longitude east of
London to more than 190°; or 170 of western longitude. As the
northern latitude is very high, the degree shall only be assumed at
30 miles; and the length may thus be computed at 4590 geographical
miles. The greatest breadth from the cape of Cevero Vostochnoi,
called in some maps Taimura, to the Altaian chain of mountains on the
south of the sea of Baikal, may be 28°, or 1680 geographical miles.
In British miles the length may be roughly computed at 5350; and the
breadth at 1960: an extent which will be found to exceed that of Eu-
rope.*

The furthest eastern boundary is that of Asia, and the seas of Kam- Boundaries.
chatka and Ochotsk; while the northern is the Arctic Ocean. On the

* Mr. Tooke, in his View of the Russian Empire, computes the whole, including the Euro-
pean part, at 9,200 English miles in length, and 2,400 in breadth.

BOUNDARIES.

west the frontiers correspond with those between Asia and Europe. The southern limits require more explanation. The river Cuban, part of the Caucasian chain, and an ideal line, divide the Russian territory from Turkey and Persia. The boundary then ascends along the north of the Caspian through the stepp or desert of Issim, and the eastern shore of the river Ob, to where it issues from the Altaian mountains, when it meets the vast empire of China; and proceeds among that chain to the sources of the Onon, where it includes a considerable region called Daouria, extending about 200 miles in breadth, to the south of the mountains called Yablonnoy; the limit between Russia and Chinese Tatory being partly an ideal line, and partly the river Argoon, which joined with the Onon constitutes the great river Amur. Thence the boundary returns to the mountainous chain, and follows a branch of it to a promontory on the north of the mouth of the Amur.

Original Population.

The population of Asiatic Russia may be regarded as wholly primitive, except a few Russian colonies recently planted, and the Techuks in the part opposite to America, who have been supposed to have proceeded from that continent, as already mentioned, because their persons and customs are different from those of the other Asiatic tribes. Next to the Techuks, in the furthest north, are the Yukagirs, a branch of the Yakuts,* and yet further west the Samoieds. To the south of the Techuks are the Coriaks, a branch of the same race; and yet further south the Kamchadals, a distinct people, who speak a different language. The Lamuts are a part of the Mandshurs or Tunguses, who have been vaguely called Tartars or Tatars, though they neither belong to that race nor to the Monguls. The Tunguses are widely diffused between the Yenisei and the Amur: and the southern tribes ruled by a khan or monarch, conquered China in the seventeenth century. The Ostiaks, and other tribes of Samoieds, have penetrated considerably to the south between the Yenisei and the Irtysh, and are followed by various tribes of the Monguls, as the Calmucs, Burats, &c., and by those of the Tatars or Huns as the Teluts, Kirguses, and others. The radically distinct

* The Yakuts are expelled Tatars from the south, as the Russian writers decide from their language, traditions, and manners. The far greater part of the Monguls and Mandshurs are subject to China: and the Tatars are best observed in Independent Tatory.

languages amount to seven, independent of many dialects and mixtures.*

ORIGINAL
POPULA-
TION.
Names.

The vast extent of northern Asia was first known by the name of Sibir or Siberia; but this appellation seems gradually to pass into disuse. When the Monguls established a kingdom in these northern regions, the first residence of the princes was on the river Tura, on the spot where now stands the town of Tiumen, about 180 miles S. W. of Tobolsk.† But the khans afterwards moved to the eastern shore of the Irtysh, where they founded the city of Iker near Tobolsk. This new residence was also called Sibir, from what etymon or cause is not explained; and the name of the city passed to the Mongul principality.‡ When the Russians began the conquest of the country, being unconscious of its extent, the name of this western province was gradually diffused over half of Asia.

The progressive geography of this vast part of Asia commences at a recent period; nor was it disclosed to the attention of civilized Europe till the middle of the sixteenth century. It is indeed a singular circumstance in human affairs, that America may be said to have been discovered before Asia, though it be natural to suppose that the latter would have engaged a more deep and immediate interest, because the barbarous swarms in the extremity of Asia had repeatedly astonished and almost subjugated Europe. It has already been mentioned that in 1242 the Monguls under Sheibani established a principality in the western part of Siberia, around Tobolsk, and the river Tura, whence this principality was sometimes styled that of Turan.§ The history of this distant principality is obscure, and lost in the superior splendour of the other Mongul dynasties.

Progressive
Geography.

In the reign of Ivan Vasilivitch, the first of both these names, and by his conquest over the Tatars the founder of Russian greatness, some in-

* See the Hist. des Decouvertes Russes, &c. Berne 1779. 1787. 6 vols. 8vo., being an abstract of the travels of Pallas, Gmelin, Ghiorghi, &c.

† Tooke's Russia, ii. 60.

‡ This is doubtful, Core, 182. Muller thinks the denomination was used by the Permians, a Finnish nation on the confines of Siberia; but Pallas, iii. 49r. says that the ruins of Sibir are still visible 23 versts from Tobolsk, and that it gave name to the rivulet Sibirka, and all Siberia.

§ This must not be confounded with the Touran (or Tatory) of the Persians.

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ursions were made as far as the river Ob, and some Mongul chiefs were brought prisoners to Moscow.* But more than half a century elapsed before the real conquest of Siberia commenced in the reign of Ivan Vasilivitch II, who ascended the Russian throne in 1534. Trogonaff, a Russian merchant of Archangel, having opened a traffic for Siberian furs, the czar was induced to attempt the conquest of the country which supplied them; and in 1558 had added to his titles that of lord of Sibir or Siberia. Yermac, a Cossac chief, being forced by the Russian conquests in the south to take refuge near the river Kama with 6000 of his followers, he afterwards directed his arms against Kutchum the Mongul khan of Sibir, whom he defeated and expelled; but perceiving that his power was precarious, in 1582 he claimed and obtained the protection of Russia. Yermac soon after perished, and the Russians retreated: but towards the beginning of the seventeenth century they had firm establishments, and one Cyprian was appointed first archbishop of Sibir in 1621, residing at Tobolsk, where he drew up a narrative of the conquest. Towards the middle of the seventeenth century the Russians had extended as far east as the river Amur; but Kamchatka was not finally reduced till the year 1711. Bering and other navigators afterwards proceeded to discover the other extreme parts of Asia. In his first voyage of 1728 Bering coasted the eastern shore of Siberia as high as latitude $67^{\circ} 18'$, but his important discoveries were made during his voyage of 1741. The Aleutian isles were visited in 1745; and in the reign of the late empress other important discoveries followed, which were completed by those of Cook.

In the south the Mongul kingdom of Cazan having been subdued in 1552, and that of Astracan in 1554, and the Russian monarchy extended to the Caspian sea, a considerable accession was added to the progressive geography by the chart of that sea drawn by command of Peter the Great. It hence appeared that all geographers, ancient and modern, had mistaken the very form of the Caspian, which extends greatly from north to south instead of spreading from east to west as formerly delineated. In the reign of the late empress many important additions were made to the progressive geography by Pallas and other

* Coxe's Russ. Dis. p. 177.

scientific travellers, and a Russian atlas was published, which may be regarded as nearly complete.

The Russian power in Asia is of such recent origin, that it affords few historical epochs except those which have been already mentioned in the progressive geography. The history of Caspichak, or the kingdom of Astracan* before and after the conquest of the Monguls, is obscure and uninteresting; nor can that of Cazan or Kazan, a more northern and barbarous state, claim superior attention. The city of Kazan was built in 1257, and became the capital of a small independent Mongul principality, partly in Europe and partly in Asia, A. D. 1441. The Russians assert that they possessed Astracan before the invasion of the Monguls in the thirteenth century; but while even this is doubtful, other parts of the history of Asiatic Russia cannot be supposed to be very clear. † The acquisitions on the frontiers of Turkey and Persia are recent and well known events.

As the Russian empire in Asia borders for a great extent upon Chinese Tatory, or rather the Monguls and Mandshurs, who acknowledge the protection and supremacy of China, it may be proper here to commemorate a few events which have arisen from this proximity. It has already been observed that about the middle of the seventeenth century the Russians had advanced to the river Amur; here they subdued some Tungusian Tribes, and built some small fortresses. The Chinese monarch Camhi having formed a similar design, the two great powers unavoidably clashed; open hostilities commenced about 1680, and the Chinese destroyed the Russian forts. In August 1689 the treaty of Nerchinsk, so called from the town in Daouria, was signed by the Russian and Chinese plenipotentiaries, and the limits specified were a chain of mountains far to the north of the Amur, and the source of the small river

* Caspichak once spread through the whole Mongul conquests in Muscovy, including the Crimea, Astracan, Cazan, and Kipzak on the N. of the Caspian.

† The curious genealogical history of the Tatars by Abulgasi Chan gives little information concerning the northern dynasties. The manuscript was brought from Siberia by Baron Strahlenberg, one of the Swedish prisoners, and the French translation, published 1726, is said to be by one De Verannes, but perhaps by M. Bentink. The long and instructive notes by M. Bentink were collected apart, and form the description of Tatory in the *Recueil des Voyages du Nord*, tome x, and the *Histoire Generale des Voyages*, tome vij.

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Gorbitza,* thence to where that river joins the Amur, and lastly along the Argoon or Argounia, &c.† By this treaty the Russians assert that they not only lost a wide territory, but also the navigation of the river Amur, which would have been of great consequence to their remote possessions in Asia: yet the advantage was gained of a commercial intercourse with the Chinese. In 1727 the limits were continued westward from the source of the Argoon to the mountain Sabyntaban, near the conflux of two rivers with the Yenesei; the boundary being thus ascertained between the Russians and the Monguls subject to China. The trade with China has been latterly conducted at Zuruchaitu, on the river Argoon, lat. 50. long. 117., and at Kiachta, about 90 miles S. of the sea of Baikal, lat. 51. long. 106.‡ This boundary between two states is the most extensive on the globe, reaching from about the 65th to the 145th degree of longitude; eighty degrees (latitude fifty) computed at 39 geographical miles, will yield the result of 3120 miles. Its history therefore becomes singular and interesting; but it is probable that the Russians will insist upon extending the boundary to the river Amur, which would form a natural limit, as there are no chains of mountains in a proper direction further to the south between their empire and China.

The most curious antiquities seem to be the stone tombs which abound in some steppes, particularly near the river Yenesei, representing in rude sculpture human faces, camels, horsemen with lances, and other objects. Here are found besides human bones those of horses and oxen, with fragments of pottery and ornaments of dress.* The most singular ancient monument in Siberia is on the river Abakan not far from Tomsk, being a large tomb with rude figures.†

* This river, also called Gagatchi, appears from the map in Pallas's travels to join the Amur from the north, a little below the junction of the Argoon from the south being, the third river from the town of Albasin on Yaksa, which was destroyed by the Chinese in the middle of the sixteenth century. This river does not there form the boundary, which runs further to the west, and is arbitrary.

‡ Coxe, 200. Du Halde, iv.

† Mr. Coxe, p. 212, unaccountably says 35° N. latitude.

‡ Dec. Russ. vi. 210.

‡ Pallas, vi. 240.

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CHAPTER II.

POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY.

*Religion.—Ecclesiastical Geography.—Government.—Laws.—Population.—Colonies.
—Army.—Navy.—Revenues.—Political Importance and Relations.*

THE Grecian system of the Christian faith, which is embraced by RELIGION. the Russians, has made inconsiderable progress in their Asiatic possessions. Many of the Tatar tribes in the S. W. are Mahometans; and others follow the superstition of Dalai Lama, of which an account shall be given in the description of the Chinese empire. But the more eastern Tatars are generally addicted to the Schaman religion, a system chiefly founded on the self-existence of matter, a spiritual world, and the general restitution of all things. The Schamanians even believe that the Burchans, or gods themselves, arose from the general mass of matter and spirit. Their epochs of destruction and restitution somewhat resemble those of the Hindoos. While common souls immediately receive their final decree, the virtuous become chubils, or wandering spirits, who are purified by transmigration, so as also to become Burchans, or gods. Between men and gods are the Tengri, or spirits of the air, who direct sublunary affairs, and all the trifles so important to man, but beneath the most remote attention of the gods. The infernal regions chiefly contain those who have offended the priesthood. This system is intimately connected with that of the Dalai Lama, and is so widely diffused that some have asserted Schamanism to be the most prevalent system on the globe.* In Asiatic Russia it is professed by most

* Tooke's Russia, 1783. iv. 42.

* In his first volume Mr. Tooke asserts that this system is the parent of Brahminism; and that the Schamanians are by Strabo called *Germanians*, by Clemens Alexandrinus *Sarmanians*, by Porphyry *Samanians*.

RELIGION. nations, as a great part of the Tatars, with the Fins, Samoieds, and Ostiaks, the Mandshurs, and Burats, and Tunguses; and has even passed to the Coriaks, and Techuks, and people of the eastern isles.¹ The population indeed of Asiatic Russia scarcely exceeds three millions, but many of the Chinese are Schamanians, and the system is intimately connected with that of the Brahmins, or rather of Boodh. On the eastern coast of the sea of Baikal is the rock of the Schamans, an idol of a singular shape: and among the inferior spirits may be named the Garan, or aquatic fairies, the Ilguirki those of the earth, Temir Kam those of the mountains, and Vodalch those of the forests. But as the Schamanians admit one chief infernal deity and his subalterns, authors of evil, so they believe in one supreme uncreated beneficent being, who commits the management of the universe to inferior deities, who delegate portions of it to subaltern spirits. With more philosophy they might suppose that evil cannot exist except in matter, and that an evil spirit is a contradiction in terms. It might afford a subject of curious enquiry to investigate whether Schamanism be the parent of the Boodian, and Brahmin system, as some suppose, preserved in its original state among these barbarous tribes: or only a corruption of those diffused from India. Few literary topics can be more interesting, as it would not only embrace the sources of the Hindoo mythology, but also those of classical paganism.

The archiepiscopal see of Tobolsk is the metropolitan of Russian Asia in the north, and that of Astracan in the south. There is another see that of Irkutsk and Nerzhinsk; and perhaps a few others of recent foundation.

Government. Siberia is divided into two great governments, that of Tobolsk in the west, and Irkutsk in the east. The smaller provinces are Kolivan, Nerzhinsk, Yakutsk, and Ochotsk. In the S. W. is the government of Caucasus, with one or two other divisions, intermingling Europe and Asia. At a distance from the capital the government becomes proportionably lax, and tribute is the chief mark of subjection.

Population. The population of Siberia cannot be computed at above three millions and a half;² so that Europe can in future have little to appre-

¹ Tooke's Russia 1783. iii.

² Tooke's View, ii. 132.

hend from the Tataric swarms. Small Russian colonies have been established in several of the distant provinces and isles. The political importance and relations of this part of the Russian empire chiefly relate to China and Japan. The late empress had, it is said, projected the conquest of Japan, which might perhaps have imparted a spirit of industry to her continental possessions in that quarter; and it was computed that 10,000 Russians could have conquered China. But the subjection of many parts of what was called Independent Tatarry have given to China a military frontier, and the proximity to Peking the capital, being so much greater, the Chinese efforts would be speedy and probably decisive; while the march of Russian reinforcements, through such wide and barren regions, would be difficult and hazardous. In fact, on settling the frontier, the Russians were overawed by superior numbers, though it is probable that at no distant period the river Amur, also called the Sagalien Oula, may be established as the boundary. The conquest of Japan, though more difficult than may have been conceived, affords many commercial temptations, but that of China would seem too vast even for the most grasping ambition. It is also asserted that the late empress, in case of a war with England, meditated to send an army from her Asiatic possessions to Hindostan, through the provinces on the east of the Caspian, by Samarcand, and Cashmir to the Ganges. This indeed would be but a trifling effort compared with the marches of Zingis, Timur, and other oriental chiefs. But the mode of warfare is greatly changed. When Voltaire instigated Catharine to seize Constantinople, she replied that an epic poet easily might; but that modern armies consist of men who eat, and all her power could not produce magazines of provisions. This difficulty would be found far more cogent in a march of greater length, except that the powers in the north of India were unanimous in the favour of the Russians.

COLONIES.

Political Importance and Relations.

CHAPTER III.

CIVIL GEOGRAPHY.

Manners and Customs.—Language.—Literature.—Education.—Cities and Towns.—Manufactures and Commerce.

MANNERS
AND
CUSTOMS.

THE manners and customs of Asiatic Russia vary with the numerous tribes, by whom that extensive region is peopled. The Tatars properly so called, are the most numerous, not only remaining in their ancient kingdom of Sibir, but constituting many other tribes in the west, as the Nogays, the Kirguses or Kaizaks, the Bashkirs, and other tribes as far as the sources of the river Ob. Next in importance are the Monguls, of whom one tribe, the Kalmuks, are found to the west of the Caspian; while the others, called Burats, Torguts, &c. are chiefly around the sea of Baikal. Yet further to the east are the Mandshurs, or Tunguses. Such are the three radically distinct divisions of men whom former European ignorance classed under the general name of Tartars.

The manners of the Tatars, who are the same people with the Huns of antiquity, are minutely described by those authors who have delineated the fall of the Roman empire, prior to which period they seem to have been absolutely unknown to the ancients, though many modern authors have erroneously confounded them with the Scythians of Herodotus, and other Gothic tribes, who were afterwards vanquished, or expelled by the Tatars. Nor are the Seres a mild industrious race to be regarded as Tatars, but as, perhaps, northern Hindoos.* It would be superfluous to enter into a detail of the manners and customs

* The Bucharian language has not been investigated.

of the various nations in Asiatic Russia, for which the reader may be referred to the works of Pallas, and other recent travellers. In so ample a theme the difficulty is to select; and the manners of the Monguls may be chosen as a specimen. Those of the Russian empire are wholly Nomadic, their herds consisting of horses, camels, oxen, sheep, and goats. The women tan leather, dig the culinary roots, prepare the winter provisions dried or salted, and distil the koumish, or spirit of mare's milk. The men hunt the numerous beasts, and game, that roam through the vast wilds. Their tents are formed of a kind of felt, and in some parts they erect little temples, and the priests have also wooden hovels around the temples. The Kalmuks are divided into three ranks; the nobility, whom they call white bones; the common people, who are bondmen, and termed black bones; and the clergy, descending from both, who are free.' In like manner the noble ladies are called white flesh; and the common women black flesh: but pedigrees are only reckoned by the bones. The power of the *Taidsha*, or chief prince, consists solely in the number and opulence of his subjects, territory being of no estimation in so wide a region. These subjects form an *Olufs*, divided into *Imaks*, from 150 to 300 families; each *Imak* being commanded by a *Saiffar*, or noble. If there be a great Khan, or emperor, the princes are only guided by him in affairs of general importance. The tribute is about a tenth part of the cattle, and other property; but on the first summons every man must appear on horseback before the prince, who dismisses those who are unfit for the fatigues of war. The weapons are bows, lances, and sabres, and sometimes fire arms; and the rich warriors are clothed in mail of interwoven rings, like that used in Europe till the fifteenth century. But they cannot oppose regular armies, and are apt even to disorder that of their allies.

The Monguls are rather short in stature, with flat visage, small oblique eyes,* thick lips, and a short chin, with a scanty beard. The

* Tooke, iv. 14.

* The eye ascending towards the temples, like the Chinese, seems a peculiar feature of the Monguls and Mandshurs. The Tatar eye is small, but straight, or horizontal.

MANNERS
AND
CUSTOMS.

ears are very large and prominent, the hair black, and the complexion of a reddish, or yellowish brown; but that of the women is clear, and of a healthy white and red. They have surprising quickness of sight and apprehension; and are docile, hospitable, beneficent, active, and voluptuous. Industry is a virtue entirely female; yet great, and accompanied with perpetual cheerfulness. Their religious books are in the dialect of Tangut, or Tibet, and there is a schoolmaster in every Imak, who imparts more knowledge to the boys than would be expected. Marriages are celebrated at an early age; and the bride brings a dower in cattle, or sheep. The tent has a fire place in the middle; and in the deserts dried cow dung is used for fuel. The tents of the nobles are hung with silk, and the floor covered with carpets of Persia. The household utensils are numerous; and in the superior tents are vessels of pewter, silver, and porcelain. The dress consists of a flat yellow bonnet, while the head is shaven except one lock. The trowsers are wide, the vest of light stuff with narrow sleeves, and a girdle which supports the sabre, knife, and implements for smoking tobacco. The outer garment is of cloth, with wide sleeves, and linen is wound about the feet, over which are drawn buskins of leather, generally black or yellow. Shirts are unknown: and the dress of the women is the same, but instead of the outer garment they wear a gown without sleeves. The hair of the females is long, and plaited in tresses. Animal food is abundant, and sometimes mixed with vegetable; while the general drink is water; but they sometimes indulge in sour milk, prepared after the Tatarian manner, butter milk, and koumiss, but mead and brandy are now greater favourites. When pasturage begins to fail, the whole tribes strike their tents, generally from ten to fifteen times in the year, proceeding in the summer to the northern, and in the winter to the southern wilds. The herds, men, women, and children, form a regular procession; and are followed by the girls, singing with harmony and spirit. The amusements of these jovial wanderers consist in running races on horseback, in which even the girls excel; archery, wrestling, pantomime, dances, and the songs of the young women, generally accompanied by the lute, viol, and pipe, the themes of their ditties being gigantic tales of chivalry, and amorous

adventures and sentiments, but the melody is harsh and dismal. Cards ^{MANNERS} are not unknown, but chess is the favourite game. The bodies of the ^{AND} princes, and chief priests are burnt with many solemnities; and the ^{CUSTOMS.} tombs are sometimes walled, and ornamented with high poles and fantastic drapery.

Mr. Tooke has printed some curious pieces of Kalmuk poetry, from which a characteristic specimen shall be selected, being an elegy on the secession of a hord on the Volga, which, disgusted by the Russian domination, sought the protection of China.*

“ The water of the vast ocean,
When it has raged with all its fury, becalms itself again;
This is the course of the world; and likewise still to forget.
Ye white herds, with the mark of Schæbner!
Thou prince Schereng, in the van as conductor,
Riding on thy noble reddish-bay horse;
The prince Zebek following with his numerous troop,
Ah! Ubaschakhan, conduct as now the Torgots!
There over rocks, over stones, and rough places,
The herds drag themselves along, and become lean,
By flying over the land all covered with snow and frost.
Ah! how the droves trot over the snow!
Now you are got thither and come to your resting place.
Why was there any quarrel between thee and the white Khan?†
Ye otherwise peaceful Torgots between the Yaik and the Volga,
How far ye now retreat!
Ah! the beautiful Volga (Idshel) is abandoned by the Torgot.
Ah! the lovely stream of Mazak is now likewise become an orphan.
Ah! thy many excellent young princes,
Ye are now all marched far away over the Yaik.
Ah! thou well arranged troop of Torgots,
Art now perhaps arrived at the Irtisch (Ertischia).
Ah! helpless lamentable time!
Thou excellent host of warriors marching towards Altai,
Ye have no princely women among you!
Fare ye well, ye who bring up the rear of the hord,
Princes Akfakal and Kirep!”

Such, with some slight shades of difference, are also the manners of the Tatars, and Mandshurs; and Rousseau might, with far more plausibility, have enquired concerning the perfection, and happiness of

* Russia 1783, 4 vols. 8vo. vol. iv. p. 66.

† Zagan Khaian, the name by which the Russian monarch is known among almost all the eastern nations.

MANNERS
AND
CUSTOMS.
Northern
Tunguses.

man among those spirited and gay tribes of barbarians, than among the savages of Africa, or America.

“The Tunguses wander over an amazing extent of ground, from the mouth of the Amur, to the Baikal Lake, the rivers Angara, or Tunguska, Lena, Aldan, Yudoma, Mayo, Ud, the sea coast of Ochotsk, the Amicon, Kovima, Indigirka, Alafey, the coast of the Icy Sea, and all the mountains of these parts; constantly on the look-out for animals of the chase.* They seldom reside more than six days in one place, but remove their tents, though it be to the small distance of twenty fathoms, and this only in the fishing season, and during the time of collecting berries in such solitary places as are far distant from the habitation of Cossacs.† Here they leave their supplies of dried fish and berries, in large boxes built on trees or poles, for the benefit of themselves and their tribes in travelling during the winter. Berries they dry by mixing them with the undigested food (*lichen*) out of the stomach of the rein-deer, making their cakes, which they spread on the bark of trees, and dry upon their huts in the sun or wind.

“They seem callous to the effects of heat or cold; their tents are covered with shamoy, or the inner bark of the birch, which they render as pliable as leather, by rolling it up; and keeping it for some time in the steam of boiling water and smoke.

“Their winter dress is the skin of the deer, or wild sheep dressed with the hair on; a breast-piece of the same which ties round the neck, and reaches down to the waist, widening towards the bottom, and neatly ornamented with embroidery and beads; pantaloons of the same materials, which also furnish them with short stockings, and boots of the legs of rein-deer with the hair outward; a fur cap and gloves. Their summer dress only differs in being simple leather without the hair.

“They obtain supplies of food from the Russian inhabitants of the Amicon, Indigirka, Uyandina, Alafey, Kovima, Zashiversk, Ochotsk, &c. They are religious observers of their word, punctual and exact in traffic; some few are christened; but the greater part are Demonolatrians, have their forcerers, and sacrifice chiefly to evil spirits.

* Sauer's expedition of Billings, London 1802, p. 47.

† “They say, that their tents contract a disagreeable smell from remaining long in one place.”

"An unchristened Tunguse went into one of the churches at Yakutsk, placed himself before the painting of Saint Nicholas, bowed very respectfully, and laid down a number of rich skins, consisting of black and red foxes, fables, squirrels, &c. which he took out of a bag. On being asked why he did so, he replied, 'My brother, who is christened, was so ill that we expected his death. He called upon Saint Nicholas, but would have no forcerer. I promised that if Nicholas would let him live, I would give him what I caught in my first chase. My brother recovered, I obtained these skins and there they are.' He then bowed again and retired.

"They commonly hunt with the bow and arrow, but some have rifle-barrelled guns. They do not like to bury their dead, but place the body dressed in its best apparel, in a strong box, and suspend it between two trees. The implements of the chase belonging to the deceased are buried under the box. Except a forcerer is very near, no ceremony is observed, but in his presence they kill a deer, offer a part to the demons, and eat the rest.

"They allow polygamy; but the first wife is the chief, and is attended by the rest. The ceremony of marriage is a simple purchase of a girl from her father; from 20 to 100 deer are given, or the bridegroom works a stated time for the benefit of the bride's father. The unmarried are not remarkable for chastity. A man will give his daughter for a time to any friend or traveller that he takes a liking to; if he has no daughter, he will give his servant, but not his wives.

"They are rather below the middle size, and extremely active; have lively smiling countenances with small eyes; and both sexes are great lovers of brandy.

"I asked my Tunguse, why they had not settled places of residence? They answered, that they know no greater curse than to live in one place, like a Russian, or Yakut, where filth accumulates, and fills the habitation with stench and disease.

"They wander about the mountains, and seldom visit such plains as are inhabited by the Yakuts; but frequently resort to the solitary habitations of the Cossacs appointed to the different stages, as they are there generally supplied with brandy, needles, thread, and such trifles as are

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MANNERS
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requisite among them and their women, who always accompany them in their wanderings."

Concerning the manners of the Samoieds little is known, as no inquisitive traveller has visited their bleak and barren heaths, and marshes. Mr. Pennant has styled them the Hottentots of the north, and describes them as resembling the Laplanders, but far more ugly and brutal.* They use the rein deer to draw their sledges, but seem strangers to its milk, and feed foully on quadrupeds, and fish.

Kamchadals.

A late ingenious traveller affords more precise information concerning the manners of the Kamchadals, and the Techuks, the most remote people of Asiatic Russia.† He travelled in the winter, when the snowy hurricanes were often so thick as to obstruct the view as much as a heavy fog. The isbas, or balagans, huts of the Kamchadals, are in the south raised on posts, about 12 or 13 feet high, for the purpose of drying their fish, almost their only food. A cotton shirt is worn next their skin, with trowsers, and a loose frock of deer skin; the boots are of tanned leather, and the cap of fur. The men are chiefly occupied in catching fish, and in the summer the women proceed to the woods to gather fruits and vegetables, when they abandon themselves to a kind of bacchanalian frenzy. The Kamchadals are of small stature, with little hollow eyes, prominent cheek bones, flat nose, black hair, scarcely any beard, and a tawny complexion. They considerably resemble the Japanese; and their character is mild and hospitable. Instead of the rein deer, the dogs, which resemble the shepherd curs of France, draw a light sledge, upon which the traveller sits in a side position. In the north of Kamchatka the hovels are partly excavated under ground, like those which Dr. Brown observed near Belgrade, for the sake of warmth, but the confined air, and stench are almost insupportable.

Techuks.

The Techuks, who in all scarcely exceed a thousand families, are generally found in small camps, pitched by the side of the rivers. The rude tents are square, consisting of four poles supporting skins of

* Arc. Zool. p. cliv.

† Travels in Kamchatka by Lesseps, 1790. 2 vols. 8vo. Lesseps attended La Perouse, and returned with dispatches through Asiatic Russia.

rein deer, which also form the covering; before every tent are spears, and arrows, fixed in the snow against any sudden attacks of the Koriaks, who, though of the same race, are a more malicious and enterprising people. In the midst is a stove, and the bed consists of small branches of trees spread on the snow, and covered with deer skins. Their habitations and food are dirty and disgusting; and the dress of the women consists only of a single deer skin fastened at the neck, so that on losing one knot the lady remains naked. The features are coarse, but they have not the flat noses, nor little hollow eyes of the Kamchadals; and Lesséps pronounces their countenance to have nothing of the Asiatic form, in which assertion he had been preceded by Pallas and Tooke. Even the Koriaks are supposed not to exceed 2000 families.⁹

MANNERS
AND
CUSTOMS.

Further to the west the Yakuts, around the town called Yakutsk, and a tribe of the same people, called Yukagirs, near the Arctic ocean, are degenerate Tatars who fled into these remote regions from the power of the Monguls, and preserve their language and manners, as far as a more severe climate will permit. The Ostiaks are chiefly Samoieds, though some of their tribes seem to be Fins, who, in the interchange of nomadic nations, have passed from the European side of the Uralian chain.

Upon the whole the three distinct barbaric nations of Tatars, Monguls, and Tunguses, or Mandshurs, are by far the most interesting in these middle regions of Asia, as their ancestors have overturned the greatest empires, and repeatedly influenced the destiny of half the globe. The vague name of Tartary is nearly discarded from our maps, and might yield with far greater precision to names derived from the seats of the chief nations, as Tungusia, or Mandshuria, in the east, Mongolia in the centre, and Tataria in the west. Of these the Monguls are the chief people, and the account already given of their manners will suffice, with the preceding descriptions of some other tribes, to impart an idea of the ethical condition of Asiatic Russia.

The languages of all these original nations are radically different; and among the Tunguses, Monguls, and Tatars, there are some slight

Language.

⁹ Lesséps, ii. 84.

LANGUAGE. traces of literature; and not a few manuscripts in their several languages.
Literature. The history of the Tatars, by Abulgasi, is a favourable specimen of Tataric composition. The late emperor of China ordered many of the best Chinese works to be translated into the Mandshur language, which, having an alphabet, may be more easily acquired than the original. In the Mongul language there are also many books, written in the various countries to which their wide conquests extended. Superior, even amid their barbarism, to the chief original nations of Africa, and America, the central races of Asia deserve an attention which has been lavished upon inferior objects.

**Cities and
 Towns.**
Astracan.

In Asiatic Russia the principal city is Astracan, at the mouth of the Volga, which is supposed to contain 70,000 inhabitants. This city was founded by the Tatars, or rather Monguls of Kipschak, yet some assert that the Russians built Astracan before Batu, the Mongul conqueror, seized this region. In 1554 the Monguls were expelled; and in 1569 it was besieged by the Turks, who, being suddenly attacked by the Russians, were defeated with great slaughter. In 1672 it fell under the destructive power of the insurgent Rasin, who in a few years met with a deserved punishment. Astracan is built on several small hills, that rise amid the meadows of the Volga. The fortress on the west is triangular, but the walls of the city are neglected. The wooden houses have exposed it to frequent conflagrations, and attempts have been vainly made to enforce the use of brick. Vines are cultivated in the neighbourhood, and other fruits abound. There are twenty-five Russian churches, and two convents. The Armenians, Lutherans, and Papists, have also their places of worship; and even the Hindoos have been permitted to erect a temple.⁷ The chief trade of Astracan is in salt and fish, particularly sturgeon, and kaviar, from the Volga; and it also attracts some portion of oriental commerce. The fishery on the Caspian, which centers at Astracan, is esteemed of the utmost consequence to the empire.

Azof.

Azof, on the Asiatic side of the Don, is of small importance, except as a fortified post. The chief towns on the Asiatic side of the

⁷ Tooke's Russia, iv. 341, &c.

Volga are Samara, and Stauropol. At the mouth of the river Ural, CITIES AND TOWNS. or Jaik, stands Gurief; but the chief place after Astracan is Orenburgh, founded in the year 1740, to protect the acquisitions in these parts, and promote their commerce. Nor have these views failed, for Orenburgh is the seat of a considerable trade with the tribes on the east of the Caspian.

On passing the Uralian chain first occurs the city of Tobolsk, which Tobolsk. only contains about 15,000 souls, but is esteemed the capital of Siberia. Being mostly built of wood, it was nearly consumed by a violent fire about 1786; but it is believed is now rebuilt chiefly of stone. Tobolsk is more distinguished as the residence of the governor and archbishop, than for the importance of its commerce. The upper town stands on a hill, on the east side of the Irtysh, and contains a stone fortress of some strength. Indian goods are brought hither by Kalmuk and Bucharian merchants; and provisions are cheap and plentiful.

Kolyvan is a town of some consequence on the river Ob. In the Kolyvan. neighbourhood there are silver mines of considerable produce. To the north of Kolyvan is Tomsk, said to contain about 8000 souls.

Further to the east the towns become of less consequence, but a village attracts attention when situated in a desert. On the river Yenisei is a small town of the same name; and another called Sayansk, whence the adjacent part of the Altaian chain is called the mountains of Sayansk.

On the river Angara, which issues from the sea of Baikal, stands Irkutsk, supposed to contain 12,000 inhabitants. There are several Irkutsk; churches and other edifices of stone, and the wooden houses are large and convenient. Irkutsk is the chief mart of the commerce between Russia and China, the seat of an archbishop, and the seat of supreme jurisdiction over eastern Siberia.* The numerous officers, and magistrates have introduced the customs and fashions of Peterburgh, and European equipages are not uncommon in this distant region.

* Lesspe, ii. 344.

On

Volga

CITIES AND
TOWNS.
Yakutsk.

On the wide and frozen Lena stands Yakutsk, with some stone churches, but the houses are mostly of wood, and inhabited chiefly by Russians, as the Yakuts are fond of a wandering life. Lesséps says that the Lena is here about two leagues in width, (though about 700 miles from its mouth,) but is greatly impeded with ice; and there are only a few small barks, chiefly employed in supplying the town with provisions. Ochotsk, on the sea of the same name, may be rather regarded as a station than a town.

Manufac-
tures.

There are some manufactures, particularly in leather, at Astracan; and salt is prepared there, and in several other places in Asiatic Russia. Ifinglass is chiefly manufactured on the shores of the Caspian, from the sounds or air-bladder of the sturgeon, and the beluga. Kaviar is the salted roe of large fish. There is a considerable fabric of nitre, about 40 miles to the north of Astracan; but though aluminous earth abound near the Argoon, and Yenisei, yet it is almost neglected. The Tatars and Bashkirs make felts of a large size, some of which are exported. The Russia leather is chiefly fabricated in the European provinces, being tanned with willow bark, and afterwards stained. Shagreen is prepared from the hides of horses, or asses, but only a particular part of the back is fit for this purpose; and the grain is given with the hard seeds of the greater Orach, prest into the leather while moist.² Pitch is made by the boors from the pines of Siberia. Near the Uralian mountains are several manufactures in iron and copper.

Commerce.

The chief commerce of this part of the Russian empire consists in fables, and other valuable furs, which are eagerly bought by the Chinese, who return tea, silk, and nankeen. That with the Kinguses consists in exchanging Russian woollen cloths, iron, and household articles, for horses, cattle, sheep, and beautiful sheep skins. On the Black Sea there is some commerce with Turkey, the exports being furs, kaviar, iron, linen, &c. and the imports wine, fruit, coffee, silks, rice. In the trade on the Caspian the exports are the same;

² Tooke's View, iii. 531.

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but the return chiefly silk. The principal Russian harbours are Astracan, Grief, and Kisliar, near the mouth of the Terek, but the best haven is Baku, belonging to the Persians. The Tatars, on the east of the Caspian, bring the products of their country, and of Bucharia, as cotton yarn, furs, stuffs, hides, rhubarb; but the chief article is raw silk, from Shirvan, and Ghilan, on the west of the Caspian.

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CHAPTER IV.

NATURAL GEOGRAPHY.

Climate and Seasons.—Face of the Country.—Soil and Agriculture.—Rivers.—Lakes.—Mountains.—Forests.—Botany.—Zoology.—Mineralogy.—Mineral Waters.—Natural Curiosities.

CLIMATE
AND SEASONS.

IN Asiatic Russia the climate extends from the vine at the bottom of Caucasus, to the solitary lichen on the rocks of the arctic ocean. Through the greater part of Siberia, the most southern frontier being about 50° , while the northern ascends to 78° , the general climate may more justly be regarded as frigid than temperate; being, in three quarters of the country, on a level with that of Norway and Lapland, untempered by the gales of the Atlantic. To the south of the sea of Baikal the climate parallels with that of Berlin, and the north of Germany, so that the finest and most fertile regions in middle Asia belong to the Chinese. The chains of high mountains, which form the southern boundary of these provinces, also contribute to increase the cold; and the sea of Baikal is commonly entirely frozen from December till May. The finest climate in these eastern parts seems to be that of Daouria, or the province around Nershinsk; and the numerous towns on the Amur evince the great superiority of what is called Chinese Tatory, which is comparatively a fertile and temperate region. The change of the seasons is very rapid: the long winter is almost instantaneously succeeded by a warm spring; and the quickness and luxuriance of the vegetation exceed description.

Face of the
Country.

In a general view of Asiatic Russia, the northern and eastern parts present vast marshy plains, covered with almost perpetual snow, and pervaded by enormous rivers, which, under masses of ice, pursue their dreary

dreary way to the Arctic ocean. Even the central parts of Siberia seem destitute of trees, vegetation being checked by the severe cold of so wide a continent. Towards the south there are vast forests of pine, fir, larch, and other trees, among which is a kind of mulberry, which might probably thrive equally in many climates which are now destitute of that valuable tree. The sublime scenes around the sea of Baikal are agreeably contrasted with the marks of human industry, the cultivated field and the garden.* Even in the south the rivers have already acquired the size of the Danube, and the Rhine, and they are navigable with safety for a great extent. The vast plains called steppes constitute a feature almost peculiarly Asiatic; but the mountains do not correspond in dignity, rather resembling the Apennines, than the Alps, or even the Pyrenees.

FACE OF
THE COUN-
TRY.

Towards the furthest north, our ideas of the general state of the country may be partly derived from a voyage down the Ob †, published by Pallas, from the voyages to Novaya Zemla, or the New Land, and to the adjacent shore, and from the recent expedition of Billings to the mouth of the Kovima. Gmelin has described the countries near Mangazeia and Obdorsk, the former being a town near the mouth of the Tas, but the new station is more commonly called Turechansk, seated on a branch of the Yenesei, while Obdorsk is near the junction of the river Ob with its gulph. From the voyage to the Frozen ocean, published by Pallas, it appears that the right bank of the Ob, after it is joined by the Irtysh, is generally mountainous, while the left is flat. At Obdorsk the summer is very short, but the sun never sets in that season. Near the Frozen ocean are primitive mountains of granite with asbestos, micaceous schistus, and petrosilex, while the vegetable tribes are dwarf willows and birches, and the arbutus alpina. It was reported that the chain of Uralian mountains terminates opposite to Novaya Zemla. The skull of a rhinoceros was found very far to the north, and the bones of the Mammoth are thrown ashore from the Frozen ocean. It is not impossible that these remains may have been driven by currents from very distant quarters of the globe, and even deposited on the banks of

* See Bell's animated description of this region.

† Pallas, v. 79.

FACE OF
THE COUN-
TRY.

rivers by the tide when a great part of the north of Siberia was covered by the sea. From the voyage of Billings, it appears that these bones particularly abound in the parts which he visited; he says, that the tusks of the Mammoth are equal to elephant's teeth in whiteness and beauty, but very different in their shape, being all bent spirally, forming about one round and a half. Eight feet form the greatest length. On the eastern shores of the river Covima, which are likewise high, are found granite, agates, calcedony, and jasper*. The larch extends to 68°. 30' while creeping willows are found on the icy sea, where they are from six to eight inches in length.

Soil and
Agriculture.

Many parts of Siberia are totally incapable of agriculture; but in the southern and western districts the soil is of remarkable fertility. Towards the north of Kolyvan barley generally yields more than twelve fold, and oats commonly twenty fold. Buck wheat, in this black light mould, is apt to run into stalk, but sown in the poorest spots yields from twelve to fifteen fold. Exclusive of winter wheat, most of the usual European grains prosper in southern Siberia. It is remarkable that the culture of potatoes has not yet appeared, the Russians having some strange prejudice against that invaluable plant. In some parts flax grows wild, and hemp is also prepared from the nettle. Woad is found in Siberia, and saffron near the Caucasus. The culture of the olive tree has been attempted near Astracan, and the heat of the summer was sufficient, but the winter cold too severe. The best rhubarb abounds on the banks of the Ural, or Jaik, in the southern districts watered by the Yenisei, and in the mountains of Daouria, and might be cultivated with advantage in these its native regions.

But in all parts of the Russian empire agriculture has made little progress; nor indeed is it possible while the peasantry are slaves, and sold with the soil: and if even a free farmer acquire a little money, a noble neighbour will seize the fruits of his industry. In spite of these obstacles an intelligent traveller was surprised at the abundance of buck wheat, rye, barley, oats, and other grain which he observed to the south of Tobolsk; where the cattle were also very numerous, and in

* Sauer's Expedition of Billings 1802, 4to. p. 93-84.

! Tooke's View, iii. 238.

the

the winter fed with hay.² Nay he assures us that in 1720, when he accompanied the Russian ambassador to Peking, he observed to the south of the sea of Baikal rich crops of *wheat*, rye, barley, oats, buck wheat, and peas, besides culinary plants; but the inhabitants had not then begun to plant any fruit trees, though in his opinion they would prosper, as the snow never lay above two months on the ground.¹ The large garden strawberry, called haut-bois, is found wild in the territory of Irkutsk: and on the Altaian mountains the red currant attains the size of a common cherry, ripening in large bunches of excellent flavour. Near the Volga and the Ural are excellent melons of various kinds. Bees are not known in Siberia; but among the Bashkirs, to the west of the Uralian chain, form an article of great advantage to the farmer.

SOIL AND
AGRICUL-
TURE.

Some of the largest rivers of Asia belong to the Russian empire, nearly equalling in the length of their course any others on the globe. The Ob, including its wide estuary, may be said to hold a comparative course of 1,900 British miles; while that of the Yenesei is about 1750; and that of the Lena 1570. In the same mode of mensuration the Hoan Ho of the Chinese, will, in its wandering progress, exceed the Ob; while the Kian Ku, pervading the center of China, may be traced, if the Porticho be included, for a length of about 2000 miles!

Rivers.

The Ob may be traced from the lake of Altyn, lat 51°, if its source be not even followed along the Shabekan river to lat 47°. The upper Irtysh flows into the lake of Saifan, whence it issues under the name of Lower Irtysh, and after a circuit of great extent joins the Ob below Samarof. It rises about the 45°, and ought perhaps to be regarded as the principal stream. But such doubts are frequent concerning the Siberian rivers in particular, the names, and distinctions proposed by ignorant barbarians, usurping the place of exact geography. However this be, the Ob, piercing the Altaian chain, after having received many small streams, passes Kolyvan, and at some distance to the N. receives the

Ob.

¹ Bell, i. 228. 8vo. edition.

² Ib. 326. Pallas, iv. 347. says that the Cossacs find that grain sown on calcareous hills: thrives better than any where else. Hence such hills are often observed in Britain and Ireland to have been ploughed in ancient times when the low lands were probably only large marshes.

RIVERS. Tomm, and other large rivers from the east. Below Samarof, as already mentioned, it receives the great river Irtysh, and runs into the sea of Ob, a gulph of the Arctic ocean. The Ob is navigable almost to its source, that is to the lake of Altyn, and abounds with fish, but the sturgeon of the Irtysh are the most esteemed. After it has been frozen for some time the water becomes foul and fetid, owing to the slowness of the current, and the vast morasses; but the river is purified in the spring by the melting of the snow.* This is justly and universally esteemed the largest river in the Russian empire. The shores and channel are generally rocky till it receive the Ket; after which the course is through clay, marl, sand, and morasses.

Yenisei. Next is the Yenisei, which is considered as deriving its source from the mountains to the S. W. of the Baikal, in the river called Siskit; but the name Yenisei is not imparted till many streams have joined, when it holds its course almost due north to the Arctic ocean. Yet with far more propriety might the Yenisei be derived from the sea of Baikal, whence flows the Angara, afterwards absurdly called Tunguska,* being a stream of more length and importance than the Yenisei, so that the name of Angara might be continued till it join the Arctic sea.† This river has some rapides, but is navigable for a great way.

Angara. The Angara, afterwards called Tunguska, is said to be about a mile in breadth, when it issues from the Baikal, and is so clear that the pebbles of the bottom may be seen at the depth of two fathoms.‡ The channel is full of rocks for the space of about a mile from its egress; and there is no passage for the smallest boats, except along the eastern bank. “The waters dashing upon the stones make a noise like the roaring of the sea, so that people near them can scarce hear one another speak. I cannot express the awfulness with which one is struck at the sight of such astonishing scenes of nature, as appear round this place, and which

* Pennant, *Arc. Zool.* clxi.

‡ There are two other rivers of this name further to the north, the largest joining the Yenisei in lat. 66°. But Mr. Pennant's *Maogzea* seems very doubtful, if it be not the village, or station called *Tourouk Hank*.

† Accordingly De Guignes, in his description of *Tatary*, p. lxi. tells us, that according to the Chinese geographers, the Angara leaves the lake Baikal, receives the Yenisei, and afterwards joins the ocean.

‡ Bell, i. 307—315.

I believe are not to be equalled in the known world. The pilots and ^{RIVERS.} sailors who navigate the lake speak of it with much reverence, calling it the Holy Sea, and the mountains about it the Holy Mountains; and are highly displeas'd with any person who speaks of it with disrespect, or calls it a lake.*

The Selinga is a noble river, further to the south, which flows into ^{Selinga.} the sea of Baikal,* after receiving the Orchon and other rivers, among which is the Tula, or Tola, the last stream that occurs till the wide desert be pass'd, which here divides the Russian empire from China proper. The territory adjacent to the Selinga and the Onon is the most interesting in Siberia, abounding with new, and truly Asiatic botany, and zoology.

The last of these large rivers is the Lena, which rises to the west of ^{Lena.} the sea of Baikal, running nearly parallel with the Angara, from which it is separated by a chain of hills. The Lena receives the Witim, and the Olekma from the Yablonoi mountains; and, till near Yakutsk, pursues a course from the S. W. to the N. E., a direction of considerable utility, as affording navigation to the remote regions. From Yakutsk the course is nearly due north; the channel being of great breadth and full of islands. The current of the Lena is generally gentle, and the bottom sandy. Travellers sail from the Lena into the Aldan, thence into the Maia, and the Yudoma, their route to Ochotsk, and Kamchatka, being thus expedited.

Such are the most important rivers of Asiatic Russia, the Volga having been already described in the European division. The Yaik is a con- ^{Yaik.} siderable stream which flows into the Caspian: the name was recently changed for that of Ural, on account of a daring insurrection of the tribes bordering on the Yaik.† The Terak also joins the Caspian on the west, and its chief consequence is derived from the fertility of its shores. The Kuban, or ancient Hypanis, runs in an opposite direction into the Euxine, the lower shores being plain, and destitute of wood, while near the sources are large forests.

* Bell, i. 316.

• The Selinga might be regarded as the original Angara, or Yenisei, as the Ob, and Irisk also pass through lakes.

† This river alone rises on the E. of the Ural mountains, and afterwards pierces the granitic chain; and passes W. Dec. Ruff. iv. 309.

RIVERS.

Towards the other extremity of Asiatic Russia is the Anadir, which pervades the country of the Techuks. The long course of the Amur properly belongs to the Chinese dominions. The Argoon may be properly considered as the original Amur, while the Onon also called the Schilka, which is regarded as another source of that great river, may be considered as entirely Russian. The course of the Onon is about 500 miles; and it receives numerous streams from mountains on the N. and S.⁷

Lakes.

In the north of Siberia the most considerable lake is that of Piazinsko. In the south the sea of Baikal is fresh, but the extent far exceeding that of any other lake, it has been described among the inland seas of Asia. Between the river Ob and the Irtysh is a large lake, about half the length of the Baikal, or 170 miles in length, divided by an island into two parts, called the lakes of Tchany and Soumi. In this quarter there are many smaller lakes, and others to the north of the Caspian, some of which are salt, particularly that of Bogdo, near the small mountain so called, and considered as proofs of the northern extension of that sea. The Altan Nor, or golden lake, sometimes corruptly called Elton, is a large saline lake on the E. of Zaritzin. The lake of Altyn, already mentioned in the account of the river Ob, is called by the Russians Teletzko, and is considerably elevated on the north side of the Altaian mountains; but from the best maps is not above 40 miles in length, and 20 in breadth.

Mountains.

The Uralian mountains have been already described in the account of European Russia. The grandest chain in Siberia is that called the mountains of Altai which, according to Pallas,* crossing the head of the Irtysh, presents precipitous and snowy summits between that river and the sources of the Ob. Thence it winds by the springs of the Yenisei, and the south of the sea of Baikal, where it is called the mountains of Sayansk. Here the Altaian chain bends in a more northerly direction to the neighbourhood of Ochofsk, under the ap-

Altai.

⁷ Dec. R. vi. 363.

* He begins with the Great Bogdo, which, as afterwards appears is a central summit, like St. Gothard in the Alps. The western commencement seems to be about long. 70° E. from London. See Arrowsmith's map of Asia, Illenief, &c.

pellation of the Yablonoi ridge, a name implying the mountains of Apples.* Branches of inferior height pass to the eastern extremity of Asia under the latter name, or that of the Stanovoi mountains. The same chain in the north of Daouria is also called the Daourian mountains; and in this quarter a lower ridge passes due south towards China.

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TAINS.

The Altaian chain, strictly so called, is by the Chinese denominated the Golden Ridge, perhaps from the rich metals which it contains. The stepp, or desert of Issim, seems to divide and distinguish it from the mountains of Ural, which bend by the west of Orenburgh: and there are salt lakes and other signs that the Caspian anciently extended in this direction.

According to Dr. Pallas Bogdo Tola, or Bogdo Alim, the almighty mountain, rears its pointed summits with striking sublimity, on the limit between the Soongarian and Mongolian deserts, while a chain extends to the lake of Altyn in the N. W., and another to the S. E. called Changay, and a snowy ridge, that of Massart, passes south, and is supposed to join those of Tibet;† and lastly, this parent mountain sends forth a rocky arm "called Allakoola, or the chequered ridge, and by the Tartars Ala Tau, connected with the Kirgussian Alginfkoi Sirt." Between the last ridge, and the Massart, according to our author, rise the river Sirr, or Sihon, and the Talas. From Alla koola the Ili runs north into the lake of Palkati, or Balkash, and the Emil and Tshui flow in the same direction. From the mighty Bogdo itself rises the upper Irtysh, which flows into the lake of Saizan: hence this great mountain must be situated about long. 93°. lat. 44°. It is thus probable that the Altaian chain is connected with the southern by other ridges besides that of Massart, the deserts between Siberia, and Hindostan, and eastern Bucharia being alternate hills and plains, and extremely rocky.‡

Bogdo Alim-

* The name is rather a mere corruption of the Bouriat appellation *Yaleni-Daba*. Pallas, v. 378.
 † This Massart, or Musart, may possibly be the A'ak, (Aluk ula, or Alak Tag,) which joins the Belur Tag; but Mr. Tooke's translation from the German is far from clear, or applicable to modern maps. View of Russia, i. 145—175. See also Pallas *Sur la formation des Montagnes*, Paris 1779, abridged in the sixth volume of the *Decouvertes Russes*.
 ‡ Pallas, ib.

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TAINS.

The western part of the Altaian chain is chiefly argillaceous, with granitic heights, containing schorl, but many parts are calcareous. Sinnaia-Sopka, or the blue mountain, the chief summit in the government of Kolyvan, does not exceed 3000 feet above the sea, and consists of coarse granite, with argillaceous schistus, and limestone at the bottom. Here a granitic ridge runs north towards the river Tfarish, abounding with ores of silver, copper, and zinc. Wacken, and siliceous schistus, with hornblende, and felspar, are also frequent in this part. The Schlangenberg is the richest in minerals, and near the river Alay to the N. W. branches of hills continue full of minerals, and often composed of porphyry, and granite, one of them on the north of the river Ouba rising to 5691 English feet above the bed of the stream. That space of the Altaian chain which runs between the Ob and the Yenisei has been little explored; but affords granite, porphyry, jasper, primitive and secondary limestone, with serpentine, petrosilex, slate, mountain crystal, carnelian, and calcedony: one of the highest summits is the Sabin, near the source of the Abakan. In general they are bare, the chief forests being in the bottoms near the rivers, and consisting of pines, firs, larches, cedars, birch, aspine, alder, and willow. That portion called the Sayansk mountains also consists chiefly of granite, and porphyry, with several mines of talc, or Muscovy glass. Branches extend on both sides of the sea of Baikal, likewise presenting mines of talc, and promontories of milk white quartz, other summits are of fine grained granite, and sometimes there are masses of felspar containing green schorl. Near Irkutsk coal has been found; and there are salt springs in many places. Other products of this rich district shall be mentioned in the mineralogy.

Nershinsk.

The mountains of Nershinsk, or Russian Daouria, send branches towards the Selinga, and the Amur. The chief heights are towards the sources of the Onon, and Ingoda, where there are precipitous summits of granite. A ridge passing S. W. and N. E. to the south of Nershinsk between the rivers Onon and Argoon, (the last of which is the real Amur,) is the most fertile in minerals of all Asiatic Russia. Among the products may be named granite, porphyry, jasper, calcedony, carnelian, onyx, petrosilex, large smoaky topazes, beryl, or aqua marine, the

the real topaz, the jacint, and beautiful schorls; with serpentine, asbestos, ^{MOUN-} ^{TAINS.} smectite, or indurated steatite, and alabaster, besides slate, and limestone. In this opulent district are also salt lakes, and warm springs with vitriolic pyrites, ores of alum, native sulphur, and coals. The metals are zinc, iron, copper; and many mines of lead ore, containing silver, and gold. The zoology and botany are alike curious and interesting.*

The chain of Stanovoi, otherwise called the mountains of Ochotsk, ^{Stanovoi.} is only a continuation of the mountains of Daouria. This part has been little explored; but produces granite, porphyry, calcedony, and carnelian, with rock crystal, sulphureous pyrites, and ores of alum, and it is said that coal is found in this district. A great singularity of this ridge is, that some entire branches consist of beautiful red and green jasper. † That branch which pervades Kamchatka is little known, being covered with perpetual ice and snow, but it abounds with volcanoes; and the isles which stretch towards Japan are frequently volcanic, nor is the latter kingdom yet free from the ravages of burning mountains.

This grand chain contains almost the whole mountains of Siberia, the remainder of the land on the W. of the Yenesei being level; and to the E. of that river are only several long ranges extending from the S. to the N.

But in the S. W. part of Asiatic Russia some ranges deserve attention, as the lower part of the Uralian chain, which bends, as before observed, to the W. above Orenburg. The supposed branch connecting the Uralian and Altaian chains is doubtful, being far to the S. of the Russian boundary, and in a region little explored. ‡

The classical range of Caucasus forms a partial limit between the Russian empire, and those of Turkey and Persia. Between the Euxine and the Caspian the Caucasian chain extends for about 400 B. miles; and where the chief heights are distinctly marked about 5 miles in

* The mountain Adunshollo, celebrated for minerals, is in the southern extremity of Russian Daouria. Dec. Russ. v. 502. That volume, and the sixth, or last, may be consulted for an account of this country.

† This beautiful substance extends even to Gore island, which is composed of green, red, and chiefly yellow jasper, veined with calcedony. Sauer, 235.

‡ Pallas mentions it in general terms as low and broken; and considers the Uralian ridge as bending S. W. towards the Yaik, and the Caspian. See Independent Tatary.

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breadth, but in many places 20 or 30. The summits are covered with eternal ice and snow; and consist as usual of granite, succeeded by slate and limestone. In ancient times they produced gold; and there are still vestiges of silver, lead, and copper; and it is supposed of lapis lazuli. The vales abound with excellent forest trees.*

Forestr.

Asiatic Russia is so abundant in forests that particular names have not been assigned to so vast an extent. On the west of the government of Irkutsk an enormous, dark, and marshy forest of resinous trees extends to the river Kan.² The northern and eastern parts of Siberia are bare of wood; the Norway fir not being found farther north than lat. 60°, while the silver fir does not exceed lat. 58°. In Europe, on the contrary, the Norway fir forms extensive forests in Lapmark, within the arctic circle.³

Stepps:

After the forests may be considered the extensive level plains, an appearance of nature almost peculiar to Asia, and some parts of European Russia; but somewhat similar to the sandy deserts of Africa. The stepps are not so barren of vegetation, being mostly only sandy, with scattered patches of thin grass, and at wide intervals a stunted thicket. Between the mouths of the Don and Volga is a stepp which resembles the bed of a sea; with spots of salt, and saline lakes, being entirely destitute of fresh water and wood.⁴

On the eastern side of the Volga begins an extensive stepp, formerly called that of the Kalmuks, from tribes who used to roam there, till they withdrew from the Russian dominions in 1771. To the S. it is bounded by the Caspian sea, and the lake Aral; while to the N. it may be regarded as connected with the stepp of Iffim; and on the E. may be considered as extending to the river Sarafu; the greater part not belonging to the Russian dominions, but being abandoned to the wander-

* See the last travels of Pallas, 1793-4, London 1801, 2 vols. 4to. In vol. i. p. 335, there is a curious description of the Caucasian chain, which may be compared with that of Gmelin, Dec. Russ. ii. iii. The Persian name of the chief summit, *Elburz*, (see D'Anville's map of Asia) the Doctor latinises *Elburnus*, and then puzzles himself concerning the etymon. This stupendous alp Pallas supposes equal in height to Mont Blanc: it seems central, but nearer the Euxine than the Caspian. The Beth Tau is calcareous, and collects vapours like other calcareous mountains. Ib. iii. 70. The other chief heights are *Kathorgan*, *Barmamut*, *Urdu*, *Kandhal*.

Sherefedin styles the whole chain of Caucasus *Alburz*.

² Dec. Russ. vi. 183.

³ Pennant, A. Z. p. clxxx.

⁴ Tooke's View, i. 178.

ing Kirguses. This vast desert extends about 700 B. miles from ^{STEPPES.} E. to W.; and, including Issim, nearly as far from N. to S., but on the N. of the Caspian the breadth does not exceed 220. A ridge of sandy hills stretches from near the termination of the Uralian chain towards the Caspian; the rest is a prodigious sandy level, with sea shells, and salt pools.* There are however small districts capable of improvement; like the Oases, or isles in the midst of the African deserts. The north eastern part of this stepp is connected with that of the Irtysh; nay it is considered as extending even to the Ob, under the name of the Baraba stepp.

This stepp of Baraba, N. W. of Omsk, is about 400 miles in length, and 300 in breadth, containing a few salt lakes, but in general of a good black soil, interspersed with forests of birch.† That of Issim aspires but rarely to the same quality: and in both are found many tombs, inclosing the remains of pastoral chiefs, Tatar or Mongul.

The vast space between the Ob, and the Yenisei, from the north of Tomsk to the arctic ocean, is regarded as one stepp, being a prodigious level with no appearance of a mountain, and scarcely of a hill. The same term is applied to the wider space between the Yenisei, and the Lena, between the arctic ocean on the north, and a river Tunguska ‡ lat. 65°; and to the parts beyond the Lena as far as the river Kolyma, or Covima.

When we consider the vast extent of the Asiatic provinces of the ^{BOTANY.} Russian empire, the scantiness of their population, and the few years that have as yet elapsed since the first attempt to investigate their natural productions, we shall feel rather surprized at what has been

* See in the last travels of Pallas, i. 178, a curious account of a detached mountain in this stepp, towards the Volga, called Bogdo Ula. This hill near the saline lake of Bogdo, has no connection, save in name, with the great mountains of Bogdo, in a remote quarter; the word only signifying *most mighty*, and Ula seems in the Kalmuk to imply a mountain, as in Mandshur a river. This singular solitary hill is visible at the distance of 25 miles.

† The poverty of descriptive language is frequently to be regretted. A Russian stepp sometimes resembles a desert, at other times a savanna waving with luxuriant grass.

‡ This vague name seems only to imply a river of the Tunguses. It is to be wished that the Academy of Sciences at Petersburg would revise the maps of Asiatic Russia, and give us distinct, and pronounceable names. At present we may well wish for more knowledge, and fewer consonants.

BOTANY. done, than disappointed because no greater progress has been made in arranging, and describing their indigenous vegetables. The labours of Steller and Gmelin, and lastly of Pallas, under the munificent patronage of the empress Catharine, have disclosed to the view of science the wilds of Siberia, and the deserts of Tatory, and though many extensive tracts continue wholly unexplored, yet from the ample specimen that has been surveyed, we may form a very probable conjecture concerning the botany of the remainder.*

Russia in Asia, with regard to its flora, is divided by nature into two unequal portions: the smaller of these is bounded on the west by the Don, and Wolga, on the east by the Uralian mountains, and on the south by the Caspian sea, and the Turkish, and Persian frontiers. The climate of this district is delicious, and the soil fertile, it slopes towards the south, and is protected from the northern blasts by lofty mountainous ridges; in its botany it greatly resembles the province of Taurida, of which an account has already been given: the cedar, the cypress, the savine, red juniper, beech, and oak cloath the sides of the mountains; the almond, the peach, and the fig abound in the warm recesses of the rocks: the quince, the apricot, the willow-leaved pear, and the vine are of frequent occurrence in the thickets, and on the edges of the forests. The date-plum, the jujube, and Christ's thorn, are also natives of these provinces, and evince the mildness of the climate: the bogs are adorned by those exquisitely beautiful plants the rhododendron ponticum, and azalea pontica: the olive, the wild olive, the stately wide spreading eastern plane tree, the laurel, the bay, and laurustinus grow in abundance on the shores of the sea of Azof, and the Caspian; and the romantic vales of the Caucasus are perfumed and enlivened with the syringa, the jasmine, the lilac, and the Caucasian rose. From so flattering a specimen it is not to be doubted that future naturalists will gather an abundant harvest of useful and beautiful vegetables in these districts, which have hitherto been very inadequately noticed.

By far the larger part of the Russian dominions in Asia is the wide expanse of Siberia, sloping towards the north and shut up on the

* Pallas, descriptiones plantarum Siberiæ Georgi, Reise im Russischen Reich Gmelin, Flora Siberica.

South by the snowy summits of the Altaian, and other mountain chains. As the winters are of great length and severity throughout the whole of this tract, none but the hardiest vegetables are found to inhabit it. The oak, and the hazle, which endure the rigours of a German winter without shrinking, cannot exist in a Siberian climate; dwarfish specimens indeed of each may be traced at the foot of the Altaian mountains, quite across Asia, as far as the banks of the river Amur, in Daouria, where, being screened from the Northern blasts, they resume their natural size, but all that attempt to penetrate northward become more diminutive as they advance, and soon entirely disappear. Even the common heath, and bog myrtle, which cover the lower parts of Lapland, venture but a very little way eastward of the Uralian mountains. We are not however hence to conclude that the mighty rivers of Siberia pour their everlasting streams through a barren waste of perpetual snow; on the contrary they are bordered with inexhaustible forests of birch, of alder, of lime, of Tatarian maple; of black and white poplar, and aspen, besides millions of noble trees of the pine species, such as the fir, the Scotch pine, the larch, the stone pine, and yew-leaved fir. Nor during their short summer are they destitute of many beautiful plants, that lie concealed under the snow during the greater part of the year; several of the orchis tribe are natives of the Siberian forests, such as *cypridium bulbosum*, *fatyrium epipogium*, *ophrys monorchis*, and the splendid *orchis cucullata*: the lilly of the valley, the black and white hellebore, the Siberian iris, and anemone, blending with the white feathery flower-spike of the *spiræa trilobata*, *thalictroides*, *altaica*, or *Kamtschatica*, form an assemblage of fragrance and beauty, unequalled by many more southern countries.

The Siberian plum, and crab; the mountain ash, the *daphne Altaica*; and Tatarian honeysuckle, *robinia frutescens*, Tatarian mulberry, and the daourian rose form thickets of exquisite beauty, under shelter of which arise the white flowered peony, the *gentiana glauca*, *algida altaica*, and several congenerous species, *allium sibiricum*; *amaryllis Tatarica*; *asphodelus Tataricus*, *lilium Kamtschatense*, the *yellow faranne lily*, whose roots are a favourite food with the Tatarian tribes; and a multitude

BOTANY.

BOTANY.

tude of others, a bare list of whose names would be neither amusing nor instructive. The mosses, and heaths are inhabited by several elegant shrubby plants, of the genera rhododendron, and andromeda, together with rubus chamemorus, and others that are found in similar situations in the north of Europe. Only two plants more need be mentioned, the heracleum panaces, and sibiricum, from the dried stalks of which the natives procure a saccharine efflorescence, whence, by fermentation, and distillation, a coarse ardent spirit is made that enables them to enjoy the supreme beatitude of all the northern nations, drunkenness.

Siberia has hitherto been found to possess scarcely any peculiar genera of plants: and even all the species, of any considerable importance, are those trees which are common to it and the north of Europe.

Zoology.

In the greater part of Asiatic Russia the rein deer, which extends to the furthest east, performs the office of the horse, the cow, and the sheep; if we except Kamchatka, where dogs, like the Pomeranian, are used for carriage. But the south may perhaps be considered as the native country of that noble animal the horse, being there found wild, as well as a species of the ass.¹¹ The terrible urus or bison is yet found in the Caucasian mountains; and the argali, or wild sheep, is hunted in Siberia. That singular small species of cattle called the musk bull and cow, with hair trailing on the ground, seems peculiar to the north of America.¹² The ibex or rock goat is frequent on the Caucasian precipices; and large stags occur in the mountains near the Baikal, with the musk animal, and wild boar. Wolves and foxes, and bears, of various names and descriptions, are also found. That kind of weazel called the sable affords a valuable traffic by its furs. Some kinds of hares appear, little known in other regions; and the castor or beaver is an inmate of the Yenisei. The walrus, or large kind of seal, once termed the sea horse, is no stranger to the arctic shores; and the common seal extends even to Kamchatka, while the manati, perhaps the mermaid of fable, inhabits the straits of Bering, and the isles between the continents. To enumerate the other animals of this extensive part of Asia would be superfluous, as Siberia is so rich in zoology and botany, that, as Mr. Pennant

¹¹ Pennant A. Z. i. 2. See also Dec. Russ. vi. 309.

¹² Ib. 8. It seems a small species of the yak of Tibet and Mongolia.

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observes, even the discovery of America has scarcely imparted a greater Zoology. number of objects to the naturalist.

It will be more apposite to the present purpose to give a brief idea of the most interesting animals. The horses of the Monguls are of singular beauty, some being ribbed like the tiger, and others spotted like the leopard. The nostrils of the foals are commonly slitted, that they may inhale more air in the course. The three great Nomadic nations of the centre of Asia, the Tatars, Monguls, and Mandshurs, have no aversion to horse flesh, which is in their opinion superior to beef; but it is never eaten raw, as fabled, though they sometimes dry it in the sun and air, when it will keep for a long time, and is eaten without further preparation. The *adon*, or stud of a noble Mongul, may contain between three and four thousand horses and mares. The cattle are of a middling size, and pass the winter in the stepps or deserts. As these nations use the milk of mares, so they employ the cow for draught, a string being passed through a hole made in their nostril. Mr. Bell met a beautiful Tatar girl astride on a cow, attended by two male servants. The sheep are of the broad tailed kind; but the delicately waved lambskins are procured by the cruel practice of opening the womb of the mother.

The best fables are found near Yakutsk and Nerzhinsk; but those of Kamchatka are the most numerous, and several stratagems are employed to catch or kill the animal, without any injury to the skin, which is sometimes worth ten pounds on the spot. The black foxes are also highly esteemed, one skin being sometimes sufficient to pay the tribute of a village.² The rock or ice fox, generally of a white colour, sometimes bluish, is found in great numbers in the eastern Archipelago. This animal rivals the ape in sly tricks and mischief. Other animals pursued for their skins are the marmot, the marten, the squirrel, the ermine, and others of inferior repute. The bear is destroyed by many ingenious methods. The Koriaks contrive a loop and bait hanging from a tree, by which he is suspended. In the southern mountains his usual path is watched, a rope is laid in it with a heavy block at one end, and a noose at the other. When thus entangled by the neck he

² Tooke's View, iii. 43.

ZOOLOGY. is either exhausted by dragging so great a weight, or attacking the block with fury he throws it down some precipice, when it seldom fails to drag him to destruction. On the European side of the Uralian chain, where the peasants form bee hives in tall trees, the bear is destroyed in his attempt to seize the honey, by a trap of boards suspended from a strong branch, and slightly attached to the entrance of the hive: the animal finding this platform convenient for his purpose undoes the slight fastening to get at his luscious repast, but is instantly conveyed to a great distance, and remains in the perpendicular of the branch, till he be discovered and shot by the contrivers. Nor must the beaver and the civet cat be omitted, the latter animal being found in the Altaian chain, and that supreme prominence of Asia which extends to Tibet, though perhaps sometimes confounded by travellers with the musk deer of Tibet; and even the civet cat rather resembles the fox. The elk also abounds in Siberia; the chamois is found on the Caucasian mountains; and several kinds of antelopes in Daouria. The wild boar grows to such a size that the tusks are sometimes said to weigh six hundred pounds, in which case it is no wonder that we hear of the tusks of elephants found in Siberia.* The wild horse, ass, and sheep, are minutely described by Pallas; but the various shades of difference between them and the domestic animals are too minute for this rapid survey.

Mineralogy. The mineralogy of Siberia is equally fertile, and displays many singular and interesting objects. Peter the Great, who directed his attention to every object of utility, was the first who ordered these remote mines to be explored, which have since supplied great resources of national wealth and industry. For the example of Spain, adduced by theorists against this important branch, without which neither agriculture nor any of the arts could prosper, is an exception and not a rule; and only shews that mismanagement may ruin any advantage. As well might we declaim against agriculture, because the cultivation of rice is unhealthy. No propositions can be more plain than that England has derived her vast manufactures and commerce from her mines of coal, without which material they must long ago have terminated; that the

* Tooke, iii. 79.

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iron of Sweden is the great resource of the state; and that the silver mines of Saxony have been the grand cause of the flourishing agriculture and general prosperity of that country. It is equally clear and simple that if valuable mines were discovered in a barren country, they would not only employ many useful labourers, but the product might be exchanged to advantage for the necessaries or decorations of life, or expended in agricultural improvements. Hence the mines of Siberia have supplied great resources to Russia; while, merely by a miserable form of administration, those of Mexico and Peru have been ranked among the causes of the decline of Spain.

It is worthy of remark, that in the Siberian mines in the southern parts of the Uralian mountains, and in those of Altai, there are ancient works, traditionally said to have been conducted by the Tschouds, an unknown laborious people. Pallas observes, that these Tschouds were neither Tatars nor Monguls, but seem to have been a people extirpated by these nations. Their tombs, in which are often found gold and other precious ornaments, are chiefly placed on agreeable mountains near the river Yenisei, a circumstance which seems to indicate that their chief residence was in this quarter. In one passage * he especially mentions, that the language of the Tschouds was the Finnish, and as the Fins of Permia were formerly celebrated for the riches of their temples, it is probable that these miners were from that country. †

The chief gold mines of Siberia are those of Catherinburg or Ekatherinburg, on the east of the Uralian mountains, about lat. 57°, where an office for the management of the mines was instituted in 1719. The mines of various sorts extend to a considerable distance on the N. and S. of Catherinburg; and the foundaries, chiefly for copper and iron, are computed at 105. But the gold mines of Beresof, in this vicinity, were of little consequence till the reign of Elizabeth. The mines of Nerzhinsk, discovered in 1704, are principally of lead mixed with silver and gold; and those of Kolivan, chiefly in the Schlangenberg, or mountain of serpents, so called by the German miners, began to be worked for the crown in 1748.

* V. 147.

† Voyages de Pallas, Tome iii, 82. 140. 320. iv. 400. v. 147.

MINERALOGY.

The gold is sometimes found native, but generally mingled with various substances, (the *aurum larvatum* of Gmelin,) particularly silver, which constitutes the electrum of the ancients. The gold mines of Beresof are the chief in the empire; those of Kolivan and Nerzhinsk being denominated silver mines, their produce of gold being of much smaller consequence.*

The silver is rarely native, but often mingled with gold, as already mentioned; and in the Daourian mountains with lead. That kind called horn silver is also found in the Schlangenberg; and what is called the glassy ore, and those kinds called *fragile* and *nitens* by Gmelin, as also the red arsenical ore, and the cupriferous sulphurated silver ore of Kirwan, mostly found in the Schlangenberg, and other mountains, branching north from those of Altai towards Kolivan.

The mines of Schlangenberg, or the mountain of serpents, are amongst the most remarkable in Siberia. Native silver is sometimes found in pyrites; but, in general, in the hornstein of the Germans, or the genuine petrosilex, that is literally rock flint, for the petrosilex of Wallerius † and Dolomieu is quite another rock, the compact felspar of Werner, fusible by the blow-pipe, while the genuine rock-flint belongs to quartz. In the former no metals are ever found, but many in the latter.

The mines of Schlangenberg are not far from Kolivanskoi, which is far to the south of the town of Kolivan, and is reputed to be the most ancient mining station in the whole Altaian mountains. ‡ In 1744 it first became known to the crown that these mines produced gold and silver. The Russians call the mountain Smeieffkaia Gora, and upon it is a fort called Smeinogorska, being ninety-five versts on the north of the river Irtysh, and a hundred and fifty from the Ob. It is a vast mass of mineral covered with schistus, containing silver mingled with gold, copper, plumbago, zinc, arsenic, sulphur. The

* For Beresof, a few miles N. E. of Catherinburg, see the *Decouvertes Russes*, iv. 162, &c. and the map in that volume. The gold mines are near the river Pyshma, which falls into the Tobol. That entire volume describes Ufa, the Bashkirs, and the Uralian chain, instead of being a *Voyage en Perse*, as the running title bears. In 1804 a rich vein of gold was discovered.

† Haüy shewed me at Paris, a specimen sent by Wallerius himself. It is the rose-coloured compact felspar from Sahlberg.

‡ Pallas, iv. 315. 371.

petrosilex, or *roche corne* of the French resembles flint, and sometimes contains bowls of a coarser grain like sand stone. It sometimes presents native gold as well as native silver. Even the copper of Siberia contains gold, as may be observed on analysing the coin struck from it, bearing on one side the head of the empress, and on the other a crowned coat of arms supported by two of the animals called fables.*

MINERALOGY.

Besides the copper mines in the Uralian mountains there are also some in those of Altai. The most singular ore is the dendritic, somewhat resembling fern, of a pale colour, and perhaps containing silver. Malachite, or stalactitic copper, is found in the greatest perfection in a mine about 30 miles S. of Catherinburgh. What is called the Armenian stone is a blue malachite.† The red lead of Siberia is found in the mines of Beresof, on a micaceous sand stone.‡ This substance it is well known has disclosed a new metal called chrome.

But the iron mines of Russia are of the most solid and lasting importance, particularly those which supply the numerous founderies of the Uralian mountains.‡ Yet Russia still imports quicksilver, and zinc; and the semi-metals are rare.

Rock salt is chiefly found near the Ileik, not far from Orenburg. Coal is scarcely known; but sulphur, alum, sal ammoniac, vitriol, nitre, and natron, are found in abundance.

Nor must the gems of Siberia be omitted, of which there is a great variety, particularly in the mountain Adunshollo near the river Argoon, in the province of Nerzhinsk or Daouria. The diamond has never appeared except in Hindostan and Brasil, where it is always detached; as is the stone chiefly found in Ceylon, and called according to its colour

* Pallas, iv. 461.

† Guthrie, Table of Gems. See xv. p. 212. In the strepp near Orenburg is a singular mine of copper with petrified trees. Dec. R. iii. 147.

‡ The gangart is quartz, but it often passes to the selvage of the mine, which is sand-stone. Pallas, iii. 167. Our geological language is still deficient, and in mineralogy we often confound the rock of the mountain with the *selvage*, which forms the skirts or borders of the vein; and the gangart or stone which contains or accompanies the mineral itself.

§ Near mount Emor, or Nemir, not far from the river Yenisei, in the south of Siberia, Dr. Pallas discovered a large mass of native iron. See Dec. Russ. vi. 228, which places it near Krafsnojarfk. In the same volume, p. 189, is a curious account of the rich iron mines near Rybna, S. E. of that place, covered with mineralized trunks of trees.

MINERALOGY. the ruby, sapphire, and oriental topaz. Common topazes are found in Adunshollo, in quadrangular prisms, as is also the jacint. The emerald is unknown; the kind of jad called mother of emerald is a Siberian product: and beryl or aqua marine is found in Adunshollo, but in greater perfection in what are called the gem mines of Mourfintsky near Catherinburg, along with the chrysolite. Red garnets abound near the sea of Baikal; and a yellowish white kind was discovered by Laxman. The opal is said to have been found in the Altaian mountains; probably only the semi-opal, the noble opal seeming peculiar to Hungary.* The ruby coloured schorl was discovered in the Uralian mountains, by Mr. Herman, at Sarapoulsky, about seven miles from Mourfintsky. It is called by Mr. Kirwan the rubellite, being of a delicately fibrous texture, and often when polished presenting the varying splendour of ruby coloured velvet. The baikalite of the same author is of an olive green colour, and contains a sufficient quantity of magnesia to be arranged in the muriatic class along with the peridot of the French, to which it seems nearly allied. The green felspar of Siberia is a beautiful stone, by the Russians carved into various ornaments. The Daourian mountains between the Onon and the Argoon also produce elegant onyx. The seive stone is an agatized fungites.¹⁶ The beautiful stones called the hair of Venus and Thetis, being limpid rock crystals containing capillary schorl, red or green, are found near Catherinburg. The alliance stone consists of a greyish porphyry, united, as if glued together, with transparent quartz. Great quantities of malachite have also been found in the Uralian mountains; one piece is said to have weighed 107 poods or 3852 pounds.†

The beautiful red and green jaspers of Siberia are from the most distant mountains, as already mentioned; and lapis lazuli is found near the Baikal. The Uralian chain also presents fine white marble; and in the numerous primitive ranges there are many varieties of granite and porphyry.

* The Siberian opals are only opalline rock crystals. Guthrie, 54. A curious rock of agate and clay, running as it were into each other, occurs near the river Isett. Dec. R. iv. 371.

¹⁶ Guthrie, ut supra.

† Sauer, 7.

Mineral waters do not abound in Asiatic Russia. There is a fetid sulphureous spring near Sarepta, on the frontier of Europe and Asia, and several others in Siberia. The baths on the Terek, towards the Caucasus, are of a middle temperature: and there are others in the province of Nerzhinsk; among the Kalmuks to the south of the Altai in the country sometimes styled Soongaria; and in the neighbourhood of the sea of Baikal. Vitriolic waters or chalybeates, the four springs of the Germans, are found near Catherinburg, in the midst of the iron mines; nor are they unknown in Daouria. Springs impregnated with naphtha and petroleum occur near the Caspian and the Baikal.

MINERAL
WATERS.

But the chief mineral waters are those in Kamchatka, as described by Lesséps. The hot baths of Natchikin, not far from a volcano in the south of that peninsula, seem not to have been traced to their source, but they fall in a rapid cascade about 300 feet above the baths, benevolently erected by Mr. Kasloff, for the benefit of the Kamchadals, the stream being about a foot and a half deep, and six or seven feet wide. The water is extremely hot, and of a very penetrating nature, seeming to contain vitriolic and nitrous salts, with calcareous earth. On the west side of the gulph of Penjina is a hot spring which falls into the Tavatona, being of a great size and emitting clouds of smoke.

The chief natural curiosities of Asiatic Russia have already been incidentally mentioned.* The salt Lakes near the Caspian, and that sea itself, may be regarded as singular features of nature. The sublime scenes around the Baikal have been already described. Near the river Onon whole mountains are in summer on one side of a lilac colour, from the blossoms of the wild apricot; and on the other of a deep purple, from those of the Daourian-rhododendron." The arctic levels of Siberia contrast with the thick forests on the south, which sometimes overhang the roads and rivers with a gloomy and dismal canopy. The numerous volcanoes of Kamchatka are also striking objects; but none

Natural Cu-
riosities.

* Near Kungur, on the European side of the Ural mountains, are remarkable caverns, said to extend for ten versts. Dec. R. iv. 407.

" Dec. Ruf. v. 470.

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of them appear to have been minutely explored, the severity of the climate being adverse to the curious traveller. Of most of them the smoke is perpetual, but they rarely throw out ashes or lava.

ISLES BELONGING TO ASIATIC RUSSIA.

ISLES.

THESE were formerly divided into the Aleutian, Andrenovian, and Kurilian groupes, with the Fox isles, which extend to the promontory of Alaska in North America. The Aleutian isles, on the east of Kamchatka, were multiplied by the early navigators as they saw them in different directions, but are now reduced to only two worth notice, Bering's isle and Copper isle. The Andrenovian isles may be regarded as the same with the Fox islands, being the western part of the same range: if they must be distinguished, the Andrenovian form a groupe of six or more isles, about 500 miles to the S. E. of Bering's.¹ It appears that the Fox and Andrenovian isles are a kind of elongation of the American promontory of Alaska, and may more justly be reserved for the description of N. America, late English navigators having dispelled many doubts concerning the real position of these isles. Bering's isle, and Copper isle, are both uninhabited, and do not merit particular description.*

Kurilian.

The Kurilian isles extend from these southern promontory of Kamchatka towards the land of Jesso and Japan, being supposed to be about 20 in number, of which the largest are Poro Muschir and Mokanturu. Several of these isles are volcanic; and some contain forests of birch, alder, and pine. Most of them swarm with foxes of various colours. Even after the discoveries of La Perouse it is difficult to distinguish what particular isles in the south of this chain are implied by the Russian

¹ Coxe, Russian Disc. 25; but he says the N. E.

* The Andrenovian isles have almost vanished from English maps and charts, which only admit the Aleutian or Fox islands; and the Russian navigators must have erred grossly in their observations.

appellations.

appellations. If Matmai be the land of Jesso, Tihikota may be Staten ^{ISLES.} land and Kunassyr the Companies Land: but it seems more probable that this last is Ourop, and that Jesso is Etorpu. The discoveries are too imperfect to admit of decision; and it would even appear that the Russian navigators had, with their usual confusion, described the same islands under different names. The inhabitants of the Kurilian isles seem to be of similar origin with the Kamchadals; and in the interior of some is a people called hairy Kurilians, from what circumstance is not explained.*

* In the seventh volume of Pallas's *Neue Nordische Beytraege* there is an account of some islands discovered near the northern shore of Siberia lat. 72°, between the mouths of the Jana and Indigirca. The discoverer in 1774 was one Lachofs whence they were called the Lachofschian islands. Further to the north he observed what he supposed to be a continent, and in which he traced inhabitants; but how a county more northerly than Novaya Zemla could admit of fixed inhabitants remains to be explained, and they were probably only fishers from the northern shores of Siberia.

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THE CHINESE EMPIRE.

IN the last century the Chinese emperors, of the Mandshur race, extended this wide empire over many western countries, inhabited by wandering hords of Monguls, Mandshurs, and Tatars; and established such firm influence over Tibet, that the Chinese empire may now be considered as extending from those parts of the Pacific ocean called the Chinese and Japonic seas, to the rivers Sarasou and Sihon in the west,* a space of 81°, which, taking the medial latitude of 30°, will amount to nearly 4200 geographical, or 4900 British miles. From N. to S. this vast empire may be computed from the Uralian mountains, lat. 50°, to the southern part of China, about lat. 21°, being 29° of latitude, 1740 geographical, or nearly 2030 British miles.

DIVISIONS. This empire therefore consists of three principal divisions; that of China proper; the territory of the Mandshurs and Monguls, on the north and west; and lastly the singular and interesting region of Tibet or Tibbet. These countries are not only so wide and important, but are so radically different in the form of government, in the manners, and other circumstances, that it will be proper to describe each apart.

* This supposes that the great hord of Kirguses, who only pay homage to China, are included. But the mountains of Belur Tag, and the Palkati or Balkath lake, seem never to have been passed by the Chinese. About 200 B. miles of medial length may in this case be subtracted.

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PART I.
CHINA PROPER.

CHAPTER I.
HISTORICAL GEOGRAPHY.

*Names.—Extent.—Boundaries.—Original Population.—Progressive Geography.—
Historical Epochs.—Antiquities.*

THIS distinguished region is by the natives styled Tchou-Koue, NAMES. which signifies the centre of the earth, as they proudly regard other countries as mere skirts and appendages to their own. After the conquest of the northern part by the descendants of Zingis, it was styled Cathay, a name loudly celebrated in travels, poetry, and romance; while the southern part was known by the appellation of Mangi. The origin of the name of China, or Tsin, seems uncertain, but the connection between this word and the Sinæ of the ancients appears imaginary, the country of the Sinæ being shewn by Gosselin to be much further to the west. The Mahometan travellers of the ninth century, published by Renaudot, (the authenticity of the work being now undoubted,) call this country Sin, but the Persians pronounce in Tchou.

! English translation. Remarks, p. 40.

- EXTENT.** China proper extends from the great wall in the north to the Chinese sea in the south, about 1140 geographical, or 1330 British miles. The breadth from the shores of the Pacific to the frontiers of Tibet may be computed at 884 geographical, or nearly 1030 British miles. In square miles the contents have been estimated at 1,297,999, and in acres at 830,719,360.² On the east and south the boundaries are maritime, and to the north they are marked by the great wall and the desert of Shamo; the confines with Tibet on the west seem to be chiefly indicated by an ideal line, though occasionally more strongly marked by mountains and rivers; particularly according to D'Anville the river Yalon, which falls into the Kian-ku, the country of Sifan lying between Tibet and China, on the south of the Eluts of Kokonor.
- Boundaries.**
- Original Population.** The population of China, seems wholly aboriginal, but the form of the features appears to imply intimate affinity with the Tatars, Monguls, and Mandshurs; yet the Chinese probably constitute a fourth grand division, not strictly derived from either of these barbaric races.
- Progressive Geography.** The progressive geography of China, as known to the western nations, is not of ancient date, whether with D'Anville we suppose the Sinæ to have been in Cochin China, or with Gosselin place them in the western part of Siam. The most ancient external relation which we possess is that of the two Mahometan travellers in the the ninth century, who surprise us with accounts of barbarism and cannibalism little to be expected: but the Arabs are so fond of fables, that implicit credit may be safely withheld from several passages. Yet these travellers impart high ideas concerning the Chinese empire, and mention Canfu, supposed to be Canton, as a city of great trade, while the emperors resided at Camdan, which seems to be the city also called Nankin, or the Southern Court, in contradistinction from Peking or the Northern Court. This wide empire continued, however, obscure to the inhabitants of Europe till the travels of Marco Polo appeared, in the end of the thirteenth century. Yet the work of this traveller remained so unknown that Pope Pius II, in his description of Asia,³ is contented with the more imperfect account

² Macartney's Emb. iii. Appen.³ P. 18—28. Edit. Paris 1534. Pius wrote about 1450.

by Nicola Conti, a Venetian traveller of his own time who visited Cathay.* Haitho the Armenian, who wrote his book on the Tatars about the year 1306, begins with an account of Cathay; and Oderic of Portenau described his voyage to China 1318.† Our Sir John Mandeville visited China about 1340; and Pegoletti gave directions for the route in 1335.‡ But in the following century there seems to have been a strange and unaccountable intermission of intercourse and research, if we except the travels of Nicola Conti above mentioned; and so perishable was the knowledge acquired as to have escaped even a learned pontiff. After this relapse of darkness, the rays of more genuine and authentic knowledge gradually emerged by the discovery of the Cape of Good Hope, and the subsequent enterprizes of the Portuguese.

PROGRESSIVE GEOGRAPHY.

The Chinese history is said to commence, in a clear and constant narration, about 2500 years before the birth of Christ. The founder of the monarchy is Fo-Hi; but the regular history begins with Yao.‡ The dynasties or families who have successively held the throne amount to 22, from the first named Hia, to the present house of Tsi §. Yu, the first emperor of the house of Hia, is said to have written a book on agriculture, and to have encouraged canals for irrigation; and it is also asserted that he divided the empire into nine provinces. The ancient revolutions of China would little interest the general reader. The dynasties, as usual, generally terminate in some weak or wicked prince, who is dethroned by an able subject. Sometimes the monarchy is divided into that of the south, which is esteemed the ruling and superior inheritance; and that of the north. The emperor Tai Tsong, who reigned in the seventh century after Christ, is regarded as one of the

Historical Epochs.

* Cathay had been before faintly known to Europeans, from the travels of John de Plano Carpini 1245, and of Rubruquis, 1251. The account of the latter in particular is interesting, as he visited Cathay by the route of Karakum, the capital of the Mongul empire, placed by D'Anville on the Ongui Muren, but by Fischer in his history of Siberia on the east side of the river Orchon, about 150 B. miles to the N. W.

† Forster's Disc. in the North, p. 147.

‡ Ib. 150. The original is to be found in a work entitled *Della Decima, e delle altre gravissime. Libona Lucca, 1766, 4to.*

§ Du Halde, iii. 7. Haye, 1756 4to. According to De Guignes, iv. 373, the *Seki* or *Sa-ki*, Historical Memoirs, composed by Sema-taien form the sole monument of ancient Chinese history.

¶ Ib. i. 266, &c.

HISTORICAL
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greatest princes who have filled the Chinese throne. The Mandshurs to the north of China repeatedly influenced the succession to the empire; but the Monguls under Zingis and his successors seized the five northern provinces. Hoaiting, who began to reign A. D. 1627, was the last prince of the Chinese dynasties. Some unsuccessful wars against the Mandshurs had rendered this emperor melancholy and cruel; and insurrections arose, the most formidable being conducted by two chiefs Li and Tchang. The former besieged Peking, which was surrendered by the general discontent, and the emperor retiring to his garden first slew his daughter with his sabre, and afterwards hanged himself on a tree, having only lived 36 years. The usurper seemed firmly seated on the throne, when a prince of the royal family invited the Mandshurs, who advanced under their king Tfong Te. The Mandshur monarch had scarcely entered China when he died; and his son of six years of age was declared emperor, the regency being entrusted to his uncle. This young prince, named Chun Tchig, was the first emperor of the present dynasty, and has been followed by four princes of the same Mandshur family.

Antiquities.

Among the remains of Chinese antiquity may be mentioned the coins of the ancient dynasties, of which arranged cabinets are formed by the curious natives. Du Halde has published many of these ancient coins, and to his work the reader is referred. There are also several pagodas, or ornamented towers, sometimes erected in commemoration of great events; many temples, which are low buildings of a different construction from the pagodas; and some triumphal arches, which boast considerable antiquity.

But the chief remain of ancient art in China is that stupendous wall, extending across the northern boundary.* This work, which is deservedly esteemed among the grandest labours of art, is conducted over the summits of high mountains, some of which rise to the height of 5225 feet, across the deepest vales, over wide rivers by means of arches; and in many parts is doubled or trebled to command important passes: and at the distance of almost every hundred yards is a tower or masonry

* Sir G. Staunton, ii. 360. 8vo.

baſtion. The extent is computed at 1500 miles; but in ſome parts of ANTIQUITIES. ſmaller danger it is not equally ſtrong or complete, and towards the N. W. only a rampart of earth. For the precise height and dimensions of this amazing fortification the reader is referred to the work already quoted, whence it appears that near Koopekoo the wall is 25 feet in height, and at the top about 15 feet thick: ſome of the towers, which are ſquare, are 48 feet high, and about 40 feet wide. The ſtone employed in the foundations, angles, &c. is a ſtrong grey granite; but the greateſt part conſiſts of bluish bricks, and the mortar is remarkably pure and white.

Sir George Staunton conſiders the era of this great barrier as abſolutely aſcertained, and he aſſerts that it has exiſted for two thouſand years. In this aſſeveration he ſeems to have followed Du Halde, who informs us that "this prodigious work was conſtructed 215 years before the birth of Chriſt, by the orders of the firſt emperor of the family of Tſin, to protect three large provinces from the irruptions of the Tatars."⁹ But in the hiſtory of China, contained in his firſt volume, he aſcribes this erection to the ſecond emperor of the dynasty of Tſin, namely Chi Hoang Ti; and the date immediately preceding the narrative of this conſtruction is the year 137 before the birth of Chriſt.¹⁰ Hence ſuſpicions may well ariſe, not only concerning the epoch of this work, but even with regard to the purity and precision of the Chineſe annals in general. Mr. Bell, who reſided for ſome time in China, and whoſe travels are deſervedly eſteemed for the accuracy of their intelligence, aſſures us¹¹ that this wall was built about 600 years ago, (that is about the year 1160,) by one of the emperors, to prevent the frequent incuſions of the Monguls, whoſe numerous cavalry uſed to ravage the provinces, and eſcape before an army could be aſſembled to oppoſe them. Renaudot obſerves that no oriental geographer, above 300 years in antiquity, mentions this wall:¹² and it is ſurpriſing that it ſhould have eſcaped Marco Polo; who, ſuppoſing that he had entered China by a different rout, can hardly be conceived, during his long reſidence

⁹ Tome ii. p. 54.

¹¹ Travels, ii. 112. 8vo.

¹⁰ Tome i. 340.

¹² Ut ſupra, 137.

ANTIQUITIES.

in the north of China, and in the country of the Monguls, to have remained ignorant of so stupendous a work.* Amidst these difficulties, perhaps it may be conjectured that similar modes of defence had been adopted in different ages; and that the ancient rude barrier having fallen into decay, was replaced, perhaps after the invasion of Zingis, by the present erection, which even from the state of its preservation can scarcely aspire to much antiquity.

* Some, however, deny that he entered China.

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CHAPTER II.

POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY.

*Religion.—Ecclesiastical Geography.—Government.—Laws.—Population.—Colonies.
—Army.—Navy.—Revenues.—Political Importance and Relations.*

ACCORDING to Du Halde the ancient Chinese worshipped a supreme being, whom they styled Chang Ti, or Tien, which is said to imply the spirit which presides over the heavens; but in the opinion of others is only the visible firmament. They also worshipped subaltern spirits, who presided over kingdoms, provinces, cities, rivers, and mountains. Under this system, which corresponds with what is called Shamanism, sacrifices were offered on the summits of hills. The sect of Tao See was founded on principles similar to those of Epicurus; but as the idea of death tended to disturb their boasted tranquillity, they invented a potion which was to confer imaginary immortality.

“The primitive religion of China, or at least, those opinions, rites, and ceremonies that prevailed in the time of Confucius, (and before that period all seems to be fable and uncertainty,) may be pretty nearly ascertained from the writings that are ascribed to that philosopher. He maintains in his physics; that “out of nothing there cannot possibly be produced any thing;—that material bodies must have existed from all eternity, that the *cause* (*lee, reason*), or principle of things, must have had a co-existence with the things themselves; that, therefore, this cause is also eternal, infinite, indestructible, without limits, omnipotent and omnipresent;—that the central point of influence (*Strength*) from whence this cause principally acts, is the blue firmament (*tien*) from whence its emanations spread over the whole universe;—that it is, therefore, the supreme duty of the prince, in the name of his subjects,

RELIGION. to present offerings to *tien*, and particularly at the equinoxes, the one for obtaining a propitious seed-time, and the other a plentiful harvest.”*

About A. D. 65 the sect of Fo was introduced into China from Hindostan. The name was derived from the idol Fo, (supposed to be the Booth of Hindostan,) and the chief tenets are those of the Hindoos, among which is the Metempsychosis, or transition of souls from one animal to another. The priests are denominated Bonzes, and Fo is supposed to be gratified by the favour shewn to his servants. Many subordinate idols are admitted; but as the Jesuits found the followers of Fo the most adverse to Christianity, they have absurdly enough called them atheists.

Since the fifteenth century many Chinese literati have embraced a new system, which acknowledges an universal principle, under the name of Taiki, seeming to correspond with the soul of the world of some ancient philosophers. This opinion may indeed deserve the name of atheism; nor is it unusual to find ingenious reasoners so far disgusted with gross superstitions as to fall into the opposite extreme of absurdity.† But such opinions are confined to very few; and the Chinese are so far from being atheists that they are in the opposite extreme of polytheism, believing even in petty demons who delight in minute acts of evil, or good. There is properly no order of priests, except the Bonzes of the sect of Fo; nor of course can any high priest aspire to the imperial power. The sect of Fo, and that of Lao Kian, which is the same with that of the Tai See, admit of monasteries. The noted festival of lanterns is, according to Osbek, celebrated in honour of the god of fire, to avert the danger of conflagration. The Chinese temples are always open; nor is there any subdivision of the month known in the country.

Government. The government of China is well known to be patriarchal. The emperor is indeed absolute; but the examples of tyranny are rare, as he is

* Barrow's China, p. 450.

† It must however be remembered that even these literati admit the existence of gods of various classes, emanated from the soul of the world. Hence they are in fact polytheists, who do not admit a supreme intelligent being.

! Pauw Recherches philosophiques sur les Egyptiens, et les Chinois. Tome ii. 217.

taught to regard his people as his children, and not as his slaves. The stability of the government, in all its essential, and even minute forms and customs, justly astonishes those who are the most versed in history. It arises from a circumstance unknown in any other government, the admission and practice of the principle asserted by Lord Bacon, that *knowledge is power*. For all the officers of government pass through a regular education, and a progress of rank, which are held indispensable. Of these officers, who have been called mandarins, or commanders, by the Portuguese, but in the language of the country *Eunuchs*, there are nine classes, from the judge of the village to the prime minister. The profession requiring a long and severe course of study, the practice of government remains, like that of medicine, unshaken by exterior events; and while the imperial throne is subject to accident and force, the remainder of the machine pursues its usual circle. In so vast an empire, with a computed population of more than 230,000,000, perhaps the stability of the state is incompatible with much freedom; yet the ideas of an European are shocked by the frequent use of the rod, a paternal punishment which would, in his eyes, appear the most degrading species of slavery. The soldiers, however, shew the greatest tenderness to the people; and every sentence of death must be signed by the emperor. It is impossible to fix any general criterion of human opinions, which vary according to minute, and sometimes invisible circumstances; and thus in China the prime minister may be chastened with rods, and acknowledge no mark of slavery in what he regards as a mere fatherly admonition.

GOVERN-
MENT.

The governors of the provinces have great and absolute power, yet rebellions are not unfrequent. Bribery is also an universal vice; and the Chinese government, like many others, is more fair in the theory than in the practice. Yet the amazing population, and the general ease and happiness of the people, evince that the practice of the government must be more beneficial than any yet known among mankind.

The Chinese laws are ancient, but numerous; and edicts of the reigning dynasty have restrained the mandarins within stricter limits of duty. The state of property has not been so completely illustrated as was to have been wished, but as far as I have been able to learn from

Laws.

GOVERN-
MENT.

persons who have visited China, it is respected, but not permitted to accumulate. For, independently of the estates being apportioned among the sons, the largest are often seized by the emperor and divided as pensions or rewards. If a proprietor build a splendid house, he is amerced by the government on the pretext that his wealth cannot be better employed than in contributing to the public revenue.

“In China, the laws regarding property are insufficient to give it security: hence, the talent of invention is there seldom exercised beyond suggesting the means of providing for the first necessities and the most pressing wants. A man, indeed, is afraid here to be considered as wealthy, well knowing that some of the rapacious officers of the state would find legal reasons to extort his riches from him.”*

And in another passage he observes, “that by the laws relating to property, women in China, as in ancient Rome, are excluded from inheriting, where there are children, and from disposing of property; but where there are no male children, a man may leave, by will, the whole of his property to the widow. The reason they assign for women not inheriting is, that a woman can make no offering to deceased relations in the hall of ancestors; and it is deemed one of the first ideal blessings of life for a man to have some one to look up to, who will transmit his name to future ages, by performing, at certain fixed periods, the duties of this important ceremony. All their laws indeed respecting property, as I have already observed, are insufficient to give it that security and stability which alone can constitute the pleasure of accumulating wealth. The avarice of men in power may overlook those who are in moderate circumstances, but the affluent rarely escape their rapacious grasp. In a word, although the laws are not so perfect as to procure for the subject general good, yet neither are they so defective as to reduce him to that state of general misery, which could only be terminated in a revolution. The executive administration is so faulty, that the man in office generally has it in his power to govern the laws, which makes the measure of good or evil depend greatly on his moral character.”†

* Barrow's China, p. 177.

† P. 379.

The population of China has been a topic of considerable debate. GOVERNMENT. Population. Pauw, a bold and decisive assertor, and a declared enemy of the Jesuits, has attacked all their descriptions of China. He observes, from Du Halde, that when the missionaries proceeded through the empire, to prepare their maps, they found in the greater part of the large governments countries of more than 20 leagues, little peopled, almost uncultivated, and often so wild that they are quite uninhabitable. Pauw also mentions the abundance of tigers, and the existence of the Chinese savages in the extensive forests; and he supposes that the population is exaggerated when it is computed at 82,000,000.^a In so wide an empire most of the features are on a large scale, nor can human industry overcome certain impediments of nature, as ridges of rocks, barren heaths, and extensive swamps, in certain positions; and in the north of China large forests are indispensably preserved for the sake of fuel. On a smaller scale such obstacles to universal population are found even in the most fertile countries, and Bagshot heath, with perhaps several tents of gypsies, occur near the capital of England. Civil wars, which have repeatedly raged in China, may also desolate parts of a country for a long period of time, while the inhabitants crowd to the cities and places of defence. As it would be absurd to suppose that all China consists of cultivable land, so it would be equally absurd to deny that the population has impressed every traveller with astonishment, and with ideas totally different from those of Pauw, who decided in his cabinet, in a spirit of enmity against his materials; and who seems to have forgotten that the want of cultivation in some districts is balanced by that residing on the waters, millions of families passing their whole existence in boats on the numerous rivers, lakes, and canals. The recent English embassy was astonished at the excess of population; and Sir George Staunton has published the following table, from the information of a mandarin of high rank, who had every opportunity of exact knowledge.

^a Recherches, i. 78.

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Table of the population and extent of China Proper, within the great wall. Taken in round numbers from the statements of Chow-la-Zbin.

PROVINCES.	POPULATION.	SQUARE MILES.	ACRES.
Pe-che-lee - - - -	38,000,000	58,949	37,727,560
Kiang-nan, two provinces - - - -	32,000,000	92,951	59,495,940
Kiang-See - - - -	19,000,000	72,176	49,192,640
Yche-kiang - - - -	21,000,000	39,150	25,050,000
Fo-chen - - - -	15,000,000	53,480	34,227,200
Hou-pe } Hou-quang -	{ 14,000,000 }	141,770	92,652,800
Hou-nan }	{ 13,000,000 }		
Hon-an - - - -	25,000,000	65,104	41,666,560*
Shan-Tung - - - -	24,000,000	65,104	41,666,560*
Shan-fee - - - -	27,000,000	55,268	35,371,520
Shen-fee - - - -	18,000,000	154,008	98,565,120
Kan-fou - - - -	12,000,000		
Se-chuen - - - -	27,000,000	166,800	106,752,000
Canton - - - -	21,000,000	79,456	50,851,840
Quang-fee - - - -	10,000,000	78,250	50,020,000
Yu-nan - - - -	8,000,000	107,969	69,100,160
Koci-chou - - - -	9,000,000	64,554	41,314,560
	333,000,000	1,297,999	830,719,360

How far this table may deserve implicit credit, may be doubted by those who know the difficulty of such researches, even in the most enlightened countries of Europe.

This subject being however one of the most interesting in the whole science of geography, some further illustrations extracted from a recent work † shall be here subjoined.

“ I have now to mention a subject on which much has already been written by various authors, but without the success of having carried conviction into the minds of their readers, that the things which they offered as facts were either true or possible; I allude to the populousness of this extensive empire. That none of the statements hitherto published are strictly true, I am free to admit, but that the highest degree of populousness that has yet been assigned may be possible, and even probable, I am equally ready to contend. At the same time, I acknowledge, that prepared as we were, from all that we had seen and heard, and read on the subject, for something very extraordinary; yet,

* This identic repetition must be erroneous.

† Barrow's Travels in China, London, 1804, 4to. p. 574.

when the above statement was delivered, at the request of the ambassador, by *Chou-ta-gin*, as the abstract of a census that had been taken the preceding year, the amount appeared so enormous as to surpass credibility. But as we had always found this officer a plain, unaffected, and honest man, who, on no occasion had attempted to deceive or impose on us, we could not consistently consider it in any other light than as a document drawn up from authentic materials; its inaccuracy, however, was obvious at a single glance, from the several sums being given in round millions.

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“ Considering then the whole surface of the Chinese dominions within the great wall to contain 1,297,999 square miles, or 830,719,360 English acres, and the population to amount to 333,000,000, every square mile will be found to contain two hundred and fifty-six persons, and every individual might possess two acres and a half of land. Great Britain is supposed to average about one hundred and twenty persons on one square mile, and that to each inhabitant there might be assigned a portion of five acres, or to each family five and twenty acres. The population of China, therefore, is to that of Great Britain as 256 to 120, or in a proportion somewhat greater than two to one; and the quantity of land that each individual in Great Britain might possess is just twice as much as could be allowed to each individual of China. We have only then to enquire if Britain, under the same circumstances as China, be capable of supporting twice its present population, or which is the same thing, if twelve and a half acres of land be sufficient for the maintenance of a family of five persons? Two acres of choice land sown with wheat, under good tillage, may be reckoned to average, after deducting the seed, 60 bushels, or 3600 pounds, which every baker knows would yield 5400 pounds of bread, or three pounds a day to every member of the family for the whole year. Half an acre is a great allowance for a kitchen garden, and potatoe bed. There would still remain ten acres, which must be very bad land, if, besides paying the rent and taxes, it did not keep three or four cows; and an industrious and managing family would find no difficulty in rearing as many pigs, and as much poultry as would be necessary for home consumption, and for the purchase of clothing and other

wall. Taken

lbs.

7,360
5,940
2,640
6,000
7,200
2,800
6,560
6,560
1,520
5,120
2,000
1,840
6,000
6,160
4,560
9,360

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other indispensable necessaries. If then the country was pretty equally partitioned out in this manner; if the land was applied solely to produce food for man; if no horses nor superfluous animals were kept for pleasure, and few only for labour; if the country was not drained of its best hands in foreign trade, and in large manufactures; if the carriage of goods for exchanging with other goods was performed by canals and rivers, and lakes, all abounding with fish; if the catching of these fish gave employment to a very considerable portion of the inhabitants; if the bulk of the people were satisfied to abstain almost wholly from animal food, except such as is most easily procured, that of pigs, and ducks, and fish; if only a very small part of the grain raised was employed in the distilleries, but was used as the staff of life for man; and if this grain was of such a nature as to yield twice, and even three times, the produce that wheat will give on the same space of ground; if, moreover, the climate was so favourable as to allow two such crops every year—if, under all these circumstances, twelve and a half acres of land would not support a family of five persons, the fault could only be ascribed to idleness or bad management.

“ Let us then, for a moment, consider that these or similar advantages operate in China; that every product of the ground is appropriated solely for the food and clothing of man; that a single acre of land sown with rice, will yield a sufficient quantity for the consumption of five people for a whole year, allowing to each person two pounds a-day, provided the returns of his crop are from twenty to twenty-five for one, which are considered as extremely moderate, being frequently more than twice this quantity; that in the southern provinces two crops of rice are produced in the year, one acre of which I am well assured, with proper culture, will afford a supply of that grain even for ten persons, and that an acre of cotton will clothe two or three hundred persons, we may justly infer that, instead of twelve acres to each family, half that quantity would appear to be more than necessary; and safely conclude, that there is no want of land to support the assumed population of three hundred and thirty-three millions. This being the case, the population is not yet arrived at a level with the means which the country affords of subsistence.

“ There is, perhaps, no country where the condition of the peasantry may more justly be compared with that of China than Ireland. This island, according to the latest survey, contains about 17,000,000 English acres, 730,000 houses, and 3,500,000 souls; so that, as in Great Britain, each individual averages very nearly five acres, and every family five and twenty. An Irish cottager holds seldom more than an Irish acre of land, or one and three quarters English, nearly, in cultivation, with a cow's grass, for which he pays a rent from two to five pounds. Those on Lord Macartney's estate at Lissanore have their acre, which they cultivate, in divisions, with oats, potatoes, kale, and a little flax; with this they have besides the full pasturage of a cow all the year upon a large waste, not overstocked, and a comfortable cabin to inhabit, for which each pays the rent of three pounds. The cottager works, perhaps, three days in the week, at nine-pence a-day; if, instead of which, he had a second acre to cultivate, he would derive more benefit from his produce than from the product of his three days labour *per week*; that is to say, provided he would expend the same labour in its tillage. Thus then, supposing only half of Ireland in a state of cultivation, and the other half pasturage, it would support a population more than three times that which it now contains; and as a century ago it had no more than a million of people, so within the present century, under favourable circumstances, it may increase to ten millions. And it is not unworthy of remark, that this great increase of population in Ireland has taken place since the introduction of the potatoe, which gives a never failing crop.

“ I am aware that such is not the common opinion which prevails in this country, neither with regard to Ireland or China; on the contrary, the latter is generally supposed to be overstocked with people; that the land is insufficient for their maintenance, and that the cities stand so thick one after the other, especially along the grand navigation between Pekin and Canton, that they almost occupy the whole surface. A person in the suite of Lord Macartney states as a fact, that he saw tea and rice growing on the banks of the *Pei-ho*, between the thirty-ninth and fortieth parallels of latitude, two articles of the culture of which, in the whole province of *Pe-tche-lee*, they know no more than we do in

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England; and he ignorantly and impudently talks of the shocking ideas the Chinese entertained of English cruelty, on seeing one of the guard receive a few lashes, when, not only the common soldiers, but the officers of this nation are flogged most severely with the bamboo on every slight occasion. If Doctor Vincent, from reading his book, was really persuaded that the cities of China were so large and so numerous, that they left not ground enough to subsist the inhabitants, I could wish to recall his attention for a few moments to this subject, as opinions sanctioned by such high authority, whether right or wrong, are sure in some degree, to bias the public mind. We have seen, that if China be allowed to contain three hundred and thirty-three millions of people, the proportion of its population is only just double that of Great Britain. Now, if London and Liverpool, and Birmingham and Glasgow, and all the cities, towns, villages, gentlemen's villas, farm houses, and cottages in this island were doubled, I see no great inconvenience likely to arise from such duplication. The unproductive land, in the shape of gentlemen's parks and pleasure grounds, would, I presume, be much more than sufficient to counterbalance the quantity occupied by the new erections; and the wastes and commons would, perhaps, be more than enough to allow even a second duplication. But the population of an English city is not to be compared with, or considered as similar to, the populousness of a Chinese city, as will be obvious by considering the two capitals of these two empires. Peking, according to a measurement, supposed to be taken with great accuracy, occupies a space of about fourteen square miles. London, with its suburbs, when reduced to a square, is said to comprehend about nine square miles. The houses of Peking rarely exceed a single story; those of London are seldom less than four; yet, both the Chinese and the Missionaries who are settled in this capital, agree that Peking contains three millions of people; while London is barely allowed to have one million. The reason of this difference is, that most of the cross streets of a Chinese city are very narrow, and the alleys branching from them so confined, that a person may place one hand on one side and the other on the other side as he walks along; that the houses, in general, are very small, and that each house contains six, eight, or ten persons, sometimes twice the number.

If,

If, therefore, fourteen square miles of buildings in China contain three millions of inhabitants, and nine square miles of buildings in England one million, the population of a city in China will be to that of a city in England as twenty-seven to fourteen, or very nearly as two to one; and the former, with a proportion of inhabitants double to that of the latter, will only have the same proportion of buildings: so that there is no necessity of their being so closely crowded together, or of their occupying so great a portion of land, as to interfere with the quantity necessary for the subsistence of the people.

POPULATION.

“ I have been thus particular, in order to set in its true light a subject that has been much agitated and generally disbelieved. The sum total of three hundred and thirty three millions is so enormous, that in its aggregate form it astonishes the mind and staggers credulity; yet we find no difficulty in conceiving that a single square mile in China may contain two hundred and fifty six persons, especially when we call to our recollection the United Provinces of Holland, which have been calculated to contain two hundred and seventy inhabitants on a square mile. And the United Provinces have enjoyed few of the advantages favourable to population, of which China, for ages past has been in the uninterrupted possession.

“ The materials for the statement given by Father Amict of the population of China appear to have been collected with care. The number of souls in 1760, according to this statement was - 196,837,977

In 1761 - - - - - 198,214,553

Annual increase, 1,376,576

This statement must however be incorrect, from the circumstance of some millions of people being excluded who have no fixed habitation, but are constantly changing their position on the inland navigations of the empire, as well as all the islanders of the Archipelago of *Cebu-san* and of Formosa. Without, however, taking these into consideration, and by supposing the number of souls in 1761, to amount to 198,214,553, there ought to have been, in the year 1793, by allowing a progressive increase, according to a moderate calculation in political arithmetic, at least 280,000,000 souls.

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“Whether this great empire, the first in rank both in extent and population, may or may not actually contain 333 millions of souls, is a point that Europeans are not likely ever to ascertain. That it is capable of subsisting this and a much greater population has, I think, been sufficiently proved. I know it is a common argument with those who are not willing to admit the fact, that although cities and towns and shipping may be crowded together in an astonishing manner, on and near the grand route between the capital and Canton, yet that the interior parts of the country are almost deserted. By some of our party going to *Chu-fan*, we had occasion to see parts of the country remote from the common road, and such parts happened to be by far the most populous in the whole journey. But independent of the small portion of country seen by us, the western provinces, which are most distant from the grand navigation, are considered as the granaries of the empire; and the cultivation of much grain, where few cattle and less machinery are used, necessarily implies a corresponding population. Thus we see from the above table, that the surplus produce of the land remitted to Peking from the provinces of

	Oz. Silver.
Honan } remote from the grand navigation, were	3,213,000
Shan-see } remote from the grand navigation, were	3,722,000
Shen-see } remote from the grand navigation, were	2,040,000
Whilst those of	
Pe-tche-lee } on the grand navigation were	3,036,000
Shan-tung } on the grand navigation were	3,600,000
Tche-kiang } on the grand navigation were	3,810,000

chiefly in rice, wheat and millet. There are no grounds therefore for supposing that the interior parts of China are deserts.

“There are others again who are persuaded of the population being so enormous, that the country is wholly inadequate to supply the means of subsistence; and that famines are absolutely necessary to keep down the former to the level of the latter. The loose and general way in which the accounts of the missionaries are drawn up certainly leave such an impression; but as I have endeavoured to shew that such is far from being the case, it may be expected I should also attempt to explain the frequency

frequency of those disastrous famines which occasionally commit such terrible havock in this country. I am of opinion then, that three principal reasons may be assigned for them. First, the equal division of the land: Secondly, the mode of cultivation: and Thirdly, the nature of the products.

POPULATION.

“ If, in the first place, every man has it in his option to rent as much land as will support his family with food and clothing, he will have no occasion to go to market for the first necessities; and such being generally the case in China, those first necessities find no market, except in the large cities. When the peasant has brought under tillage of grain as much land as may be sufficient for the consumption of his own family, and the necessary surplus for the landlord, he looks no further; and all his neighbours having done the same, the first necessities are, in fact, unsaleable articles, except in so far as regards the demands of large cities, which are by no means so close upon one another as has been imagined. A surplus of grain is likewise less calculated to exchange for superfluities or luxuries than many other articles of produce. This being the case, if, by any accident, a failure of the crops should be general in a province, it has no relief to expect from the neighbouring provinces, nor any supplies from foreign countries. In China there are no great farmers who store their grain to throw into the market in seasons of scarcity. In such seasons the only resource is that of the government opening its magazines, and restoring to the people that portion of their crop which it had demanded from them as the price of its protection. And this being originally only a tenth part, out of which the monthly subsistence of every officer and soldier had already been deducted, the remainder is seldom adequate to the wants of the people. Insurrection and rebellion ensue, and those who may escape the devouring scourge of famine, in all probability, fall by the sword. In such seasons a whole province is sometimes half depopulated; wretched parents are reduced, by imperious want, to sell or destroy their offspring, and children to put an end, by violence, to the sufferings of their aged and infirm parents. Thus, the equal division of land, so favourable to population in seasons of plenty, is just the reverse when the calamity of a famine falls upon the people.

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"In the second place, a scarcity may be owing to the mode of cultivation. When I mention that two thirds of the small quantity of land under tillage are cultivated with the spade or the hoe, or otherwise by manual labour, without the aid of draught-cattle or skilful machinery, it will readily be conceived how very small a portion each family will be likely to employ every year; certainly not one third-part of his average allowance.

"The third cause of famines may be owing to the nature of the products, particularly to that of rice. This grain, the staff of life in China, though it yields abundant returns in favourable seasons, is more liable to fail than most others. A drought in its early stages withers it on the ground; and an inundation when nearly ripe, is equally destructive. The birds and the locusts, more numerous in this country than an European can well conceive, infest it more than any other kind of grain. In the northern provinces, where wheat, millet and pulse are cultivated, famines more rarely happen; and I am persuaded that if potatoes and Guinea corn (*Zea-Mays*) were once adopted as the common vegetable food of the people, those direful famines that produce such general misery would entirely cease, and the increase of population be as rapid as that of Ireland. This root in the northern provinces, and this grain in the middle and southern ones, would never fail them. An acre of potatoes would yield more food than an acre of rice, and twice the nourishment. Rice is the poorest of all grain, if we may judge from the slender and delicate forms of all the people who use it as the chief article of their sustenance; and potatoes are just the contrary.*

"As Dr. Adam Smith observes, 'The chairman, porters, and coal-heavers in London, and those unfortunate woman who live by prostitution †, the strongest men and the most beautiful women perhaps in the British dominions, are said to be, the greater part of them, from the lowest rank of the people in Ireland who are genera-

* "The great advantage of a potatoe crop, as I before observed, is the certainty of its success. Were a general failure of this root to take place, as sometimes happens to crops of rice, Ireland in its present state, would experience all the horrors that attend a famine in some of the provinces of China."

† Not above a sixth part of the prostitutes is of Irish growth.

‘ rally fed with this root ; no food can afford a more decisive proof of
 ‘ its nourishing quality, or of its being peculiarly suitable to the health
 ‘ of the human constitution.’ The Guinea corn requires little or no
 attention after the seed is dropped into the ground ; and its leaves and
 juicy stems are not more nourishing for cattle than its prolific heads are
 for the sustenance of man.

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“ Various causes have contributed to the populousness of China. Since the Tartar conquest it may be said to have enjoyed a profound peace ; for in the different wars and skirmishes that have taken place with the neighbouring nations on the side of India, and with the Russians on the confines of Siberia, a few Tartar soldiers only have been employed. The Chinese army is parcelled out as guards for the towns, cities, and villages ; and stationed at the numberless posts on the roads and canals. Being seldom relieved from the several guards, they all marry and have families. A certain portion of land is allotted for their use, which they have sufficient time to cultivate. As the nation has little foreign commerce there are few seamen ; such as belong to the inland navigations are mostly married. Although there be no direct penalty levied again such as remain batchelors, as was the case among the Romans when they wished to repair the desolation that their civil wars had occasioned, yet public opinion considers celibacy as disgraceful, and a sort of infamy is attached to a man who continues unmarried beyond a certain time of life. And although in China the public law be not established of the *Jus trium liberorum*, by which every Roman citizen having three children was entitled to certain privileges and immunities, yet every male child may be provided for, and receive a stipend from the moment of his birth, by his name being inrolled on the military list. By the equal division of the country into small farms, every peasant has the means of bringing up his family, if drought and inundation do not frustrate his labour ; and the pursuits of agriculture are more favourable to health, and consequently to population, than mechanical employments in crowded cities and large manufactories, where those who are doomed to toil are more liable to become the victims of disease and debauchery, than such as are exposed to the free and open air, and to active and wholesome labour. In China there

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are few of such manufacturing cities. No great capitals are here employed in any one branch of the arts. In general each labours for himself in his own profession. From the general poverty that prevails among the lower orders of people, the vice of drunkenness is little practised among them. The multitude, from necessity, are temperate in their diet to the last degree. The climate is moderate, and, except in the northern provinces, where the cold is severe, remarkably uniform, not liable to those sudden and great changes in temperature, which the human constitution is less able to resist, than the extremes of heat or cold when steady and invariable, and from which the inconveniences are perhaps no where so severely felt as on our own island. Except the small-pox and contagious diseases that occasionally break out in their confined and crowded cities, they are liable to few epidemical disorders. The still and inanimate kind of life which is led by the women, at the same time that it is supposed to render them prolific, preserves them from accidents that might cause untimely births. Every woman suckles and nurses her own child.

“The operation of these and other favourable causes that might be assigned, in a country that has existed under the same form of government, and preserved the same laws and customs for so many ages, must necessarily have created an excess of population unknown in most other parts of the world, where the ravages of war, several times repeated in the course of a century, or internal commotions, or pestilential disease, or the effects of over-grown wealth, sometimes sweep away one half of a nation within the usual period allotted to the life of man.

‘What a grand and curious spectacle,’ as Sir George Staunton observes, ‘is here exhibited to the mind, of so large a proportion of the whole human race, connected together in one great system of polity, submitting quietly and through so considerable an extent of country to one great sovereign: and uniform in their laws, their manners, and their language; but differing essentially in each of these respects from every other portion of mankind; and neither desirous of communicating with, nor forming any designs against the rest of the world!’ How strong an instance does China afford of the truth of the observation, that men are more easily governed by opinion than by power!”

It is not a little surprising, that none of the writers upon this singular and interesting subject, should have had recourse to the most judicious account of China which has yet appeared, that drawn up by Neuhoff, the secretary to a Dutch embassy in the seventeenth century. The passage is so striking that a literal translation may be acceptable.

POPULATION.

“The number of inhabitants is vast, within and without the cities: the whole empire swarms with them like an ant hive. Besides the royal household, the magistrates, eunuchs, soldiers, priests, women, and children, the men arrived at the age of manhood, according to the books of taxation, are not less than fifty-eight millions, nine hundred and fourteen thousand, two hundred and eighty-four. Nor ought this to excite the astonishment of the reader, for if the great wall be defended by a million of soldiers, if there be three hundred thousand persons throughout China acknowledged to descend from Hunguvo, the founder of the Taminga dynasty, if five thousand soldiers perform, in their turns, the nightly watch of the palace, and as many eunuchs the daily watch, if there be numbered not less than ten thousand governors of provinces, cities, and other places of superior name, he would be easily credited who should assert, that this empire contains two hundred millions of souls: especially if you add the crowds of people who live upon the water, the number of vessels being so great, that when they drop anchor in the river at night, they often present a semblance of a great city. Besides, the number of inhabitants might be easily known, because each father of a family is obliged, under a severe fine, to affix to the principal door of his house, a list of the number and condition of the inhabitants. And lest any fraud should be committed, there is an inspector, called the Titang, over every ten houses, and if there be any error or fraud, he gives intelligence to the governor.”*

The arguments here used by Neuhoff for his belief in the two hundred millions, are certainly not cogent. A modern reasoner on this topic would follow up the induction, to be derived from the number of those arrived at manhood, as evidenced by the books of taxation. As these persons could in no case exceed a fourth part of the population, that of the whole

* P. 6. Anst. 1663, folio. The numerous views in this book are also very accurate, so far as Mr. Alexander, the draughtsman to the late English embassy, could judge.

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empire, in the time of Neuhoff, could not have fallen short of two hundred and thirty-five millions, six hundred and fifty-seven thousand, one hundred and thirty-six.

It must be remembered, that Neuhoff visited China when the new Mandshur emperor was not yet initiated into the profound jealousy of Chinese policy, and strangers had more free access to make inquiries of this nature : and our author displays such judgment on all occasions, that his accuracy deserves great confidence. The number of Chinese who perished by their resistance to the conqueror, was, in some instances, as at Can'on, very great, and some large cities were even reduced to ashes ; but supposing this loss to be even ten millions of lives, it can scarcely enter into the present calculation. Yet, the frequent famines in China, the exposition of infants, colonies, and perhaps other causes must prevent our calculating upon the extent of the progressive population, and it may probably have little increased since the seventeenth century.

The table published by Sir George Staunton, is not only suspicious upon account of the round millions, as Mr. Barrow has observed, but also upon account of the sum total of three hundred and thirty-three millions, which seems rather adapted to a superstitious attachment to the number three, not unusual among the oriental nations. Supposing this objection unfounded, the round numbers will always lead us to infer, with certainty, that the number of women, children, and perhaps of the untaxable poor, has been added at random, in order to make up complete millions for each province. In such cases it has been found among civilized nations, that a reduction of one third part will come very near the truth. Thus, for example, the population of London has been vaguely estimated at twelve hundred thousand, but was found, upon enumeration, to be little more than eight hundred thousand ; and many other similar examples might be given. In this way of reasoning, when the Chinese, a highly civilized people, speak of three hundred and thirty-three millions, they may be reduced to two hundred and twenty-two millions ; which sufficiently corresponds with the statement by Neuhoff, to shew some approximation to the truth.*

* If Europe, computed at one hundred and fifty millions, and now desolated by petty conflicts, were one empire, it is probable that the population would soon equal that of China.

As the Chinese laws permit no native to leave his country, there can be no colonies properly so called.* The army has been computed at 1,000,000 of infantry, and 800,000 cavalry; and the revenues at about thirty-six millions and a half of tahels, or ounces of silver, or about nine millions sterling; but as rice, and other grain, are also paid in kind it may be difficult to estimate the precise amount or relative value compared with European money.†

COLONIES.

Army.

Revenue.

The political importance and relations of China may be said to be concentrated in itself, as no example is known of alliance with any other state. It has been supposed that one European ship would destroy the Chinese navy, and that 10,000 European troops might overrun the empire. Yet its very extent is an obstacle to foreign conquest, and perhaps not less than 100,000 soldiers would be necessary to maintain the quiet subjugation; so that any foreign yoke might prove of very short continuance. The recent conquest by the Mandshurs happened in consequence of the general detestation, excited against a sanguinary usurper; and the invaders were in the immediate proximity, while even a Russian army would find almost insurmountable difficulties on the route, and the conquest, like that by the descendants of Zingis, would infallibly prove of short duration. The English, in Hindostan, nearly approach to the Chinese territories; but there can hardly arise any rational ground of dissention in opposition to the interests of British commerce. Were the Chinese government persuaded of the utility of external relations, an alliance with the English might be adopted, as a protection against maritime outrage, while the Russian power might be divided by connections with the sovereigns of Persia.

Political Importance and Relations.

* Yet the number of Chinese at Batavia, and other situations in the Oriental Archipelago, many of whom pass as traders to and from their country, shews that these laws are little regarded.

† Sir George Staunton, iii. 390, estimates the revenue at 200,000,000 of ounces of silver; which he says equal 66,000,000l. sterling; but valuing the ounce of silver at five shillings, the amount is 50,000,000l.

CHAPTER III.

CIVIL GEOGRAPHY.

Manners and Customs. — Language. — Literature. — Education. — Universities. — Cities and Towns. — Edifices. — Roads. — Inland Navigation. — Manufactures and Commerce.

MANNERS
AND
CUSTOMS.

THE Chinese being a people in the highest state of civilization, their manners and customs might require a long description, especially as they are extremely different from those of other nations. The limits of this work will only admit a few hints. In visiting the sea ports of China, foreigners have commonly been impressed with the idea of fraud and dishonesty; but it is to be supposed that these bad qualities are not so apparent where there are fewer temptations. The indolence of the upper classes, who are even fed by their servants, and the nastiness of the lower, who eat almost every kind of animal, in whatever way it may have died, are also striking defects, though the latter may be occasioned by dire necessity in so populous a country. To the same cause may be imputed the exposition of infants, a custom which long prevailed in Scandinavia, and was not unknown in ancient Greece and Rome, but which always yielded to the progress of civilization. On the other hand the character of the Chinese is mild and tranquil, and universal affability is very rarely interrupted by the slightest tincture of harshness, or passion. These qualities may be partly imputed to the vigilant eye of the patriarchal government, and partly to strict abstinence from heating foods, and intoxicating liquors. The general drink is tea, of which a larger vessel is prepared in the morning for the occasional use of the family during the day. Marriages are

are conducted solely by the will of the parents, and polygamy is allowed. MANNERS
AND
CUSTOMS.
The bride is purchased by a present to her parents, and is never seen by her husband till after the ceremony. Divorce is permitted in case of adultery, antipathy of temper, a claim urged by Milton; and even in case of just ground of jealousy, of gross indiscretion, and disobedience to the husband, of barrenness, and contagious diseases. Yet divorces are rare among the higher classes, whose plurality of wives enables them to punish by neglect. It is not permitted to bury in cities or towns, and the sepulchres are commonly on barren hills, and mountains, where there is no chance that agriculture will disturb the bones of the dead. The colour of mourning is white, that personal neglect or forgetfulness may appear in its squalor; and it ought on solemn occasions to continue for three years, but seldom exceeds twenty-seven months. The walls of the houses are sometimes of brick, or of hardened clay, but more commonly of wood; and they generally consist only of a ground floor, though in those of merchants there be sometimes a second story which forms the warehouse. The houses are ornamented with columns, and open galleries, but the articles of furniture are few. The dress is long, with large sleeves, and a flowing girdle of silk. The shirt and drawers vary accordingly to the seasons; and in winter the use of furs is general, from the skin of the sheep to that of the ermine. The head is covered with a small hat, in the form of a funnel, but this varies among the superior classes, whose rank is distinguished by a large bead on the top, diversified in colour according to the quality. The dress is, in general, simple and uniform; and on the audience given to Lord Macartney that of the emperor was only distinguished by one large pearl in his bonnet. The chief amusements of the Chinese seem to be dramatic exhibitions, fire works, in which they excel all other nations, and feats of deception and dexterity.

The language is esteemed the most singular on the face of the globe. Language.
Almost every syllable constitutes a word, and there are scarcely 1500 distinct sounds; yet in the written language there are at least 80,000 characters, or different forms of letters, so that every sound may have about 50 senses.* The leading characters are denominated keys,

* Du Halde, ii. 146.

† Saunton, iii. 418.

LANGUAGE. which are not of difficult acquisition. The language seems originally to have been hieroglyphical; but afterwards the sound alone was considered. Abstract terms are expressed, as usual, by relative ideas; thus *virtue*, which in Latin implies strength, among the Chinese signifies filial piety; the early prevalence of knowledge in China excluding mere strength from any meritorious claim.

Education. The schools of education are numerous, but the children of the poor are chiefly taught to follow the business of their fathers. In a Chinese treatise of education, published by Du Halde, the following are recommended as the chief topics. 1. The six virtues, namely, prudence, piety, wisdom, equity, fidelity, concord. 2. The six laudable actions, to wit, obedience to parents, love to brothers, harmony with relations, affection for neighbours, sincerity with friends, and mercy with regard to the poor and unhappy. 3. The six essential points of knowledge, that of religious rites, music, archery, horsemanship, writing, and accounts. Such a plan is certainly more useful than the acquisition of dead languages.

Cities and Towns. The chief cities of China are Peking and Nankin, or the northern and southern courts, the former being the Cambalu, or city of the Chan, in writings of the middle ages, the capital of Cathay, as Nankin was of Mangi. Peking occupies a large space of ground; but the streets are wide, and the houses seldom exceed one story. The length of what is called the Tatar city is about four miles, and the suburbs are considerable. The principal part, or that called the Tatar city, is so denominated, because it was re-edified in the thirteenth century, under the dynasty of the Tatars, or rather the Monguls.* By the best information, which the recent embassy could procure, the population was computed at 3,000,000. The houses indeed are neither large nor numerous; but it is common to find three generations, with all their wives and children, under one roof, as they eat in common, and one room contains many beds. The neatness of the houses, and various repletion of the shops, delight the eye of the visitor. At Peking the

* Staunton, ii. 297.

† So Staunton; but Du Halde, i. 135, says it is so called because the houses were allotted to the Mandarins, in the beginning of the present dynasty.

grand examinations take place, which confer the highest degree in literature, or in other words the chief offices in government. Excessive wealth, or poverty, seem equally unknown, as there is no right of primogeniture, and no hereditary dignity: and there are properly but three classes of men in China, men of letters, among whom the mandarins are selected; cultivators of the ground; and mechanics, including merchants.* The walls of this capital are of considerable strength and thickness; and the nine gates of no inelegant architecture. Strict police and vigilance are observed, and the streets are crowded with passengers and carriages. The grandest edifice is the imperial palace, which consists of many picturesque buildings, dispersed over a wide and greatly diversified space of ground, so as to present the appearance of enchantment.

"The police of the capital, is so well regulated, that the safety and tranquillity of the inhabitants are seldom disturbed. At the end of every cross street, and at certain distances in it, are a kind of cross bars, with centry boxes, at each of which is placed a soldier, and few of these streets are without a guard-house. Besides, the proprietor or inhabitant of every tenth house, like the ancient tythingmen of England, takes it in turn to keep the peace, and be responsible for the good conduct of his nine neighbours. If any riotous company should assemble, or any disturbances happen within his district, he is to give immediate information thereof to the nearest guard-house. The soldiers also go their rounds, and instead of crying the hour like our watchmen, strike upon a short tube of bamboo, which gives a dull hollow sound, that for several nights prevented us from sleeping until we were accustomed to it.*"

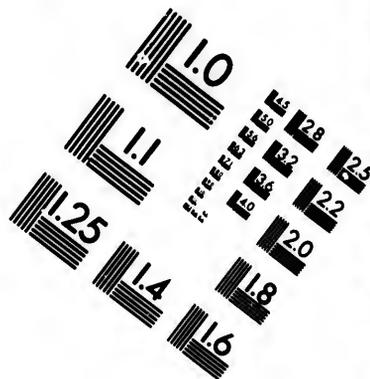
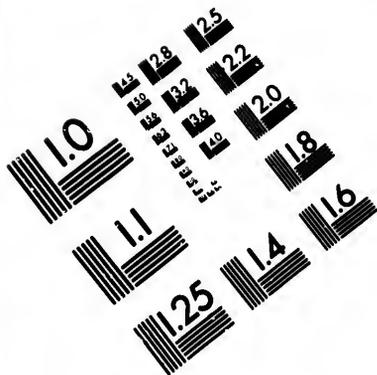
Nankin, which was the residence of the court till the fifteenth century, is a yet more extensive city than Peking, and is reputed the largest in the empire. The walls are said to be about 17 British miles in circumference. The chief edifices are the gates with a few temples; and a celebrated tower clothed with porcelain, about 200 feet in height.

* Staunton, ii. 329. But the military must be regarded as a fourth class.

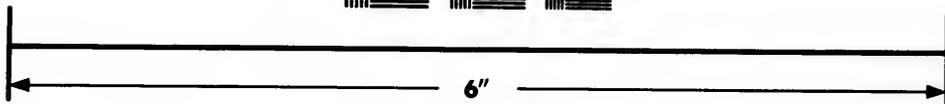
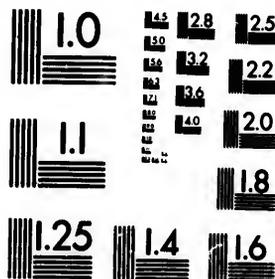
* Barrow's China, p. 100.

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CITIES AND TOWNS.

Such towers were styled pagodas by the Portuguese, who supposed them to be temples; but they seem to have been chiefly erected as memorials, or as ornaments, like the Grecian and Roman columns.

Canton.

To the European reader one of the most interesting cities is Canton, which is said to contain a million and a half of inhabitants; numerous families residing in barks on the river. The European factories, with their national flags, are no small ornaments to this city. The chief export is that of tea, of which it is said that about 13,000,000 of pounds weight are consumed by Great Britain, and her dependencies, and about 5,000,000 by the rest of Europe. The imports from England, chiefly woollens, with lead, tin, furs, and other articles, are supposed to exceed a million; and the exports a million and a half, besides the trade between China and our possessions in Hindostan. Other nations carry to Canton the value of about 200,000*l.* and return with articles to the value of about 600,000*l.* So that the balance in favour of China may be computed at a million sterling.

Other Cities.

The other large cities of China are almost innumerable; and many of the villages are of a surprising size. Among the cities may be mentioned Singan, the capital of the province of Shensi, Kayfong, that of Honan, Tayyuen of Shansi, Tsinan of Shanton, Chingtu of Sechwun, Vuchang of Huquang, Nanchang of Kyangsi, Hangchew of Chekyang, Fuchew of Fokyen, Quegling of Quangsi, Queyyang of Queychew, and Yunnan of the western province so called, with Shinyan, the chief city of the northern province of Lyautong, and Kinkitao of Corea, a dependency of China. Of these cities Singan is by some esteemed equal to Peking. In general the plan and fortifications are similar; and a Mandshur garrison is carefully maintained.

Edifices.

The most striking and peculiar edifices in China are the pagodas, or towers, already mentioned, which sometimes rise to the height of nine stories, of more than twenty feet each. The temples, on the contrary, are commonly low buildings, always open to the devout worshippers of polytheism. The whole style of Chinese architecture is well known to be singular, and is displayed with the greatest splendour in the imperial palace at Peking, which is described at great length by Du Halde, and Sir George Staunton. The late emperor chiefly resided in the summer

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at the palace of Zheho, about 120 miles N. E. from Pekin, in the country of the Mandshurs, not far beyond the great wall, where the various edifices of the palace are, as usual, situated in a pleasure ground of wide extent. The architecture is elegant, and highly ornamented, but the paintings of mean execution, as the Chinese are strangers to perspective, and do not admit of shade, which they regard as a blemish.

EDIFICES.

The roads are generally kept in excellent order, with convenient bridges. That near the capital is thus described by Sir George Staunton. "This road forms a magnificent avenue to Pekin, for persons and commodities bound for that capital, from the east and from the south. It is perfectly level; the centre, to the width of about twenty feet, is paved with flags of granite, brought from a considerable distance, and of a size from six to sixteen feet in length, and about four feet broad. On each side of this granite pavement is a road unpaved, wide enough for carriages to cross upon it. The road was bordered in many places with trees, particularly willows of a very uncommon girth. The travellers soon passed over a marble bridge, of which the construction appeared equal to the material. The perfection of such a fabric may be considered to consist in its being made as like as possible to that of which it supplies the want: and the present bridge seems to answer that description; for it is very wide, and substantially built, over a rivulet not subject to inundations, and is little elevated above the level of the roads which it connects together."

Roads.

The canals of China have long excited the envy and wonder of other nations. As the two grand rivers of Hoan ho and Kian ku bend their course from west to east, the chief object was to intersect the empire from north to south; which was in great measure accomplished by the imperial canal. This wonderful work, which in utility and labour exceeds the enormous wall, is said to have been begun in the tenth century of the Christian era, 30,000 men having been employed for 43 years in its completion.

Inland Navigation.

"This great work differs much from the canals of Europe, which are generally protracted in straight lines, within narrow bounds, and without a current, whereas that of China is winding often in its course,

of

INLAND NA-
VIGATION.

of unequal and sometimes considerable width, and its waters are seldom stagnant.

“The ground which intervened between the bed of this artificial river, and that of the Eu-ho, was cut down to the depth of about 30 feet, in order to permit the waters of the former to flow with a gentle current into the latter. Their descent is afterwards checked occasionally, by flood gates thrown across the canal, wherever they were judged to be necessary, which was seldom the case, so near as within a mile of each other, the current of the water being slow in most places. This canal has no locks like those of Europe. The flood-gates are simple in their construction, easily managed, and kept in repair at a trifling expence. They consist merely of a few planks, let down separately one upon another, by grooves cut into the sides of the two solid abutments, or piers of stone, that project one from each bank, leaving a space in the middle just wide enough to admit a passage for the largest vessels employed upon the canal. As few parts of it are entirely level, the use of these flood-gates, assisted by others cut through its banks, is to regulate the quantity of water in the canal. Some skill is required to be exerted, in order to direct the barges through them without accident. For this purpose an immense oar projects from the bow of the vessel, by which one of the crew conducts her with the greatest nicety. Men are also stationed on each pier with fenders, made of skins stuffed with hair, to prevent the effect of the vessels striking immediately against the stone, in their quick passage through the gates.

“Light bridges of timber are thrown across those piers, which are easily withdrawn whenever vessels are about to pass underneath. The flood-gates are only opened at certain stated hours, when all the vessels collected near them in the interval pass through them, on paying a small toll, appropriated to the purpose of keeping in repair the flood-gates, and banks of the canal. The loss of water occasioned by the opening of the flood-gate is not very considerable, the fall at each seldom being many inches; and which is soon supplied by streams conducted into the canal from the adjacent country on both sides. The fall is, however, sometimes above a foot, or two, when the distance between the flood-gates is considerable, or the current rapid. The canal was traced often

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in the beds of ancient rivers, which it resembled in the irregularity of its depth, the sinuosity of its course, and the breadth of its surface, where not narrowed by a flood-gate. Wherever the circumstances of the adjacent country admitted the water in the canal to be maintained in a proper quantity, without any material deficiency, or excess, by means of sluices managed in its sides, for the purpose of influx, or discharge, as was the case farther to the southward, few flood-gates were necessary to be constructed; nor were there any where met above half a dozen in a day.”

INLAND NA-
VIGATION.

The same author describes this canal as beginning at Lin-sin-choo, where it joins the river Eu-ho, and extending to Han-choo-foo, in an irregular line of about 500 miles. Where it joins the Hoan-ho, or Yellow river, it is about three quarters of a mile in breadth. From the subsequent narrative it appears that Du Halde, Le Comte, and other French authors, have been misled when they supposed that the imperial canal extends from Canton to Peking, while half of the course is supplied by river navigation, and smaller canals, and it is sometimes interrupted by mountainous districts.* In the south the river Kan Kian, which runs from S. W. to N. E., supplies a very considerable part of the navigation.

To enumerate the other canals of China would be infinite, as there is a large canal in every province, with branches leading to most of the towns and villages.

The manufactures of China are so multifarious, as to embrace almost every article of industry. The most noted manufacture is that of porcelain; and is followed in trade by those of silk, cotton, paper, &c. The porcelain of China has been celebrated from remote ages, and is chiefly prepared from a pure white clay called kaolin: while the petunsi is understood to be a decayed felspar. Some writers add soap rock, and gypsum.⁶ The excellent imitations which have appeared in various countries of Europe, more elegant in the form and

Manufactures
and Com-
merce.

⁵ Sir G. Staunton, iii. 204.

⁶ Phillips, p. 8. seq. gives a very erroneous idea of the length of this canal.

⁶ Staunton, iii. 300.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE. painting, have considerably reduced the value of the Chinese manufactory.

The internal commerce of China is immense, but the external trade is unimportant, considering the vastness of the empire. A scanty intercourse exists with Russia, and Japan; but the chief export is that of tea, which is sent to England to the value of about one million yearly.

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CHAPTER IV.

NATURAL GEOGRAPHY.

Climate and Seasons. — Face of the Country. — Soil and Agriculture. — Rivers. — Lakes. — Mountains. — Forests. — Botany. — Zoology. — Mineralogy. — Mineral Waters. — Natural Curiosities.

THE European intercourse with China being chiefly confined to the southern part of the empire, the climate is generally considered as hot, whereas the northern part of this extensive country is liable to all the rigours of the European winter.¹ At Pekin such is the effect of the great range of Tatarian, or rather Manchurian, mountains covered with perpetual snow, that the average degree of the thermometer is under 20° in the night, during the winter months; and even in the day it is considerably below the freezing point. The inhabitants, unaccustomed to domestic fires, increase their cloathing; but in large buildings there are stoves provided with fossil coal, which is found in abundance in the vicinity. In an empire so wide, such a diversity of climate and seasons must occur that no general description can suffice. Perhaps every vegetable production, adapted to use or luxury, might be reared within the Chinese boundaries.

CLIMATE
AND SEA-
SONS.

The face of the country is infinitely diversified; and though in a general view it be flat and fertile, and intersected with numerous large rivers and canals, yet there are chains of granitic mountains, and other districts of a wild and savage nature. Cultivation has however considerably reduced the number and extent of such features, whence the natives seek to diversify the sameness of improvement, by introducing them in miniature into their gardens. In general the appearance of the

Face of the
Country.

¹ Staunton, iii. 157.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY. country is rendered singularly picturesque by the peculiar style of the buildings, and uncommon form of the trees and plants.

Soil and Agriculture.

The soil is infinitely various, and agriculture, by the account of all travellers, carried to the utmost degree of perfection. The extent of the internal commerce has had the same effect as if wealth had been procured from foreign climes; and the advantage has been laudably used in the improvement of the country. It is well known that the emperor himself sets an annual example of the veneration due to agriculture, the first and most important province of human industry. Sir George Staunton thus expresses his ideas of Chinese agriculture:*

“Where the face of the hill or mountain is not nearly perpendicular to the level surface of the earth, the slope is converted into a number of terraces, one above another, each of which is supported by mounds of stone. By this management it is not uncommon to see the whole face of a mountain completely cultivated to the summit. These stages are not confined to the culture of any particular vegetable. Pulse, grain, yams, sweet potatoes, onions, carrots, turnips, and a variety of other culinary plants, are produced upon them. A reservoir is sunk in the top of the mountain. The rain water collected in it is conveyed, by channels, successively to the different terraces, placed upon the mountain’s sides. In spots too rugged, barren, steep, or high for raising other plants, the camellia *sefanqua*, and divers firs, particularly the larch, are cultivated with success.

“The collection of manure is an object of so much attention with the Chinese, that a prodigious number of old men and women, as well as of children, incapable of much other labour, are constantly employed about the streets, public roads, banks of canals, and rivers, with baskets tied before them, and holding in their hands small wooden rakes, to pick up the dung of animals, and offals of any kind, that may answer the purpose of manure; but above all others, except the dung of fowls, the Chinese farmers, like the Romans according to the testimony of Columella, prefer soil or the matter collected by nightmen in London, in the vicinity of which it is in fact applied to the same uses; as has already been alluded to in describing a visit to the Lowang pea-

* Staunton, iii. 306.

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fant in a former part of this work. This manure is mixed sparingly with a portion of stiff loamy earth, and formed into cakes, dried afterwards in the sun. In this state it sometimes becomes an object of commerce, and is sold to farmers, who never employ it in a compact state. Their first care is to construct large cisterns for containing, besides those cakes and dung of every kind, all sorts of vegetable matter, as leaves or roots or stems of plants, mud from the canals, and offals of animals, even to the shavings collected by the barbers. With all these they mix as much animal water as can be collected, or of common water as will dilute the whole; and in this state, generally in the act of putrid fermentation, they apply it to be ploughed or broken earth. In various parts of a farm, and near paths and roads, large earthen vessels are buried to the edge in the ground, for the accommodation of the labourer or passenger, who may have occasion to use them. In small retiring houses, built also upon the brink of roads, and in the neighbourhood of villages, reservoirs are constructed of compact materials to prevent the absorption of whatever they receive, and straw is carefully thrown over the surface from time to time, to stop the evaporation. And such a value is set upon the principal ingredient for manure, that the oldest and most helpless persons are not deemed wholly useless to the family by which they are supported.

“The quantity of manure collected by all these means must however be still inadequate to that of the cultured ground, which bears so vast a proportion to the whole surface of the country. It is reserved therefore, in the first instance, for the purpose of procuring a quick succession of culinary vegetables, and for forcing the production of flowers and fruit. Among the vegetables raised most generally, and in the greatest quantities, is a species or variety of brassica, called by the Chinese pe-tlai, or white herb, which is of a delicate taste, somewhat resembling what is called coss-lettuce, and is much relished in China by foreigners as well as natives. Whole acres of it are planted every where in the vicinity of populous cities; and it was sometimes difficult to pass on a morning through the crowds of wheel-barrow, and hand-carts, loaded with this plant, going into the gates of Peking and Hân-choo-foo. It seems to thrive best in the northern provinces, where it is salted for winter consumption.

SOIL AND
AGRICUL-
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SOIL AND
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TURE.

consumption, and in that state is often carried to the southward and exchanged for rice. That grain, and that herb, together with a relish of garlick or of onions, in room of animal food, and followed by a little infusion of coarse tea, serve often as a meal for a Chinese peasant or mechanic. The Chinese husbandman always steeps the seeds he intends to sow in liquid manure, until they swell, and germination begins to appear; which experience, he says, has taught him to have the effect of hastening the growth of plants, as well as of defending them against the insects hidden in the ground in which the seeds were sown. Perhaps this method has preserved the Chinese turnips from the fly, that is often fatal to their growth elsewhere. To the roots of plants and fruit trees the Chinese farmer applies liquid manure likewise, as contributing much towards forwarding their growth and vigour. The Roman author, already quoted in this chapter, relates that a similar practice had much improved the apples and vines of Italy.

“The great object of Chinese agriculture, the production of grain, is generally obtained with little manure, and without letting the land lie fallow. It is true that there are plants, such as a species of the epidendron, that is capable of vegetating in air alone. Others, as bulbous roots and succulent plants, which thrive best in sand, and a great variety in water; but, with those exceptions, virgin or vegetable earth is the proper bed of vegetation: and whatever may be the theory of the agricultural art, its practice certainly requires that there should be given to the soil such a texture and consistency as may be found most suitable to the plants intended to be raised. Such a texture may in most cases be obtained by the application of manures, being generally a mixture of animal and vegetable substances, that have undergone the putrefactive fermentation. A mucilage is thus formed, which besides any other changes it may produce, is found to give a new consistence to the soil with which it comes in contact, to render clay more friable, and to give tenacity to light and sandy soils; as well as to maintain in both a proper degree of temperature and humidity.”

This ingenious and well informed author proceeds to applaud the industry of the Chinese, in mingling their soil, and in the irrigation of land, which last they consider as a leading principle of agricultural skill. The

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† Ib. iii. 2

plough is simple, and managed by one person, having but one handle, and no coulter, which is deemed unnecessary, as there is no lea ground, and consequently no turf to cut through, in China. The husbandry is singularly neat, and not a weed is to be seen.

SOIL AND
AGRICUL-
TURE.

In describing the rivers of this great empire two are well known to deserve particular attention, namely the Hoan-ho and the Kian-ku. The sources of the first, also called the Yellow river, from the quantity of mud which it devolves, are two lakes, situated amongst the mountains of that part of Tatory known by the name of Kokonor.* They lie about the 35° of north latitude, and 19° of longitude, to the westward of Pekin, being, according to Arrowsmith's map of Asia, about 97° east from Greenwich.† This prodigious river is extremely winding and devious in its course, pursuing a N. E. direction to about the 42° of north latitude, and after running due east it suddenly bends south to a latitude nearly parallel to its source, and pursues an easterly direction till it be lost in the Yellow sea. Its comparative course may be estimated at about 1800 British miles; or according to the late embassy, 2150. At about 70 miles from the sea, where it is crossed by the imperial canal, the breadth is little more than a mile, and the depth only about nine or ten feet; but the velocity equals about seven or eight miles in the hour.‡

Rivers.

The Kian-ku rises in the vicinity of the sources of the Hoan-ho; but according to the received accounts and maps about 200 miles further to the west, and winds nearly as far to the south as the Hoan-ho does to the north. After washing the walls of Nankin it enters the sea about 100 miles to the south of the Hoan-ho. The Kian-ku is known by various names through its long progress; and near its source is called by the Eluts Porticho or Petchou; the course is about equal to that of the

* In the Chinese language *Hoang* implies yellow; it rises in the mountains called Quenlun by the Chinese; Otunlao by the Tibetans. Some say that *Ho* implies a large river, *Kiang* one of middle size, Yang-sou son of the sea. De Gingnes always uses simply *Hoan* and *Kian*, as the names of the two great Chinese rivers. Kiang or Yang-sou-Kiang rises in the mountains of Min, whence it is also styled Minkiang.

† Staunton, iii. 232; but the *flurry fountains* are more to the west. See the Atlas and description by Du Halde.

‡ Ib. iii. 234.

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RIVERS.

former, these two rivers being considered as the longest on the face of the globe: they certainly equal, if they do not exceed, the famous river of the Amazons in South America, and the majestic course of the Ganges does not extend half the length. In the late embassy the length of the Kian-ku is estimated at about 2200 miles; and it is observed that these two great Chinese rivers, taking their source from the same mountains, and passing almost close to each other, in a particular spot, afterwards separate from each other to the distance of 15° of latitude, or about 1050 British miles; and finally discharge themselves into the same sea, comprehending a track of land of about 1000 miles in length, which they greatly contribute to fertilize.

To these grand rivers many important streams are tributary; but it would be infinite to enumerate the various waters which enrich and adorn this wide empire. The Eu-ho in the north; the Hoan-ho, the Lo-kiang, the Kan-kiang, the Ou-kiang, and others, in the centre; and the Hon-kiang, Pe-kiang, and others in the south, are chiefly noted by geographers, who are more inclined to fill their maps with names of towns and villages, than to discriminate the lasting features of nature.

LAKES.

Nor is China destitute of noble and extensive lakes. Du Halde informs us that the lake of Tong-tint-hou, in the province of Hou-quang, is more than 80 leagues in circumference. That of Hong-si-hou is partly in the province of Kiang-nan, and partly in an adjoining division of the empire. That of Poyang-hou, in the province of Kiang-si, is about thirty leagues in circumference, and is formed by the confluence of four rivers as large as the Loire: this last is of dangerous navigation. There is also a considerable lake, not far to the south of Nankin, called Tai-hou; and the map of D'Anville indicates a number of smaller lakes, chiefly in the eastern and central parts of China. Some of these lakes are described in the late embassy, as those of Paoyng, Tai-hou, and Sec-hoo. Upon a lake near the Imperial canal were observed thousands of small boats and rafts, constructed for a singular species of fishery. "On each boat, or raft, are ten or a dozen birds, which, at a signal from the owner, plunge into the water; and it is astonishing to see the enormous size of fish with which they return, grasped within their bills. They appeared to be so well trained that it

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did not require either ring or cord about their throats, to prevent them from swallowing any portion of their prey, except what the master was pleased to return to them, for encouragement and food. The boat used by these fishermen is of a remarkable light make, and is often carried to the lake, together with the fishing birds, by the men who are there to be supported by it."

The large lake of Wee-chaung-hoo is also described in the embassy as a singular scene of nature, and of industry; this lake, with several others, appear to be omitted in the maps. That of Tai-hoo is surrounded by a chain of picturesque hills, and was full of pleasure boats, many of them rowed by a single female.¹

Concerning the extensive ranges of Chinese mountains, no general and accurate information has yet been given. Du Halde's ample description of the Chinese empire only informs us that some abound with mines of silver, others produce marble and crystal, while some supply medicinal herbs. But the ancients give ideas at once general and precise, while modern information is often confused from its minuteness, and the consideration of the grand features of nature is sacrificed to that of the petty exertions of man. From the same author we learn that the provinces of Yunnan, Koeitchou, Setchuen, and Fokien, are so mountainous as greatly to impede their cultivation; and that of Tchekiang has dreadful mountains on the west. In the province of Kiangnan there is a district full of high mountains, which also abound in the provinces of Chenfi and of Shansi. This imperfect information is little enlarged by the account published of the late embassy;* and perhaps Mr. Arrowsmith's recent map of Asia contains as authentic information as can be procured concerning the course and extent of the Chinese mountains. It hence appears that a considerable branch extends from those in central Asia, running south to the river Hoan-ho. Two grand ranges, running E. and W., intersect the centre of the empire, seemingly continuations of the enormous chains of Tibet. In the southern part of China the principal ridges appear to run from N. to S.

¹ Staunton, iii. 220.

* The Abbé Grosier's account is equally imperfect, and only filled with idle tales.

MOUNTAINS. The Chinese chains of mountains, some of which are supposed to rival the Apennines and Pyrennees, may be seven or eight in number; but so imperfect is still our knowledge of this empire, that no general appellations have been conferred, and scarcely is the name of one Chinese mountain known to geography. D'Anville amidst all his care, and exuberance of information from French jesuits who had long resided in China, lays down the mountains on his usual plan in all his maps, as confused spots scattered over the whole country, so that in this grand department he may be said to yield even to the meanest of his predecessors.

Forests Such is the cultivation diffused throughout China, that few forests remain except in the mountainous districts. Near the royal palaces there are indeed forests of great extent, but they rather bear the appearance of art than of nature.

Botany. The number of Europeans who have been allowed to visit the interior of China is so small, and those to whom this privilege has been granted having objects of more urgency to attend to than the indigenous plants of this vast empire, we are as yet only in possession of some scattered fragments of the Chinese flora. The neighbourhood of Canton has been surveyed by Osbeck, and a meagre list of plants is to be found in Staunton's account of the English embassy there. These are almost the only authentic sources that have been hitherto opened, and are calculated rather to excite than to satisfy the botanical inquirer.*

Among the trees and larger shrubs we find particularized the *thuya orientalis*, an elegant evergreen; the *camphor* laurel, whose wood makes an excellent and durable timber, and from the roots of which that fragrant substance camphor is procured by distillation; *oleander-leaved spurge*, a large shrub used as a material for hedges; *hibiscus ficulneus* and *mutabilis*, the latter of which is a tree of considerable size, and eminently conspicuous for its splendid blossoms; *croton sebiferum*, *tallozo tree*, from the fruit of which a green wax is procured that is manufactured into candles; the spreading *banyan tree*, growing among loose rocks; *weeping willow*; *Spanish chestnut*; and the *larch*. Of the fruit

* Osbeck's voyage to China, Staunton's account of the embassy to China.

trees the following are the principal: *China orange*; *plantain tree*; BOTANY *tamarind*; the *white* and *paper mulberry tree*; the former of these is principally cultivated for the use of its leaves, on which the silkworms are fed; and of the bark of the latter, paper, and a kind of cloth, are made. Nor must the two species of the *tea tree*, *thea viridis* and *bohea*, be left unnoticed, whose leaves constitute so large a proportion of the European trade with China.

Several beautiful plants grow wild in the hedges, such as *globe amaranth*; *balsam*; and that elegant climber *ipomea quamoclit*.

Of those plants that grow in China by the river sides, or in marshy places, the most worthy of notice are the *smilax China* and *sarsaparilla*; *maranta galanga*, *galangale*, used in medicine; *nymphaea nelumbo*, a species of *water lily*, the roots of which are esculent; *arundo bambos*, *bamboo*, the largest plant of the grass kind, the stems of which, from their lightness and strength, are applied to a multitude of useful purposes; and *aster indicus*, *China-aster*, a common ornament of our gardens; the splendid and capricious *ixia*, and the elegant *azalea-indica*. Among ruins and in shady places are *urtica nivea*, *snowy nettle*; *canna indica*, *Indian reed*; *caffica sophora*, *convallaria sinensis*, and *hedysarum gangeticum*.

Besides the multitude of vegetables that are cultivated as articles of human food, and which are probably natives of India, Japan, and the neighbouring islands, the following are found in a truly wild state in China, viz. three species of *dolichos*, *kidney bean*; *d. sinensis*, *calvaules*; *d. foya*, from the beans of which the true Indian soy is made; and *d. cultratus*: *dioscorea alata*, *yam*; *cucurbita sinensis*, *China gourd*; *nicotiana tabacum*, *tobacco*; and *convolvulus battatas*, *sweet potatoe*.

The rocks and mountainous parts, as far as they have been examined, abound with beautiful plants, among which may be particularized *ixora coccinea*, a most elegant shrub, with large scarlet blossoms; *nauclea orientalis*; *convolvulus hirtus*; *hairy bindweed*, with yellow flowers; *monarda sinensis*; *daphne indica*; and *lobelia zeylanica*.

A few others which have been introduced into our gardens remain to be mentioned: *mirabilis odorata*; *crotalaria juncea*; *rosa indica*, *China rose*; *dianthus sinensis*, *China pink*; and *barleria cristata*.

ZOOLOGY.

The zoology of China may be conceived to be extremely various and interesting, as many even of the common animals differ so much in their appearance from those found in other countries. Such is the opulence of materials in every department of zoology, that the reader must be referred to Osbeck, and other sedulous inquirers into natural history, for satisfaction on a subject which might extend to several volumes.

There are few animals which are not known in the other regions of the east, but an attempt to point out the diversities in the species would exceed the limits of the present design. Du Halde asserts that the lion is not found among the Chinese animals; but there are tigers, buffaloes, wild boars, bears, rhinoceroses, camels, deer, &c.* Some of the camels are not higher than horses, with two hunches, while that kind called the dromedary, with one hunch, is found in the northern parts of Africa, and other comparatively temperate regions, being more numerous than the camel. The musk deer is another singular animal of China as well as Tibet: and Du Halde has enumerated several fabulous animals, like the griffins and dragons of classical fable, among which is a large ape, which is said to imitate all the actions of man, and a kind of tiger resembling a horse covered with scales. Among the birds many are remarkable for their beautiful forms and colours, in which they are rivalled by a variety of moths and butterflies.

Mineralogy.

Among the metals lead and tin seem to be the rarest. China produces mines of gold, silver, iron, white copper, common copper, mercury, lazulite or lapis lazuli, jasper, rock crystal, loadstone, granite, porphyry, and various marbles. According to some, rubies are found in China; but others assert that they come from Ava.

In many of the northern provinces fossil coal is found in abundance. According to Du Halde it forms veins in the rocks, which would constitute an uncommon circumstance in the history of that mineral. The common people generally use it, pounded with water, and dried in the form of cakes. Du Halde says that the use of it was dangerous from its suffocating smell, except a vessel of water were placed near the stove. Peking is supplied from high mountains in the vicinity, and the mines seem inexhaustible, though the coal be in general use.

* Du Halde i. 32. ii. 184.

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Mines of silver are abundant, but little worked, from an apprehension of impeding the progress of agriculture; an idle fear, for silver might as well be exported as tea. The gold is chiefly derived from the sands of certain mountains, situated in the western part of the provinces of Sechuen and Yunnan, towards the frontiers of Tibet. That precious metal is seldom used, except by the gilders; the emperor alone having solid vessels of gold.

MINERALOGY.

Tutenag, which is a native mixture of zinc and iron, seems to be a peculiar product of China; and in the province of Houquang there was a mine which yielded many hundred weight in the course of a few days.

The copper of Yunnan, and other provinces, supplies the small coin current through the empire: but there is a singular copper of a white colour, called by the Chinese *petong*, which deserves particular notice. This metal must not be confounded with the tutenag, an error not unfrequent. It is indeed sometimes mingled with tutenag to render it softer, according to Du-Halde; but there is a better method in mingling it with one fifth part of silver.

The Chinese musical stone is a kind of sonorous black marble. Lazulite is found in Yunnan, Sechuen, and Shanfi. Several of the Chinese idols and small vessels are formed of smectite, or indurated steatites, of a delicate white or yellow, with a greasy appearance. The mountains in the north and west of China no doubt furnish a number of other mineral objects, which may have escaped notice, amidst the imperfect knowledge which Europeans have yet attained of this extensive empire.

Mineral waters must be numerous in so wide a country, and the Chinese rarely neglect any natural advantage; but travellers do not seem to have recorded any springs especially memorable. The natural curiosities of China are in the like predicament.*

Mineral Waters.

Natural Curiosities.

* Neuhoff, p. 72—76 enumerates the cataracts, medical springs, and mountains of China. There is a great cataract at Pingjao in Shanfi: and in Honan the river Ki runs a space under ground. Highest mountains, P'ie near Sinitien, Kiming near Kinkoam, which requires nine days to ascend, and others in the province of Suchuen. Near Paoning mount Io produces gems.

CHINESE ISLANDS.

ISLES.

NUMEROUS isles are scattered along the southern and eastern coast of China, the largest being those of Taiwan, also called Formosa, and that of Hainan. Formosa is a recent acquisition of the Chinese in the latter end of the seventeenth century, the natives being by the Chinese accounts little better than savages. It is divided from north to south by mountains, and the chief Chinese possessions are in the western part. Du Halde has given a short history of Formosa, which may be consulted by the curious reader, who on this occasion may perhaps recollect the singular forgeries of the pretended Pfallmanazar. In 1782 Formosa was visited by a terrible hurricane, and the sea rose to such a height as to pass over a great part of the island; but the Chinese emperor caused the damages to be repaired with paternal care.⁷

The southern part of Hainan is mountainous, but the northern more level and productive of rice. In the centre there are mines of gold; and on the shores are found small blue fishes, which the Chinese esteem more than those which we call gold and silver fish; but they only survive a few days when confined to a small quantity of water.

The isles of Leoo-keoo, between Formosa and Japan, constitute a little civilized kingdom tributary to China. These isles are said to be thirty-six in number, but very inconsiderable, except the chief, which is properly and peculiarly called Leoo-keoo, and by the Chinese accounts is 440 *lys* in length, probably that *ly* or Chinese stadium of which 250 constitute a degree, so that the length will be about 125 British miles, nearly twice the extent which is assigned in recent maps. The capital called Kintching, is said by Grosier to be on the S. E. side of the isle, while D'Anville and others place it on the S. W.* When our author affirms that these isles constitute a powerful and extensive empire, a smile must be excited by the exaggeration; but the natives seem to rival the Hindoos in chronology, as their royal dynasties are said to have continued for eighteen thousand years. These isles were *discovered* by

⁷ Grosier's General Description of China, Eng. Tr. i. 225.

* This may be a mistake of Grosier, or his English translator, for the work is far from being infallible. Yet upon the whole it is the best description of China which has appeared, and it is only to be wished that the compiler had quoted his authorities.

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the Chinese in the seventh century, while the Phenicians had discovered Isles. Britain at least four centuries before Christ; but it was not till the fourteenth century that they became tributary to China. The emperor Kang-hi, about A. D. 1720, ordered a temple to be erected to Confucius in the chief island, with a literary college. The language is said to differ from that of China or Japan; but the civilization seems to have proceeded from the latter country, as the Japanese characters are commonly used. The people are mild, affable, gay, and temperate: and the chief products are sulphur, copper, tin, with shells, and mother of pearl.

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PART II

CHINESE TATARY.

CHAPTER I.

HISTORICAL GEOGRAPHY.

Names.—Extent.—Boundaries.—Original Population.—Progressive Geography.—Historical Epochs and Antiquities.

NAMES.

THE vulgar name of Tartary, or more properly Tatar, was originally extended over the vast regions lying between Tibet, China, and the Arctic ocean; and from the Black Sea in the west, to the utmost bounds of north eastern discovery in Asia. As more precise knowledge has arisen the northern part has acquired the name of Siberia, while the southern, in some maps of recent date, is known by the appellations of western and eastern Tartary. Yet even in this part, which might more properly be styled Central Asia, the Tatars properly so denominated are few; the most numerous tribes being Mongols in the west, and Mandchurs in the east. But the various nations subject to the Chinese have not been discriminated with the accuracy which Pallas and other travellers have employed in illustrating the origin of those subject to Russia.

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It is however sufficiently clear, from the accounts of Du Halde and Pallas, that the Oelets, or Eluts, are the same people with the Kalmucs, who possess the regions of Gete and Little Bucharua, with the parts on the N. and E. of Turfan formerly held by the Ugurs or Eygurs, a Finnish nation who had wandered from the north. The Kalkas are also Monguls, as are the Ortoos between the Chinese wall and great river Hoan Ho. It is equally ascertained that the inhabitants of the province of Nertchinsk, or Russian Daouria, are Tunguses, who are a chief branch of the Mandshurs.¹ And the Tagours, or Daourians, subject to China on the eastern side of the great range called Siolki, are also Mandshurs, who extend to the eastern ocean, while in Siberia the Tunguses spread as far west as the river Yenisei.

NAMES.

Upon the whole this extensive region might more properly be called Mongolia, as the greater number of tribes are Monguls; or the western part might be styled Tatar, the middle Mongolia, and the eastern Mandshuria. The two latter are the objects of the present description; as that of Independent Tatar will be found after the account of Persia, with which it has (as now limited) in all ages been connected.

This wide and interesting portion of Asia, which has repeatedly sent forth its swarms to deluge the arts and civilization of Europe, extends from the 72^d of longitude east from Greenwich to the 145th, a space of not less than 73° of longitude, which at the medial latitude of 45° will yield about 3100 geographical miles. The breadth from the northern frontier of Tibet to the Russian confines is about 18 degrees, or 1080 geographical miles. The boundary towards Russia has been already described. From the treaty published by Du Halde² it appears that the river Kerbetchi, being the nearest to the river Chorna (called by the natives Ourouon), and which discharges itself into the great river Sagalien Oula, was the Chinese definition of the boundary between the empires; to which were added the long chain of mountains above the source of the river Kerbetchi, and the river Ergone or Argoon. The eastern boundary is the sea, while the southern extends along the great Chinese wall, and the northern limits of Tibet. The western boundary is supplied by the celebrated mountains of Belur Tag or the

Extent.

¹ Dec. Russ. tome vi. 253, &c.² iv. 242.

EXTENT. Cloudy Mountains, which divide the Chinese empire from Balk, and the Greater Bucharia; while the range on the west of the lake Palkati separates the Kalmucs, subject to China, from the Kirgules of Independent Tatory.

Original Population. The original population of central Asia appears to have been indigenous, so far as the most ancient records extend. Part of the west was held by the Scythæ of antiquity, seemingly a Gothic race, who were subdued or expelled by the Tatars or Huns from the east, pressed on the other side by the Monguls.* Beyond the latter were the Mandshurs, who though inferior to the Monguls in power, yet retained their ancient possessions, and in the seventeenth century conquered China. At present the chief inhabitants are the Mandshurs of the eastern provinces; with the tribes denominated Kalkas, Eluts, and Kalmucs, who are Monguls as already mentioned. The information concerning central Asia is indeed very lame and defective; and though the late Russian travellers afford a few hints, yet the jealousy of the Chinese, and other causes, have contributed to prolong our ignorance concerning this interesting region.

Progressive Geography. Though Ptolemy have laid down with some degree of accuracy the country of the Seres or Little Bucharia, the progressive geography of central Asia may be said to commence with the travels of Marco Polo, in the end of the thirteenth century. Yet prior to this epoch the victories of Zingis and his immediate successors, having excited the attention of Europe, the friar Plano Carpini travelled a considerable way into Tatory, and found the emperor not far from the frontiers of China. This envoy was followed by Rubruquis, whose real name seems to have been Ruysbroeck, and who appears to have visited the countries on the banks of the Onon. But the travels of Polo being more extensive, and more minutely described, he is justly regarded as the father of Tataric geography, and his description of the countries to the north of Tibet,

* De Guignes in his elaborate history of the Huns has sometimes confounded the Tatars with the Monguls, but in vol. 1. part 1. p. 213. he says expressly, that the Huns are the western Tatars. The Monguls afterwards seizing a part of their country, he has often confounded the two nations, not being aware of the radical difference in their language.

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including Tangut,* and other names which have vanished from modern geography, is not a little interesting. Yet a dissertation, aided by the most recent researches, would be required to reduce his geography to any precision.

PROGRESSIVE GEOGRAPHY.

The more recent accounts, among which may be mentioned the travels of Gerbillon, published by Du Halde, and those of Bell, with some hints of Pallas, may be said to embrace but small portions of this vast territory.† The imperfect state of knowledge concerning this country may be imagined, when even D'Anville has been obliged to have recourse to Marco Polo!

The chief historical epochs of this part of Asia may perhaps be more certainly traced in the Chinese annals, than in any other documents. The first appearance of the Huns or Tatars may be observed in the pages of Roman history. The annals of the Monguls, the most important nation, faintly illuminate the pages of Abulgasi, whence it would appear that prior to Zingis there was only one celebrated chieftain named Oguz, who seems to have flourished about the 130th year of the Christian era. The reigns of Zingis and Timur are sufficiently known in general history; but the divisions of their conquests, and the dissensions of their successors, have now almost annihilated the power of the Monguls, who being partly subject to China, and partly to Russia, it is scarcely conceivable that they can again disturb the peace of their neighbours.

Historical Epochs.

Few antiquities remain to illustrate the power of the Monguls. Karacorum, or Caracorum, also called Holin by the Chinese, the capital city of the Mongolian power, is now so far obliterated that geographers dispute concerning its situation, D'Anville placing it, with a confession of uncertainty, on the river Onghin, while others assign the banks of the river Orchon, about 150 B. miles to the N. W. It is probable that when this region shall be more fully explored by travellers, several tombs, temples, and other remains of antiquity, may be discovered.

Antiquities.

* This appears to have been the country immediately to the N. W. of the Chinese province of Shenfi. See Forster's Hist. Voy. and Disc. in the North, p. 107.

† The notes to the *Histoire Généalogique des Tatars*, Leyde, 1726, 8vo. must not be forgotten amidst the few materials.

CHAPTER II.

POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY.

Religion.—Government.—Laws.—Population.—Army.—Political Importance and Relations.

RELIGION. **T**HE religion most universally diffused in this part of Asia is what has been called Shamanism, or the belief in a supreme author of nature, who governs the universe by the agency of numerous inferior spirits of great power. The Kalkas were accustomed to acknowledge a living Lama, or great spirit embodied; a form of superstition which will be better illustrated in the account of Tibet.*

Government. The government was formerly monarchical, with a strong mixture of aristocracy, and even of democracy. At present it is conducted by princes who pay homage to the Chinese empire, and receive Chinese titles of honour; but many of the ancient forms are retained. Though writing be not unknown among the Monguls, yet the laws appear to be chiefly traditional.

Population. Of the population of these regions it is difficult to form any precise ideas. As the numerous tribes subject to Russia are found, under splendid appellations, to present but a slender number of individuals, not exceeding two or three millions, it may perhaps be reasonable to infer that amidst the wide deserts and barren mountains of central Asia, there do not inhabit above six millions.

A proper enumeration would indeed depend upon authentic enquiries into the state of the various tribes. The country of the Mandshurs is by the Chinese divided into three great governments. 1. That of

* A curious account of the religion of the Monguls may be found in the sixth volume of the *Decouvertes Russes*. The *gellungs* or priests are the *gylongs* of Tibet, and the other features seem to correspond.

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Chinyang comprizing Leaodong, surrounded in part by a strong barrier of wood. The chief town is Chinyang, also called Mugden by the Mandshurs, still a considerable place, with a mausoleum of Kunchi, regarded as the conqueror of China, and the founder of the reigning family.² 2. The government of Kiren-Oula, which extends far to the N. E., where there are many forests and deserts on both sides of the great river Sagalien Kirem the capital stands on the river Songari, which falls into the Sagalien or Amur, and was the residence of the Mandshur general, who acted as viceroy.³ 3. The government of Tschichar, so called from a town recently founded on the Nonni Oula, where a Chinese garrison is stationed. The Russians call this province Daouria, from the tribe Tagouri, who possess a great part of this territory. The western boundary is the river Argoon, the frontier between Russia and China, also marked in the treaty by another river, the Kerbetchi, which seems to have vanished from recent maps. These provinces having been the seat of the Mandshur monarchy before the conquest of China, have since that event remained subject to their ancient sovereigns.

POPULATION.

In this division may also be mentioned Corea, which has for many centuries acknowledged the authority of China, and which boasts a considerable population. The language, according to Du Halde, differs from the Chinese, and from what he calls the Tataric, probably the Mandshur. That writer may be consulted for a more particular account of this extensive province; the geography of which still remains rather doubtful.

To the west are various tribes of Monguls; as the Kalkas; those around Koko Nor, or the Blue Lake, who are also called Olets, Eluts, or Kalmucs, the terms only implying particular Mongul branches. The Eluts have been greatly reduced by two destructive wars against the Chinese in 1720 and 1757; and their contaisch, or great chan, has disappeared. Their country may be considered under three divisions. 1. That part called Gete even to the time of Timur, which some regard as the country of the ancient Massagetæ, towards the lakes of Palkati, Balkash or Tengis, and Zaizan. The contaisch used chiefly to

² La Croix, ii. 221.

³ Du Halde, iv. 7.

POPULATION.

reside at Harcas or Erga on the river Ili, which flows from the S. E. into the lake of Balkash. 2. Little Bucharia, so called to distinguish it from the Greater Bucharia, which is subject to the Uzbeks, a Tataric nation: but the people of Little Bucharia are an industrious race of a distinct origin, who are little mingled with their Kalmuc or Mongul lords. 3. The countries of Turfan to the north of the lake called Lok Nor, and that of Chamil or Hami to the east, regions little known, and surrounded with wide deserts.* Upon the whole it may perhaps be found that the Mandshurs are the most populous race; and that the Monguls, though diffused through a vast territory, can hardly boast the name of a nation. The Kirguses, or Tatars proper of the west, are confined to a small and unfertile district; and may more properly be considered as belonging to Independent Tatory.

Army.

It is probable that this part of the Chinese empire might muster a large but ineffectual army; and amidst modern tactics and weapons little needs be apprehended from a new deluge of Mongul barbarians. If the various tribes of Mandshurs, Monguls, and Tatars were to coalesce under some chief of great abilities, the political importance and relations of central Asia might resume their former fame; but their interests are now so various and discordant, that while the empires of Russia and China exist, they can only be regarded as connected with the policy of these powerful states.

* See remarks on the geography of these countries in the account of Great Bucharia. Turfan is commonly included in Little Bucharia; and Gete is the Soongaria of the Russians. Soongaria means the left hand, as those tribes adoring towards the east call Tibet *Barenala*, or the region on the right.

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CHAPTER III.

CIVIL GEOGRAPHY.

Manners and Customs. — Language. — Literature. — Cities and Towns. — Manufactures and Commerce.

THE manners and customs of the Monguls have been already briefly described in the account of Asiatic Russia: Du Halde observes that these wandering nations “appear always contented; and free from care; of a happy temper, and a gay humour, always disposed to laughter, never thoughtful, never melancholy.” And he adds “what reason can they have to be so? they have neither neighbours to please, nor enemies to fear, nor great people to court; and are free from difficult business, or constrained occupation, delighting themselves only in the chase, in fishing, and various exercises, in which they are very skilful.”

MANNERS
AND
CUSTOMS.

The Mandshurs, who here deserve particular notice, are little distinguishable in their manners from the Monguls. By the account of the jesuits they have no temples, nor idols, but worship a supreme being, whom they style emperor of heaven. But probably their real creed is Shamanism, or a kind of rational polytheism, not unknown to the Jews, who admitted, as appears from Daniel, great angels or spirits, as protectors of empires. Of the three grand nations perhaps the Mandshurs may be regarded as approaching the nearest to civilization, especially since their conquest of China: and their advancement must have been greater, since the late emperor ordered the best Chinese books to be translated into the Mandshur language. Yet the Chinese retain great antipathy against their conquerors, whom they despise as a filthy race of savages. The Mandshurs are of a more robust form, with countenances

MANNERS
AND
CUSTOMS.

less expressive; and the feet of their women are not disfigured like those of the Chinese. The head dress of this sex consists of natural and artificial flowers. The general raiment is the same as the Chinese.²

Language.

The three languages of the Mandshurs, Monguls, and Tatars, radically differ from each other. M. Langles published at Paris, about ten years ago, a prospectus of an intended dictionary of the Mandshur language, in which he pronounces it the most learned and perfect of the Tataric idioms, not excepting that of Tibet, though not written till the beginning of the seventeenth century, when the monarch charged some literati to design letters after those of the Monguls, nearly resembling those of the Ugurs, which to the eye of M. Langles seemed to spring from the Stranghelo, or ancient Syriac. Yet from the account of this author it appears that the Mandshur grammar presents 1500 groupes of syllables, which he has analysed into 29 letters; of which the greater part have three forms, as they happen to appear in the beginning, middle, or end of a word.

Literature.

Of the native literature of the Mandshurs little is known, except that a code of laws was drawn up by the order of one of the monarchs, prior, it is believed, to the conquest of China. The imported literature by the translation of Chinese works must be considerable.

Cities and
Towns.

This extensive portion of Asia contains several cities and towns, generally constructed of wood, and of little antiquity or duration. These shall be briefly mentioned, passing from the west towards the east.

In Little Bucharía appear the cities of Cashgar, Yarkand, Kotun, and Karia. Cashgar was formerly a remarkable town, giving name to a considerable kingdom, the limits of which nearly corresponded with Little Bucharía.³ This town, though fallen from its ancient splendour, still retains some commerce. Yarkand stands on a river of the same name, which, after a long easterly course, falls into the lake of Lop.*

Turfan,

² Staunton, ii. 358.

³ Histoire des Tatars, 388.

* According to Petis de la Croix, in his learned notes on Sherefeddin, Yarkand is only another name for Cashgar; but this opinion seems confuted by the letter of the Chinese general. See Independent Tatarý. Kotun, whence perhaps cotton derives its name, is also called Chateen, and was a flourishing city in the last century. Bentink, 193. De Guignes in his history of the Huns vol. 1. part 2. has given a description of Tatarý. He says p. xv. that from the mountain Oneautá

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Turfan, the capital of a detached principality, is a considerable town, which used to be frequented by the merchants passing from Persia to China. Hami, Chami, or according to others Chamil, gives name to a small district in the immense desert of Cobi, and according to Du Halde is a small but populous place.* Some towns occur further to the south, but seemingly are only usual stations for tents, the Monguls preferring the nomadic life.

The ancient city of Karakum has vanished, as already mentioned; but to the east of the great desert, and near the frontiers of China, several Mongul towns appear in the maps. Coucou seems to be the Couchan of Du Halde, a small town seated on a hill near a river which falls into the Hoan-ho. The others are yet more inconsiderable.

The country of the Mandshurs contains many villages and cities, as Hotun Sagalian Oula, so called from its position on that river, in the country of the Tahouria, modernized Daouria; likewise Tsitchikar, already mentioned, with Merguen, Petouna, Kirin Oula, and Ningouta. On the north and east of the great river Amur scarcely the vestige of a village appears. Of those here enumerated Petouna or Pedne was, in the time of Du Halde, chiefly inhabited by Mandshur soldiers and exiles, under the command of a lieutenant general. Ningouta was also the residence of a Mandshur general, and the seat of a considerable trade, particularly in the celebrated plant called ginseng, which abounds in the neighbourhood. Sagalian Oula † Hotan signifies the city of the black river, and is the chief Mandshur settlement on that noble stream.*

The chief city of Corea is Kinkatao, of which we may be said only to know the name.

descends the river Peyoho; on the western bank of which stands the town of Khoten or Kotun, and also the rivers Louyoho and Ouyoho, both of which run on the west of the town. These rivers, he says, derive their names from the precious stones which they roll down from the mountain, and which are found in the autumn when the waters diminish.

* Groffer, in his description of China, i. 336, gives an interesting account of Hami, which is about half a league in circumference, with two beautiful gates. It stands in a fertile plain, watered by a river, sheltered by hills on the N. The gardens and fields are delightful: and fine agates are found, but the diamonds seem fabulous.

† In the Mandshur language Oula signifies a river, as in the Chinese Kiang. Du Halde, iv. 53c. *Pira* implies the same. In the Mongul *Muren* is a river; *Alin* a mountain, also *Tababan*; *Hata* is a rock. In the Tatar or Turkish *Tag* is a mountain, *Daria* a river.

* Du Halde, iv. 19.

TRADE.

The principal trade of the Mandshur country consists in ginseng, and pearls, found in many rivers which fall into the Amur. Excellent horses may also be classed among the exports. . Cashgar was formerly celebrated for musk and gold.* The other towns are rather stations for merchants than seats of commerce. But the emporia of the Russian trade with China must not be forgotten, being on the Russian side Zuruchaitu on the river Argoon, and Kiachta; opposite to which, on the Chinese frontier, are correspondent stations erected of wood.

* Corea also produces gold, silver, iron, beautiful yellow varnish, and white paper, ginseng; with small horses about three feet high, ermine, beaver, and fossil salt. Du Halde, iv. 558.

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CHAPTER IV.

NATURAL GEOGRAPHY.

Climate and Seasons.—Face of the Country.—Soil and Agriculture.—Rivers.—Lakes.—Mountains.—Fishes.—Botany.—Zoology.—Mineralogy.—Mineral Waters.—Natural Curiosities.

THOUGH the parallel of central Asia correspond with that of CLIMATE. France, and part of Spain, yet the height, and snows of the mountainous ridges occasion a degree, and continuance of cold, little to be expected from other circumstances. In climate and productions it is however far superior to Siberia.

The appearance of this extensive region is diversified with all the Face of the Country. grand features of nature, extensive chains of mountains, large rivers, and lakes. But the most singular feature is that vast elevated plain, supported like a table, by the mountains of Tibet in the south, and Altaian chain in the north, from the mountains of Belur Tag in the west, to those that bound the Kalkas in the east. This prodigious plain, the Plain of Asia. most elevated continuous region on the globe, is intersected by some chains of mountains, and by the vast deserts of Cobi and Shamo, by Shamo Desert. others considered as the same, the former being the Mongul, the latter the Chinese name. Destitute of plants and water it is dangerous for horses, but is safely passed with camels. Little has been added to our knowledge of central Asia since D'Anville drew up his maps, from the materials furnished by the Jesuits in China, in which it would seem that this desert extends from about the 80th° of E. longitude from Greenwich, to about the 110th°, being 30° of longitude, which in the latitude of 40°, may be 1380 geographical miles: but in this wide space are Oases, or fertile spots, and even regions of considerable

FACE OF THE COUNTRY. extent. On the other hand the main desert sends forth several barren branches in various directions.

Agriculture. Among the southern Mandshurs, and the people of Little Bucharia, agriculture is not wholly neglected, nor is wheat an unknown harvest. The soil of so extensive a portion of the earth may be supposed to be infinitely various; but the predominating substance is black sand.

Rivers. The most important river is that called by the Russians the Amur, by the Mandshurs Sagalian Oula. The Amur is deservedly classed among the largest rivers; rising near the Yablonoi mountains, where it is first known by the names of Kerlon and Argoon, and pursuing an easterly course of about 1850 British miles. The Amur is the grand receptacle of the Mandshur streams, among which the most considerable is the Songari, which itself receives the large river Nonni. The Russian waters of Selinga, and Irtysh also pervade a part of central Asia. The river of Yarkand, perhaps the Oecharde of Ptolemy, has a considerable course before it enters the lake of Lop. The Ili, which falls into the lake of Balkash, is noted in Tataric history.

Lakes. Some of the lakes are of great extent, as those of Balkash, or Tengis, and Zaizan, each about 150 miles in length. Next is the Koko Nor, by some called Hoho Nor, or the blue lake, which gives name to a tribe of the Monguls. *Nor* is the Mongol term for a lake, which by the Mandshurs is styled *Omo*.

Mountains. The vast ranges of mountains which intersect central Asia have never been scientifically described, and few of them have even received extensive and appropriated appellations. It is highly probable that some of these ranges far exceed the Alps in height, as Pallas thinks that Elburz, the summit of the Caucasian chain, is higher than Mont Blanc: and probably the mountains of Asia are on as grand a scale as the rivers, and other features of nature. On the west the great chain called Imaus by the ancients, the Belur Tag, or Dark Mountains of the natives, runs from N. to S.

In the eastern country of the Mandshurs the ridges of mountains are laid down in the same direction.

The chief difficulties attend those in the centre. Those on the Russian frontier have been well described; but of the northern mountains

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tains of Tibet, and the sources of the Ganges, our knowledge remains MCOUNTAINS imperfect. Still fainter light falls on the ridges which run in an easterly and westerly direction to the north of the great desert. It has already been observed, in describing the mountains of Asiatic Russia, that the great mountain of Bogdo gives source to the upper Irtysh, and must therefore be that delineated in Arrowsmith's map of Asia, at longitude 94° , and latitude 47° . Thence a chain runs N. W. called the Golden Mountain, being the main Altaian ridge, while to the S. E. passes a range called Changai. A ridge passing to the west is by the Tatars called Ala-Tau, and sometimes Allakoola, or the Chequered Mountain. From the Arakoola, or Allakoola, the river Ili runs to the north.¹

Further illustrations of this curious and obscure subject may be derived from the map published by Islenieff, a Russian officer, of a great part of western Tataria.* It is, however, to be regretted that the ranges of mountains, which ought to have been delineated with as much precision as the rivers, are rather faintly indicated. Passing in silence the smaller mountains named in this map, which are very numerous, some remarks may be offered on the larger chains. That of Bogdo runs from S. W. to N. E., about a degree and a half from the lake Lop, or Lok Nor. The chief Altaian chain passes in a more northerly direction, terminating towards the east at the lake of Upsa, whence it proceeds N. W. towards the lake of Altyn; then bending S. W. forms the boundary between the Russian and Chinese empires. But as the greater Altai has little connexion with that extensive frontier, it may be doubted whether Pallas, and Pennant have judiciously assigned the name of Altaian chain to the prodigious ridge which divides the Russian empire from the Chinese.† Islenieff marks the lesser Altai

¹ Tooke's Russia, i. 149.

* Major Rennell is inclined to lend little credit to the Russian maps, because there is, as he conceives, an error of 5° of longitude, Samarcand, for instance, being placed about long. 69° from London, instead of 64° . But in this mode of arguing Ptolemy would not deserve to be once quoted; and the Russian maps seem, on the contrary, preferable to all others, till actual observations can be employed.

† When the Altai joins this grand boundary it is called the Chatai, or Lesser Altai. Hence Cathaian chain might be preferable.

MOUNTAINS. as being also denominated Chatai, or Chaltai : and continues the Russian frontier to the west, by the chain of Uluk Tag, whence several rivers flow into the Irtysh. He also lays down a range, called Algidym Zano, in the country of the Kirguses of the middle hord.

The chain of Changai branches out at the further termination of the great Altai, passing S. E., as already mentioned. The mountains of Malgan proceed in an opposite direction on the south of the lake of Upfa, and the river Tez. Between the lake Zaizan and Cashgar are many rocky hills, the chief ranges seem to be those of Chamar Daban and Ajagu, to the south and west of that lake ; and the snowy range of Musart running E. and W. to the north of Cashgar, and continued by a still greater chain that of Alak also called Terek Daban ; and towards the south Belur Tag, or the Cloudy Mountains. This last seems to represent the Imaus of the ancients ; while the range of Mus Tag, according to Islenieff, runs E. and W. in the 38° of latitude, giving source to several rivers which flow north into that of Irken, or Yarkand. Ptolemy indeed delineates the highest part of the Imaus in the same direction, and derives from it the sources of the Indus, and Ganges ; which last river modern discovery deduces from a range 4° more to the south. Islenieff himself is supposed to be in a similar error, when he derives the sources of the Syr and Amu, or Sihon and Jihon, from Belur Tag, or the Cloudy Mountains, omitting a parallel range about two degrees more to the west ; yet the space between these two supposed ranges seems idly filled up by what is called the plain of Pamer ; and perhaps the Russian geography is preferable. According to Islenieff, whose plain map may be preferred to any scientific theories, the range of Argjun, or Argun, and Karatau runs N. W. and S. E. between the Sihon and the Talas ; while that of Aktau runs S. W. on the south of the the Syr, or Sihon.*

The great rivers of Onon and Argoon, with others that flow in an opposite direction into the Selinga, rise from the high ridge of Sochondo,

* The Allakoola of Mr. Tooke is laid down by Islenieff as the eastern part of the Musart range, on the north of Little Bucharria. But the Musart of Pallas must pass in a different direction.

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chondo, the summits of which consist of large rocks heaped on each other in successive terraces. There are two vast cavities, or abysses, with perpendicular sides, and small lakes at the bottom, which receive the melting snows, and give source to torrents which precipitate themselves with a terrible noise amidst the disjointed rocks. This ridge is clothed with perpetual snow; and, after dividing the rivers of Russian Daouria from those that flow into the Baikal, passes S. W. and joins an icy chain which runs into Mongolia.*

There are some forests near the rivers: but in general the extreme elevation and sandy soil of central Asia render trees as rare as in the deserts of Africa.

Of the botany of the whole central part of Asia, including the vast territories of Chinese Tartary, and Tibet, we are as yet in a manner

Some little additional information may be collected from the fourth volume of Du Halde. He observes, p. 23, that the river of Kalka, whence the name of the Kalkas, rises in a famous mountain called Sueiki, or Siolki. This name may therefore be applied to the ridge which divides the Kalkas from Chinese Daouria. The river Songari, p. 92, rises in the mountain Champé, (Chan signifies a mountain,) famous as the original border of the Mandshurs, and said to be always covered with snow, whence its name which signifies the white mountain. This appellation may be applied to the ridge which runs north from Corea, on the east of the river Songari. The river Onon, (a name, p. 514, of the Sagalian till joined by the Argoon) rises from the mountains of Kentey, which also give source to the Tula and the Kerlon: p. 522, 523. The Kentey is therefore another name for the mountains of Kinhan, or perhaps more strictly those of Soehondo: and he also mentions those of Altay, and those of Trangha, and Cocoy. His Hangai, to the S. E. of Altay, is the Changai of Pallas, and probably the Trangha is the same name disfigured by an error of the press. The Cocoy he says is a low chain between the Altay and the Hangai, but this geography is unsatisfactory. He adds that the river Hopto runs along the chain of Cocoy, and falls into the lake of Ekaral, to the west of Hangai, while the lake of Kirkil is to the east of Hangai, and receives two rivers which flow from that mountain. See D'Anville's map of Asia: but that geographer's radical misconception of the width, and extent of mountainous chains disfigures all his maps. That of Islenieff greatly differs: but the Cocoy seems the Bogdo. In the jesuitic maps the lake Upfa stands due N. from Ekaral, while it is *six degrees* to the east: and the Upper Irutsh runs N. instead of W.

Mr. Bell, i. 427, 8vo, observed a chain of mountains in the N. W. of China, about fifteen miles in breadth, in length above one thousand miles, running N. and S., and encompassing the greater part of China to the N. and W. Where he crossed the sandy desert, p. 405, it was twenty miles broad; but in some places is thirty leagues. This sandy desert should be laid down in the maps like those of Africa.

* Dec. Rufes, vi. 248—254, where the last is termed the Gungurtian and Manstrician mountains. The original German must be obscure, for the French translation, and Mr. Tooke's extracts, sometimes present an unintelligible phraseology. The Gungur must be the Hongur of D'Anville.

BOTANY. totally ignorant. No European naturalist has ever even passed through, much less explored the vegetable products of these extensive regions. From their elevated situation, and their rigorous winters, it is obvious that no tropical plants, nor even those of the more temperate Asiatic countries are to be expected in their flora; and by the vague accounts of a few travellers combined with the little that we know of the sea coast of Tatory, it would appear that at least the commonest plants are for the most part the same as those of the north of Germany, mingled with a few Siberian species. Hence it seems that the territorial limits of the Indian, and Siberian floras are separated from each other by a broad band of European vegetables, which, entering Asia by the Uralian mountains, proceeds in a south east direction as far as the Tatarian borders, whence it stretches due east quite across the continent, to the river Amur, and the coast of Mandshur Tatory. The southern frontier of Tibet as it partakes of the climate of India, so it resembles this last in some of its vegetable productions, and for the same reason there are many common features in the floras of Siberia and the north of Tatory. It is probable also that peculiar species, or even genera may hereafter be found in such an extensive tract. The only indigenous plants that we are as yet certainly acquainted with, except what belong to Siberia, or India, are that well-known, and singular fern the *Poly-podium barometz*, called also the *Scythian lamb*: *panax quinquefolium*, *ginseng*, the favourite drug of China; and *rheum palmatum*, which at least is one of the plants that furnishes the true *rhubarb*.

Zoology. The zoology of this wide portion of the globe would supply an infinite theme, in which the camel of the desert might appear with the rock goat of the Alps, and the tiger with the ermine. The wild horse, and the wild ass, and a peculiar species of cattle which grunt like swine, are among the most remarkable singularities. The wild horse is generally of a mouse colour, and small, with long sharp ears.

Mineralogy. The mineralogy of central Asia has been little explored. Gold is found both in the eastern and western regions, and the former are also said to produce tin. As Russian Daouria exhibits so many valuable substances, it is reasonable to conclude that they equally abound in the
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Chinese territory, if similar skill and industry were exerted in their detection. The mineral waters, and uncommon appearances of nature, have been little investigated. MINERALOGY.

ISLAND OF SAGALIAN, OR TCHOKA.

TILL this large island was explored by the unfortunate navigator La Perouse, it was supposed to be only a small isle at the mouth of the Amur, the southern extremity being placed by D'Anville about 4° , or 240 geographical miles, to the north of Jesso. By the account and maps of La Perouse, which have since been followed, it is only divided from Jesso by a narrow strait of about 20 miles in breadth, since called the strait of Perouse. The discovery and account of this large island, which extends from the 46^{th} of latitude to the 54^{th} , or not less than 480 geographical miles in length, by about 80 of medial breadth, is the most important portion of that navigator's voyage. The natives seem to approach to the Tataric form; and the upper lip is commonly tattooed blue. Dress, a loose robe of skins, or quilted nankeen, with a girdle. Their huts, or cabins, of timber, thatched with grass, with a fire place in the centre. In the south are found Japanese articles. A little trade seems also known with the Mandshurs, and the Russians. The native name of this large island is Tchoka, that used by the Japanese Oku Jesso, perhaps implying further Jesso; while the Russians, who only know the northern part, call it the isle of Sagalian, because it is opposite to the large river of that name. The centre is mountainous, and well wooded with pine, willow, oak, and birch; but the shores are level, and singularly adapted to agriculture. The people are highly praised by La Perouse as a mild and intelligent race. The portraits which he gives of three old men, with long beards, rather resemble

ISL. 26.

the European than the Tataric lineaments: and La Perouse expressly informs us that they are quite unlike the Mandshurs, or Chinese. He observes as a singularity that their words for *ship*, *two*, and *three* are nearly the same with the English; and for this he refers to the vocabulary, in which however *ship* is *kabani*: *two* is indeed *tau*, but *three* is *tcbe*. The *Island of Jessô*, and some others to the north of Japan; will be described in the account of that interesting country.

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PART III.

T I B E T.

Names.—Extent.—Boundaries and Provinces.—Progressive geography.—Religion.—Government.—Population.—Manners.—Language and Literature.—Cities and Towns.—Manufactures and Commerce.—Climate and Soil.—Rivers.—Mountains.—Zoology.—Mineralogy.—Natural Curiosities.

THE account of this interesting country must unfortunately be limited in the topics, as the materials are far from being ample.

The recent narrative of Capt. Turner's journey shall be selected as the most authentic; but it only embraces a small part, and for the general geography recourse must be had to more antiquated authorities.* Tibet, with its numerous independencies, may in fact still be arranged among the *undiscovered* countries in the centre of Asia.

The name of *Tibet*, which is probably Hindoo, or Persian, is in the NAMES. country itself, and in Bengal pronounced *Tibbet*, or *Tibt*. But the native appellation is *Puë*, or *Puë Koachim*, said to be derived from *Puë*, signifying northern, and *Koachim*, snow; that is the snowy region of the north.¹

According to the most recent maps Tibet extends from about the Extent. 75th to the 101st degree of longitude, which in the latitude of 30° may

* For an account of Nipal see Hindostan: and the authors there mentioned may be consulted for a further account of Tibet.

¹ Turner, p. 5. and 305.

EXTENT.

be about 1350 geographical miles. The breadth may be regarded as extending from the 27th to the 35th degree of latitude, or about 480 geographical miles.* The original population has not been accurately examined, but as the people of Bootan, which is regarded as a southern province of Tibet, are said to differ essentially and radically from the Hindoos, and somewhat to resemble the Chinese; it may perhaps be concluded that they belong to that grand race of men, which approaches the Tataric, though they cannot be regarded as Mandshurs, Monguls, or Tatars proper.

Boundaries
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ces.

As Mr. Forster in his travels observes that the material for the shawls of Cashmir is "brought from districts of Tibet, lying at the distance of a month's journey to the north east:" and as Tieffenthaler, in his account of Cashmir, specially mentions that Great Tibet is to the north east of that country, and Little Tibet to the N. W.,³ there is every reason to infer that our maps are wholly defective in fixing the northern boundary of this country, which ought to be extended to the sources of the rivers of Little Bucharina, between the 37th, and 38th degree of N. latitude. Tieffenthaler⁴ also mentions that the nearest route to Cashgar would be through Great Tibet, but, this not being permitted, the passage is through little Tibet, the capital of which, Ascardu, is eight days journey from the N. limit of Cashmir. Further on is Schakar: and after travelling thence for fifteen days, through thick forests, appears the frontier of Little Tibet. In other fifteen days the caravan reaches Cashgar, formerly the residence of the prince; but it is now at Yarkand, ten days further to the north.†

These clear testimonies of two intelligent travellers seem to evince that the northern boundary of Tibet may be safely extended two degrees further than it appears in our best maps, in which there is no portion of

* Probably at least to 37°, which would add 120 G. miles: for Mus Tag is, according to the Russians, the northern boundary of Tibet: and they place that range in 38°.

¹ Vol. ii. p. 18.

² Bernoulli, Tome i. p. 77.

³ p. 84.

† This last intelligence is new, but as all our maps place Yarkand to the south, the sole testimony of Tieffenthaler cannot be followed. He adds that from Cashgar to Cathay, or the N. W. of China, the caravans occupy two months, a space which agrees with the positions. As Little Tibet is to the N. of Cashmir, and is bounded on the E. by Great Tibet, (Bernier) it is clear that the latter must extend further N. than our maps bear.

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Great Tibet to the N. E. of Cashmir. It would seem that the Chinese Lamas, in their great haste to escape from the Eluts, who attacked Lassa,⁵ were contented with bare reports, not only concerning the sources of the Ganges, but the whole western provinces of Tibet. From their rude drawings D'Anville placed the northern limit of this country, (as well as of Cashmir) in lat. 34° , and when Major Rennell judiciously, but cautiously, moved it one degree further to the north, he might safely have extended it at least three degrees. The source of the Ganges stood in the Chinese map lat. $29^{\circ} 30'$: D'Anville found it indispensable to raise it to 32° , and Rennell to $33^{\circ} 15'$.⁶ Hence it appears that one radical defect, in that very imperfect and erroneous map, was the great diminution of the latitude. To fill up this deficiency geographers have here introduced the great Sandy Defart of Cobi; which, as appears from Marco Polo, and other travellers, is in the centre of Asia, corresponding in latitude with that of Shamo, on the N. of China, beginning near Yarkand, but spreading into a far wider expanse at the city of Lop, further to the E.⁷

The extracts from Giorgi, and others, concerning Tibet, in Bernoulli's third volume, bear that it is divided into three parts, Upper, Middle and Lower. Upper Tibet chiefly comprises the province of Nagari, full of horrible rocks, and mountains covered with eternal snow. Middle Tibet contains the provinces of Shang, Ou, and Kiang: while the provinces of Lower Tibet are Takbo, Congbo, and Kahang.

In this division the countries of Lata, or Ladak, (Latac)* and Brengiong, or Bramascion, (perhaps Sirinagur, which abounds with Bramins,) mentioned in another here given, being omitted, it is probable that they constitute, with Nagari, what is called Upper Tibet.

⁵ Du Halde, iv. 577.

⁶ Rennell, 310.

⁷ Paul. Venet. Cap. 43, 44. edit. Muller, 1671, 4to.

* By Desideri's account Lett. Edif. xv. and Atley, iv. 453, Latac forms a kind of detached sovereignty. The town is seven miles N. of the river Lachu, which falls into the Ganges (rather the Indus, for *Ganga* only means the river). Chaparong stands 80 miles S. E., probably on another river which joins the Indus. If Latac, or Chaparong stood near the Ganges they would be well known to the Hindoo pilgrims, which is not the case.

Many

BOUNDARIES AND PROVINCES.

Many of these provinces are again subdivided: for instance Nagari, which is considered as a kingdom of three departments, Sangkar, Pourang, and Tamo (Dam, or Daum ?). Shang is on the W. bounded by Nipal. The province of Ou contains Lassa, the capital of Tibet. Kiang is to the north (N. E.) of Ou; and is inhabited by mingled Tibetans and Monguls in tents. Kahang is in the S. E. bordering on the Birmans, and is divided into twelve departments.*

To these must be added the wide region of Amdoa, if it be not the same with Kahang, but it seems more probably to embrace the confines towards China, as the natives are remarkably ingenious, and speak the Chinese language. The country of Hor is situated betwixt Tatory and the provinces of Nagari and Kiang, and seems to be the Hohonor of our maps. In tracing these numerous provinces the map of the Lamas will be found entirely useless. Our Bootan is by the natives styled Decpo, or Takbo: all the countries to the west of which, as Moringa, or Morung, Mocampour, Nipal, Gorca, and Kamaoon, (for Almora is only a city,) are not considered as parts of Tibet. The confusion of Chinese, Mongul, and Tibetan appellations has been a great impediment in the geography of this extensive country; the N. E. part of which was, with the Chinese province of Shenfi, before the great wall was extended in this quarter, the celebrated Tangut of oriental history and geography.† On the western side high mountains, covered with perpetual snow, and with all the terrible avalanches, and other features of the Swiss Alps, have in all ages prevented the Persians, and the conquerors of Bucharia from invading this country; while the deserts in the N. E. have proved ineffectual barriers against the Monguls and Eluts. These almost inaccessible western mountains have also prevented travellers from penetrating in that quarter, which is little better known at present than in the time of Ptolemy.

* Penna informs us that the secular princes had maps of the country, and it is to be regretted that our envoy did not request one from the Lama.

† In the German work called *New Memoirs of the North*, of which Pallas published four volumes 8vo. 1783, there is vol. i. an account of Tibet from the reports of the Lamas to Muller and Pallas. In vol. iv. Hackmann has abstracted all the intelligence concerning this country.

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* Cap. xxx A. D. 1300, † Du Hald

The progressive geography of Tibet chiefly dates from a recent period; for though Ptolemy's knowledge extended to the golden Chersonnese, or Pegu, and the western shores of the Siamese monarchy, yet as his Seres, or the furthest inland people known to him in this quarter were situated in Little Bucharra, there is no room to believe that the snowy mountains of Tibet had been penetrated by the ancients. The Portuguese commerce, with the East Indies, may be said to have first disclosed this ample region, of which however our knowledge, even at this day, is lamentably defective. Yet Tibet seems to have been the southern part of the Tangut of Marco Polo,⁸ and other travellers. Polo indeed specially describes the province of *Tebet*, (which he says contained eight kingdoms, with many cities and villages,) as a mountainous country, producing some gold and spices, a large breed of dogs, and excellent falcons.

About 1715 the emperor of China being desirous to obtain a map of Tibet, two Lamas were sent who had studied geometry in a mathematical academy.⁹ These lamas drew a map from Sining, in the province of Shenfi, to the sources of the Ganges; which was afterwards examined by the Jesuits, and improved by them, so far as their materials would admit. This map, published in the Atlas of Du Halde's work, unfortunately continues almost the sole authority, and is followed, with a few variations, by the most recent geographers. It seems but of doubtful credit, especially in the western parts, where the source of the Ganges is confessedly only from the report of some Tibetan Lamas;¹⁰ whence it is no wonder that recent accounts seem to evince it to be erroneous, nor is it certain whether the adjacent parts have Lamas or Bramins. In the south the Chinese Lamas certainly never passed the ridge of Himmala; whence Nipal, Bootan, and other countries are omitted; and even the names in general appear rather to be arbitrary Chinese terms than real appellatives of places, so that in fact we may be said to possess no map of Tibet in this the nineteenth century. Other most suspicious circumstances in the pretended Chinese Atlas of Tibet are, that there are no distinct names of small kingdoms,

⁸ Cap. xxxvi. edit. 1537. Tibet is also mentioned in the travels of Odoicus Utiensis about A. D. 1300, published at Venice 1761, 4to, p. 77.

⁹ Du Halde, iv. 571. ¹⁰ Ib. 577.

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states, or provinces, though from recent accounts these seem particularly to abound in the country; and that the great river Gogra is totally unknown and omitted.

The geography of Asia cannot be said to be complete till we have new and correct maps of the central parts, particularly of Tibet, which may be called the heart of Asia, whence the streams of life flow into the vast southern regions of that extensive country. The sources of the Ganges and Indus, the Sanpoo, and all the prodigious and fertile streams of exterior India, and of China, belong to this interesting region; and must be exactly traced and delineated before we can have precise and scientific ideas of Asiatic geography.

History.

The Lama of Tibet was the Prester John of the middle ages, if he were not some nestorian Chan:" and this strange appellation was as strangely transferred by Portuguese ignorance to the emperor of Abyssinia. Polo also informs us that Tibet had been ravaged by the Monguls, so that in his time it was almost desolate. The quiet succession of the lamas would afford few materials for history; and the petty secular chiefs* of distinct provinces or kingdoms may perhaps sometimes be traced in the Chinese or Hindoo annals, but would little interest an European reader. As the tombs and monasteries are often constructed of stone, some may remain of remote antiquity. But the idols, cut in the rocks, are little calculated to impress travellers with the idea of much perfection in the arts.

Religion.

The religion of Tibet seems to be the schismatical offspring of that of the Hindoos," "deriving its origin from one of the followers of that faith, a disciple of Budh, who first broached the doctrine which now

" Gibbon, viii. 344.

* Yet Tibet was for some time subject to secular kings, called Tfan Pa; and the lama resided at Lassa with a power similar to that of the spiritual prince of Japan. The succession of kings and lamas begins about 1340 years before Christ, Giorgi, p. 296; but about 1100 after Christ the Chinese emperor gave to a celebrated lama the regal power, ib. 316. Those Monguls called Eluts conquered the secular prince, and transferred the whole power to the lama, (Du Halde, iv. 50.) See also, in the same author, iv. 570, an account of the disputes which arose between the ancient, or red lamas, and the yellow, who, by the influence of China, obtained the ascendancy. In 1792 the Nipalese having committed great ravages in Tibet, the emperor of China sent an army to protect the lama; in consequence of which the Chinese have established military posts on the frontiers, so that the intercourse between their country and Bengal is now precluded. Turner, 441.

" Turner, p. 306.

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prevails over the wide extent of Tatory. It is reported to have received its earliest admission in that part of Tibet bordering upon India, (which from hence became the seat of the sovereign lamas;) to have traversed over Mantchieux Tatory, and to have been ultimately diffused over China and Japan. Though it differs from the Hindoo in many of its outward forms, yet it still bears a very close affinity with the religion of Brahma, in many important particulars. The principal idol in the temples of Tibet is Mahamoonie,* the Budha of Bengal, who is worshipped under these and various other epithets, throughout the great extent of Tatory, and among all the nations to the eastward of the Berhampooter. In the wide extended space, over which this faith prevails, the same object of veneration is acknowledged under numerous titles; among others he is styled Godama, or Gowtama, in Assam and Ava; Samana in Siam; Amida Buth in Japan; Fohi in China; Budha, and Shakamuna in Bengal, and Hindostan; Dherma Raja, and Mahamoonie in Bootan, and Tibet. Durga and Kali; Ganesh the emblem of wisdom; and Gartikeah with his numerous heads and arms, as well as many other deities of the Hindoo mythology, have also a place in their assemblage of gods.

"The same places of popular esteem, or religious resort, as I have already hinted, are equally respected in Tibet and in Bengal; Praag, Cashi, Durgeedin, Saugor, and Jagarnaut, are objects of devout pilgrimage; and I have seen loads of the sacred water taken from the Ganges travelling over these mountains, (which by the bye contribute largely to its increase,) upon the shoulders of men whom enthusiasts have deemed it worth their while to hire at a considerable expence for so pious a purpose.

"As far as I am able to judge respecting their ritual, or ceremonial worship, it differs materially from the Hindoo. The Tibetians assemble in chapels, and unite together in prodigious numbers to perform their religious service, which they chant in alternate recitative, and chorus, accompanied by an extensive band of loud and powerful instruments. So that whenever I heard these congregations they forcibly recalled to

* "This term is Sanscrit, and literally signifies Great Saint."

RELIGION. my recollection both the solemnity and sound of the Roman Catholic mass."

Perhaps this similarity may arise from the nestorian form of Christianity, supposed to have anciently made some progress in this country. There are numerous monasteries containing crowds of *gylongs*, or monks, with a few *annees*, or nuns.

Government. The ruling government is the spiritual, though the lama were accustomed to appoint a *tipa*, or secular regent, a right which has probably passed to the Chinese emperor. In Bootan, generally considered as a province of Tibet, there is a raja, or prince, called Daeb, whose authority however is far from being firm, or extensive. The laws must, like the religion, bear some affinity to that of the Hindoos.

Population. No estimate of the population of Tibet seems to have been attempted, but as the country may be said to be wholly mountainous, and the climate excessively cold, even under the 27th degree of latitude, (the influence of mountains being far superior to that of imaginary zones,) the people are thinly scattered, and the number of males far exceeds that of females. From the ease with which the conquest was effected by the Eluts, and other circumstances, it can scarcely be conceived that a monarch of all Tibet could have brought into the field an army of more than 50,000; and allowing that (exclusive of the numerous monks) only every tenth person assumed arms, the population would be half a million, a circumstance which will not surprize those who consider that a few families in central Asia assume the name of a nation. But this number is probably far too small; and it can only be said that the population seems scanty. The ancient nomadic crowds are now reduced to a small number, from the extensive bands who followed their victorious chiefs having settled in more civilized countries, and from the natural progress of human affairs, which leads mankind to exchange a severe climate, and barren soil, for more fertile, and favoured regions. From these and other causes the population of a country may become exhausted, as well as its vegetation. Even the numerous armies of the Hunnish and Mongul victors were chiefly supplied with recruits from more southern countries, previously vanquished: the miseries of war being the greatest source of soldiers.

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The revenues of the lama, and of the secular princes, seem to be trifling; nor can Tibet ever aspire to any political importance, except in the improbable case that a supposed emperor of Hindostan were carrying on war against China. In a commercial point of view, friendship and free intercourse with Tibet might open new advantages to our settlements in Bengal; and in this design repeated envoys to the lama were sent by Mr. Hastings, a governor who possessed the most enlarged and enlightened mind, and an active attention to the interests of his country.

Mr. Turner represents the character of the Tibetians as extremely gentle and amiable. The men are generally stout, with something of the Tataric features, and the women of a ruddy brown complexion, heightened like the fruits by the proximity of the sun, while the mountain breezes bestow health and vigour.

"The ceremonies of marriage are neither tedious nor intricate in Tibet." Their courtships are carried on with little art, and quickly brought to a conclusion. The elder brother of a family, to whom the choice belongs, when enamoured of a damsel makes his proposal to the parents. If his suit is approved, and the offer accepted, the parents, with their daughter, repair to the suitor's house, where the male and female acquaintance of both parties meet, and carouse for the space of three days, with music, dancing, and every kind of festivity. At the expiration of this time the marriage is complete. The priests of Tibet, who shun the society of women, have no share in these ceremonies, or in ratifying the obligation between the parties. Mutual consent is their only bond of union; and the parties present are witnesses to the contract, which, it seems, is formed indissolubly for life. The husband has it not in his power to rid himself of a troublesome companion, nor the wife to withdraw herself from the husband, unless indeed the same unison of sentiment that joined their hands should prompt their separation; but in such a case they are never left at liberty to form a new alliance. Instances of incontinency are rare, but if a married female be found to violate her compact the crime is expiated by corporal punishment, and the favoured lower effaces the obloquy of his transgression by a pecuniary fine."

⁴ Turner, 352.

MARRIAGE
 CUSTOMS.

It is a remarkable characteristic of the country that polygamy here assumes a different form from that of other oriental regions; the women being indulged in a plurality of husbands, instead of the reverse. It is the privilege of the elder brother to select a wife, who stands in an equal relation to his other brothers, whatever may be the number.* The same custom is said to have been clandestinely practised at Venice, from views of family pride, united with poverty; but in Tibet it is reported to be founded in the great paucity of females, when compared with the number of males, though a vast quantity of the latter be buried in the monasteries.

Burials.

Such is the respect paid to the lama, that his body is preserved entire in a shrine; while those of the inferior priests are burnt, and their ashes preserved in little hollow images of metal. But in general the dead bodies are exposed to the beasts, and birds of prey, in walled areas; and an annual festival is held, as in Bengal and China, in honour of the dead.

A curious idea of the manners and customs of the Tibetians may be formed from Mr. Turner's account of his interview with the lama, then an infant not capable of speech; for, in the spirit of the eastern metempsychosis, they suppose that the soul of the lama passes from his late body into another, which they discover by infallible marks.

Upon the whole, the Tibetians appear to have made a considerable progress in civilization; but the sciences continue in a state of imperfection, the year for instance being lunar, and the month consisting of 29 days.

Language.

The language of Tibet is reported by Du Halde to be the same with that spoken by the people of Sifan, on the western frontiers of China; but as this province is itself sometimes included in Tibet, the information becomes vague; nor have the origins of the Tibetan speech been properly investigated. The literature is chiefly of the religious kind, the books being sometimes printed with blocks of wood, on narrow slips of thin paper, fabricated from the fibrous root of a small shrub. In this practice they resemble the Chinese; while the Hindoos engrave their works with a steel stylus upon the recent leaves of the palmira

* Du Halde and Turner.

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tree, (*borassus flabelliformis*,) affording a fibrous substance, which seems LANGUAGE. indestructible by vermin." The printed and formal letters are called the *uchen*; while those of business and correspondence are styled *umin*. From Mr. Turner's account it would seem that the writing runs from the left to the right, as in the languages of Europe.

The *gylongs*, or monks, pass through a regular education; and it is to be supposed sometimes teach children not destined to religious confinement.

Of the cities and towns of Tibet little is known. The capital is Cities and Towns. Lassa: and several other names in the southern part assume the character of towns in the maps, though probably mere villages. Tassifudon, for instance, only consists of scattered groups of hovels. There being little commerce, there is no middle class of people, but the transition is rapid from the miserable hut to the stone palace or monastery.

Lassa, the capital of Tibet, is situated in a spacious plain, being a small Lassa. city, but the houses are of stone, and are spacious and lofty.¹⁶ The noted mountain of Putala, on which stands the palace of the Lama, is about seven miles to the east of the city. As *La* means a hill in the native tongue, this name may imply the hill of Pouta or Boodh. To the north of Lassa appears another vast range of mountains, covered with snow, which are clearly seen from Kambala, a very high mountain on the north of the lake of Iandro or Palti. Lassa is in the province of Ou, and almost in the centre of Tibet.¹⁷

Among the edifices the monasteries may be first mentioned. Mr. Edifices. Turner describes that of Teshoo Loomboo, as containing three or four hundred houses, inhabited by monks, besides temples, mausoleums, and the palace of the sovereign pontiff. The buildings are all of stone, none less than two stories in height, with flat roofs, and parapets composed of heath and brushwood, probably to emit the melting snow. The centre window projects beyond the wall, and forms a balcony. Some of the palaces and fortresses are described and delineated by Mr. Turner; and the architecture seems respectable. Bridges occur of various fantastic forms; sometimes consisting of chains, drawn from precipice to precipice;

¹⁶ Turner, 323.

¹⁷ Rennell, 306.

¹⁸ Bernoulli, iii. 227.

pice;

EDIFICES. pice; sometimes of beams, one end being fixed in the shore, while the other successively increases its projection till the uppermost timbers support a short passage of planks, thus resembling the upper section of an octagon. The roads amidst the rocky mountains resemble those of Switzerland, and are particularly dangerous after rain.

Manufactures. The chief manufactures of Tibet seem to be shawls, and some woollen cloths; but there is a general want of industry; and the fine undermost hair of the goats, from which shawls are manufactured, is chiefly sent to Cashmir. The principal exports are to China, consisting of gold dust, diamonds, pearls, coral, (which is mentioned by Marco Polo as a commodity of the country") lamb skins, some musk, and woollen cloths. Many of the Chinese imports are manufactured. To Nipal, Tibet sends rock salt, tincal or crude borax, and gold dust; receiving in return base silver coin, copper, rice, and coarse cotton cloths. Through Nipal is also carried on the chief trade with Bengal, in gold dust, tincal, and musk. The returns broad cloth, spices, trinkets, emeralds, sapphires, pheirosa or lazulite, jet, amber, &c. With Afam in the S. E., there is no intercourse; and the little trade with Bootan may rather be regarded as internal.

Trade. The trade with China, which is the principal, is chiefly conducted at the garrison town of Sining, in the western extremity of the province of Shensi, where tea is greedily bought by the Tibetians. There is no mint in Tibet, as such an institution is prevented by religious prejudices; but the base silver of Nipal is current throughout the country.

Climate. The climate of Bootan may be said to be temperate, when compared with that of Tibet Proper; yet the winters are very severe even in the former country. "In the temperature of the seasons in Tibet a remarkable uniformity prevails, as well as in their periodical duration and return. The same division of them takes place here as in the more southern region of Bengal. The spring is marked, from March to May, by a variable atmosphere; heat, thunder storms, and occasionally with refreshing showers. From June to September is the season of humidity, when heavy and continued rains fill the rivers to their brim,

"ii. 37. Whence was this coral? It was used as money. Can it have been from the large lakes? German travellers sometimes call jasper coral.

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which run off from hence with rapidity to assist in inundating Bengal. CLIMATE.
 From October to March a clear and uniform sky succeeds, seldom obscured either by fogs or clouds. For three months of this season a degree of cold is felt, far greater perhaps than is known to prevail in Europe. Its extreme severity is more particularly confined to the southern boundary of Tibet, near that elevated range of mountains which divides it from Afam, Bootan, and Nipal."¹⁹

Thus the distinguishing characteristic of the climate is that extreme dry and parching cold, which, under the latitude of 26°, near the torrid zone of antiquated geography, rivals that of the Alps in latitude 46°.

From the same intelligent traveller we learn that Bootan, with all its confused and shapeless mountains, is covered with eternal verdure, and abounds in forests of large and lofty trees.²⁰ The sides of the mountains are improved by the hand of industry, and crowned with orchards, fields, and villages. Tibet Proper, on the contrary, exhibits only low rocky hills, without any visible vegetation, or extensive arid plains of an aspect equally stern; while the bleak and cold climate constrains the inhabitants to seek refuge in sheltered vales and hollows, or amidst the warmest aspects of the rocks. Yet Tibet produces great abundance and variety of wild fowl and game; with numerous flocks of sheep and goats, and herds of cattle, and is infested by many beasts of prey: while in Bootan few wild animals are found except monkeys, and a few pheasants. Tibet Proper must indeed be considered as a mineral country, the mountains presenting a peculiarly naked aspect, which indicates that they contain rich ores, for the fumes of large masses of metal are poisonous to vegetation.

The nature of the soil here prohibits the progress of agriculture. The Soil.
 vales are commonly laid under water on the approach of winter: in the spring they are plowed and sown, while frequent showers, and a powerful sun, contribute speedily to mature the crops.²¹ The autumn being clear and tranquil, the harvest is long left to dry on the ground; and when sufficiently hardened is trod out by cattle. The course of cultivation is wheat, peas, and barley; rice being confined to a more southern soil.

¹⁹ Turner, 300.

²⁰ P. 216.

²¹ Turner, 354.

The

RIVERS.

The chief river of Tibet is, beyond all comparison, the Sampoo or Berhanpootar, which rising in the western region, from the same lofty mountains that give source to the Ganges, proceeds in an E. and S. E. direction for about the space of 1000 English miles, to the confines of Tibet and Afam, where it bends S. W., and flows into the estuary of the Ganges, after a further course of about 400 British miles.

The Hoan Ho and Kian Ku of the Chinese also derive their origin from the eastern boundaries of Tibet. Of the other rivers little is known; but the great Japanese river of Cambodia, or Maykaung of Laos; that of Nou Kia, supposed to pass near Martaban into the gulph of Pegu; and the Irrawady of this last country, are all supposed to derive their sources from the mountains of Tibet, which may be styled the Alps of Asia. Nor must it be forgotten that another large river, called the Sardjoo or Gagra, which after a course of about 600 miles, nearly parallel on the E. with that of the Ganges, joins it near Chupra, also derives its spring from the lofty western mountains of Tibet.

LAKES.

These Alpine regions contain, as usual, many lakes, the most considerable being represented under the name of Terkiri, about 80 British miles in length, and 25 broad. The Chinese lamas, who drew up the map of Tibet, which geographers still copy in the want of superior authorities, have also depicted many other lakes in the northern parts of the country; where there certainly exists one very singular, which yields the tincal or crude borax. Equally uncommon is the lake to the S. of Lassa, which our maps call Jamdro or Paltè, the last appellation probably from Peiti, a village which the original atlas of Du Halde places on its margin. This strange lake is represented as a wide trench, of about two leagues broad, every where surrounding an island of about twelve leagues in diameter; if true, a singular feature of nature. Even the smaller lakes in the south of Tibet Proper are in the winter frozen to a great depth.

MOUNTAINS.

The vast ranges of Tibetan mountains have already been repeatedly mentioned; but there is no accurate geographical delineation of their course and extent. Those in the west and south seem to bend in the form of a crescent, from the sources of the Ganges to the frontiers of Afam, in a N. W. and S. E. direction. To the north of Sampoo a parallel

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" Turner, 3
VOL. II.

parallel and yet higher ridge seems to extend, the northern extremities MOUNTAINS. abounding with large frozen lakes. In Du Halde's atlas, which was drawn up by the able D'Anville, the mountains which give source to the Ganges are called those of Kentaisse, and seem to belong to the northern chain known by many local names; but the chief elevation appears as usual to be central, to the south of the lake Terkiri, being called Koiran, an appellation which might therefore be scientifically extended to the whole chain, if that of Kantel (the western part) be rejected. The southern range also presents many names of distinct mountains, but the Hindoo name of Himmala is preferable.*

From these great ranges many branches extend N. and S. as in the Alps, and their names may perhaps be traced, but with little accuracy, in the general map of Tibet, and atlas of the provinces, drawn up by D'Anville from the sketches of the missionaries, and already repeatedly quoted.

Bootan, the southern province of Tibet, abounds with forests containing many European trees, though the oak be wanting; and several peculiar to Asia. Nipal, the adjoining province to the west, probably presents similar features. The high snowy mountains which contain the sources of the Ganges are perhaps barren of vegetation, a character generally applicable to Tibet Proper. Forests.

In Bootan few wild animals are observable, except monkeys: but Zoology. Tibet abounds with game of various descriptions. The horses are of a small size, or what we term ponies, but spirited to a degree of obstinacy. The cattle are also diminutive. The flocks of sheep are numerous, commonly small, with black heads and legs; the wool soft, and the mutton excellent. It is a peculiarity of the country that the latter food is generally eaten raw. When dried in the frosty air it is not disagreeable, in this state, to an European palate.**

The goats are numerous, and celebrated for producing a fine hair, which is manufactured into shawls, and which lies beneath the exterior

* The southern range is the Himalaya (Imaus?) of Hindoo mythology. The Chumularee near Phari, on the N. frontier of Bootan, is one of the highest peaks. Turner, 203.

† Du Halde's map of Tibet seems to exclude Bootan, and several provinces on the S. W.

** Turner, 302.

ZOOLOGY. coarse coat. Nor must the singular breed of cattle be forgotten, called Yak by the Tatars, covered with thick long hair; the tail being peculiarly flowing and glossy, and an article of luxury in the east, where it is used to drive away the flies, and sometimes dried for ornaments. These cattle do not low; but, when uneasy, make a kind of grunting sound, whence the breed is called the *bos grunniens*.

The musk deer delights in intense cold. This valuable animal has two long curved tusks, proceeding downward from the upper jaw, which seem intended to dig roots, his usual food. The figure of the body somewhat resembles the hog, while the hair approaches the quills of the porcupine. The musk, which is only found in the male is formed in a little tumour at the navel; and is the genuine and authentic article so styled, being commonly black, and divided by thin cuticles.²¹

The wild horse is also classed among the quadrupeds of Tibet. The tiger may perhaps appear in the S. E., but the other beasts of prey, as the ounce, &c. are of small size, as may be expected in so cold a climate.

The lakes abound with water fowl in the summer, many of which may perhaps be new to zoology; and little is discovered concerning the fish and insects of this singular country.

Mineralogy.

The mineralogy is better known from the account appended to Mr. Turner's Journey in 1783, from which it appears that Bootan does not probably contain any metal except iron, and a small portion of copper; while Tibet Proper, on the contrary, seems to abound with rich minerals. Gold is found in great quantities, sometimes in the form of dust in the beds of rivers, sometimes in large masses, and irregular veins, commonly in a gangart of petrosilex or of quartz. There is a lead mine, two days journey from Teihoo Lumboo, the ore being galena, probably containing silver. Cinnabar, rich in quicksilver, is also found; and there are strong indications of copper. Rock salt is another product of Tibet. But in general the metals cannot be worked, as there is a complete deficiency of fuel; and coal would be far more precious than gold.

²¹ Turner, 2co. This animal rather resembles a large hare. See a good figure in Gladwin's Oriental Miscellany, Calcutta, 1793, 8vo. p. 129.

The most peculiar product of Tibet is tincal, or crude borax; concerning which Mr. Saunders, who accompanied Mr. Turner, gives the following interesting information. "The lake, from whence tincal and rock salt are collected, is about fifteen days journey from Teshoolumboo, and to the northward of it. It is encompassed on all sides by rocky hills, without any brooks or rivulets near at hand; but its waters are supplied by springs, which being saltish to the taste are not used by the natives. The tincal is deposited or formed in the bed of the lake: and those who go to collect it dig it up in large masses, which they afterwards break into small pieces, for the convenience of carriage, exposing it to the air to dry. Although tincal has been collected from this lake for a great length of time, the quantity is not perceptibly diminished; and as the cavities made by digging it soon wear out, or fill up, it is an opinion with the people that the formation of fresh tincal is going on. They have never yet met it in dry ground, or high situations, but it is found in the shallowest depths, and the borders of the lake; which deepening gradually from the edges towards the centre, contains too much water to admit of their searching for the tincal conveniently; but from the deepest parts they bring rock salt, which is not to be found in shallows, or near the bank. The waters of the lake rise and fall very little, being supplied by a constant and unvarying source, neither augmented by the influx of any current, nor diminished by any stream running from it. The lake, I was assured, is at least 20 miles in circumference; and, standing in a very bleak situation, is frozen for a great part of the year. The people employed in collecting these salts are obliged to desist from their labour so early as October, on account of the ice. Tincal is used in Tibet for soldering, and to promote the fusion of gold and silver. Rock salt is universally used for all domestic purposes in Tibet, Bootan, and Nipal."⁴⁴

There are many mineral waters in various parts of this extensive country; nor is their salutary use unknown to the natives.

The natural curiosities of this alpine region must of course be numerous, but they have been little explored. Towards the north of Tassifudon

MINERALOGY.

Mineral Waters.

Natural Curiosities.

⁴⁴ Turner, 406.

NATURAL
CURIOSI-
TIES.

fudon Mr. Saunders observed a singular rock, forming in front six or seven angular semi-pillars of great circumference, and some hundred feet in height." This natural curiosity was in part detached from the mountain, and projected over a considerable fall of water, which added much to the grand picturesque appearance of the whole. He adds that the rock is laminated, and might be formed into slate; and iron stones being found in the vicinity, it is probable that these pilastres may, like those of basalt, arise from the influence of that metal.

One of the most interesting works concerning this celebrated country is that of Father Giorgi, published at Rome in 1762; but it is a prolix and ill digested production, chiefly occupied with comparisons between the religion of Tibet, which is a mixture of the Hindoo and Christian system, with that of the Manichees and other creeds. The short description of Tibet is mostly compiled from the papers of Pinnabilla, a preceding missionary, and only occupies about nine pages, followed by an itinerary from the mouth of the Ganges to Lassa.

According to this brief topography, Tibet is bounded on the east by China; and Tarcenton, a province which produces abundance of tea, and has, since the year 1720, been incorporated with the Chinese empire. On the south are Bengal, Lotenke, Altibary, Mon, Brukpa, Lhoba, Lhokhaptra, Sciapado, Bha. The countries on the west are Cashmir, Nckpal, Moronga, while on the north are Great Tatar, the Ufbeks, Cashur, Jonkar, as far as Jerkend and Cokonor.*

The number of inhabitants in 1730, our author, or rather Pinnabilla, computes at thirty-three millions, and the soldiers six hundred and ninety thousand, both of which numbers seem exaggerated, if not ridiculous, for Tibet has been often conquered by the Chinese with armies not exceeding forty thousand men. The province of Amdoa being excepted, three families presented one soldier, but if there were only one son in the three families he was not constrained.

The kingdoms and provinces were: Lauta or Ladak, which, towards the west, bounded on Cashmir, towards the east Ngari, and towards the north on the Ufbeks.

* Turner, 398.

* P. 416.

Ngari is divided into three provinces; Ngari Sangkar, Ngari Purang, Ngari Tamo.

Ngari Sangkar, towards the west, borders on Ladak, towards the north on Cathgar and Tatary, towards the east Ngari Purang. But when he mentions the Mogul's dominions as bounding this and the two other provinces on the south, there seems to be some gross inaccuracy, or want of precision.

Ngari Purang is limited on the north-west by Ngari Sangkar, and on the east by Ngari Purang.

Ngari Tamo has on the west Ngari Purang, and on the east Tzhang. The boundaries of both these provinces are vaguely said to be the Tatars on the north, and the Mogul's dominions on the south.

The kingdom of Tzhang, towards the west, borders on Nekpal, towards the north Ngari Tamo, towards the south Lho-Tenki, and Bregion, and towards the east the province of U, which word or letter implies the navel, as being the centre of the Tibetan dominions. The chief town of the province of Tzhang is Sgigatzi.

The province of Bregion, or Bramascion, has on the north Tzhang, on the south Mon, Altibary, Brukpa or Laltopivalo, on the south-east Lhova, on the east Caco and Combo, while on the west are Moronga and Nekpal.

The province of U, of which the metropolis is Lassa, towards the west, borders on Tzhang, and the high mountain of Cambala; towards the east, Sciarbigonti; towards the south, Jalha and Takpo; towards the north, on Kiang in Ratren and Talung.

Kiang has on the west Ngari, on the north Coconor, on the east Cahang, on the south the province of U. In this division is the duchy of Dam, inhabited by Tibetans and Tatars in tents. Beyond Dam, during a journey of forty-two days, no towns occur, the scattered tribes living in tents; and one of their common animals being the Yak, or *bos grunniens*, elsewhere a rare species of cattle. After this journey of forty-two days, the travellers find themselves on the bank of Bichu, a large river which is passed in boats made of skins. After sailing a whole day, they rest, during the night, in an isle, and rising with the dawn, they arrive on the other side at noon. This great river is scarcely

scarcely reconcilable with our little knowledge concerning the geography of these countries, and it is probable, that the native term implies a lake as well as a river. A journey of an entire month is necessary, according to our author, to conduct the traveller from this water to Zoloma, whence in five days he arrives at Coconor, or the northern boundaries of this Tibetan province of Kiang.

The province of Takpo is very large, and is subdivided into seven Takpos. It has on the north the province of U, on the south Combo, on the east Cahang, on the west Tzhang.

Combo, towards the north, borders on Takpo, towards the east on Cahang, towards the west on Bregion and Lhoba, towards the south Lho-Kaha-Ptra, which name implies the people of the south with slit lips.

Kiang has on the west Bicun, Takpo, Combo, on the north Coconor and Kiang, on the east Tarcenton, China, and Amdoa, while on the south are Bengal, Pegu, and Siam. But the last limits are uncertain, as the Tibetans are suspicious of any geographical questions tending, as they imagine, to the invasion of their country. Kiang is divided into twelve inferior provinces or districts, of which the names and boundaries are given, except four, and Pinnabilla in vain desired leave to inspect the maps painted on the walls of the royal residence at Laprang.

Amdoa is a kingdom forty-five days journey from Lassa. It is bounded by China on the east, by Coconor and Kiang on the north, by Kahang on the west, and by Tunquin, or rather Pegu and China on the south. The provinces are fourteen, of which the names are given, but not the boundaries. The people use the Tibetan language, and are very ingenious, most of the great lama's professors and celebrated doctors being of Amdoa.

Hor lies, as it were, in the middle between Tatar, Ngari, and Kiang. The people are rather Tatars than Tibetans, but they are subject to Tibet.

Such is the essence of this topography, which short as it is, is yet sometimes interrupted with extraneous erudition. The dryness of the subject can only be excused by the wish of adding somewhat towards our imperfect knowledge of this interesting country.

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The itinerary which follows this description is also chiefly drawn from the papers of Pinnabilla, a capuchin friar, who, as it here appears, died in 1747, and was buried at Patan; he informs us that Nèkpal is divided into three provinces, Patan, Batgao, and Katmandu, governed by petty princes, who are always at war with each other. Between Nèkpal or Napal and Bettia was the kingdom of Maquampur, rather a capital city. The city of Katmandu is called Jangbu by the people of Tibet. Our traveller found the road extremely difficult, being often carried over dreadful precipices, and at one place, the only passage is across a stone of sixteen feet in length, very much inclined, and wet with water ousing from the mountain. As some security from falling a dreadful height, little holes are cut in which the traveller plants his heel. So numerous are the torrents, that twenty-nine bridges occurred in the space of sixteen miles. The old road to Lassa passed through Bramascion, and was far more convenient.

Langur, a high mountain, rises thirty days journey on the south of Lassa. At Tzuenga three roads meet, one proceeding north to Ngari, another east to Sgigatzi, while the other passes Kiangsi. Upon that leading to Sgigatzi occurs Sechia a city, and Sgigatzè is the residence of a second grand lama. Our author's account of these three roads is almost unintelligible, he being prolix in describing trifles, but brief and obscure when he treats of solid or momentous objects.

The lake of Paltè or Jamdro, a singular feature of Tibet, is about three hundred miles in circumference, or eighteen days journey of twenty miles each; it is situated about three days journey to the south of Lassa. In the middle there is a series of hills and isles, on the south of which was the convent of the great female lama, Turcepamo, who was adored as a deity, and received with supreme pomp when she visited Lassa. On the north of this lake stands Cambala, a mountain of great height, and, at a distance of seven miles, runs the river Sampo or Bur-rampoot, which is here five hundred feet in breadth. From the river to Lassa are twenty-four miles. The royal palace at Lassa is called Laprang, where, among other ornaments, are maps of the various provinces, painted about 1665, by the orders of the king Tisri, on sixteen walls; Laprang is also one of the celebrated academies or schools of
Tibet,

Tibet, which are frequented by the youth of many surrounding countries, even as far as Cashgar, Yarkend, Camul, Turfan, nay, some from Coconor, Amdoa, and China. The course of studies employs twelve years occupied in logic, astronomy, philosophy, medicine, and above all the theology of Boud or Xaca. In the city of Lassa were many foreign merchants, and the women had recently become more polished by their conversation with the Chinese. According to our author, the men of Tibet have no beard, whence the priests adorn their chins with borrowed hair.

His hints concerning the provinces are very imperfect. He observes, that "wine is made in Ngari and Upper Tibet, though there be vast rocks and mountains covered with perpetual snow." According to report, from Cashmir to Lassa is a journey of four months, and the same space extends from Lassa to Peking. Mines of gold occurred in the provinces of U, Tzhang, Kiang, Takpa, Combo, and Khang or Cahang. Silver was found only in the province of Tzhang, and mercury in that of Cahang, but iron, copper, and zink, were common; "the rivers produce borax in great quantity, rising from their bottoms like coral," an account which may deservedly seem doubtful to the naturalist.

These scattered observations may not be found un-useful concerning a country so little known.

Before closing this account, it must be observed that there is a district to the N. W. of Cashmir, called Little Tibet, and which is supposed to contain the chief source of the Indus. But of this country, which is also represented as a portion of the Chinese empire, little or nothing is known; and even its very situation seems doubtful, for D'Anville, in his map of Asia, has placed it to the N. E. of Cashmir, thus representing it as the N. W. extremity of Tibet Proper. But Little Tibet is probably on the N. and N. W. of Cashmir, being divided from Great Tibet by a high mountainous ridge; and by a yet higher chain, that of Belur, from Great Bucharia. It is said to be a very mountainous and poor country, pervaded by the Indus, and in the north full of forests. The capital is Acardu; and further to the north is Schakar, as already

mentioned in the observations on the boundaries of Great Tibet. Temir-kand, or the fortress of iron, seems to command the pass between Great and Little Tibet: and the two Gangas of the Chinese maps (supposed sources of the Ganges) are probably rivers which join the Indus from the east.

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CHAPTER I.

HISTORICAL GEOGRAPHY.

Names.—Extent.—Original Population.—Progressive Geography.—Historical Epochs and Antiquities.

THE kingdom, or, as it is by some styled, the empire of Japan, has by most geographers been classed among the Asiatic isles, and has in consequence been treated with more brevity than its importance demands. For, excepting China, no existing Asiatic monarchy can aspire to superior rank, or is more calculated to excite rational curiosity, from the singularity of its government, abundant population, progress in the arts of life, and peculiar manners of the people. The Japanese islands may in some measure be compared with Great Britain and Ireland, forming a grand insular power near the eastern extremity of Asia, like that of the British isles near the western extremity of Europe. Nor are ample modern materials wanting; for the honest and industrious Kämpfer has given us a description which sometimes rivals the Britannia of Camden in minuteness and precision; and Thunberg, an able naturalist, has in his travels produced a supplement; so that few deficiencies remain in our knowledge of this interesting country.

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Marco Polo, the father of modern Asiatic geography, mentions Japan ^{NAMES.} by the name of Zipangri or Zipangu. The inhabitants themselves call it Nipon, or Nifon; and the Chinese Sippon, and Jepuen.

This empire extends from the 30th to the 41st degree of N. latitude; ^{Extent.} and according to the most recent maps from the 131st to the 142d degree of E. longitude from Greenwich. Besides many smaller isles, it presents two considerable ones in the S. W., that of Kiufiu (also termed Saikokf or the western country); and that of Sikokf. But by far the most important island is that of Nipon, to the N. E. of the two former. The geography of Kämpfer has been corrected by recent voyages, according to which the length of Kiufiu, from N. to S. is about two degrees, or 140 British miles: the greatest breadth about 90. Sikokf is about 90 British miles in length, by half the breadth. The grand isle of Nipon is in length from S. W. to N. E. not less than 750 British miles; but is so narrow in proportion, that the medial breadth cannot be assumed above 80, though in two projecting parts it may double that number. These islands are divided into provinces and districts, as usual in the most civilized countries.

To the N. of Nipon is another large isle, that of Jesso, or Chicha, which having received some Japanese colonies, is generally regarded as subject to Japan; but being inhabited by a savage people, is rather considered as a foreign conquest than as a part of this civilized empire.

The original population of Japan has been little illustrated; but the Japanese seem to be a kindred race with the Chinese: though, according to Kämpfer, the languages be radically distinct. But if compared with that of Corea, the nearest land, and the latter with the Chinese, perhaps a gradation might be observable. The Japanese may have migrated from the continent, when both the Chinese and themselves were in the earlier stages of society; and the complete insular separation may have given rise to a language rendered peculiar by the progress of a distinct civilization. ^{Original Population.}

Before the account published by Kämpfer, Japan had been imperfectly explored by the Portuguese; and since 1730, the date of Kämpfer's publication, many important improvements have been made, that author having failed in an exact delineation of the empire, which he ^{Progressive Geography.}

PROGRES-
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GRAPHY.

chiefly derived from crude Japanese maps, and having erred so grossly as to confound the isle of Jesso with Kamtschatka, from which, besides the great difference in longitude, it is distant about 6 degrees, or 360 geographical miles! These faults are not indicated to upbraid this industrious writer, who, like all others, must only be estimated by the state of knowledge when he wrote, but for the information of those who, unaware of the daily progress of geography, repose an undue confidence on antiquated authorities.

Historical
Epochs.

The history of their own country is universally studied by the Japanese; and Kæmpfer has produced an elaborate abstract, divided into three epochs, the fabulous, the doubtful, and the certain.

The first extends beyond the judaic era of the creation, when the empire is fabled to have been governed by seven great celestial spirits successively; and the last having wedded a goddess, there succeeded a race of five demigods, one of which is said to have reigned 250,000 years, while the last reigned more than 800,000!

The second or uncertain epoch is by Kæmpfer interwoven with the Chinese history: this part of his work demonstrating that the Japanese themselves at least acknowledge their government and civilization to have been derived from China. Sin Noo, one of these Chinese monarchs admitted by the Japanese into their annals, is represented with the head of a bull, or with two horns, as having taught the use of agriculture and herds; perhaps the simple and natural origin of the Jupiter Ammon, and similar images of classical antiquity.

The third or certain period begins with the hereditary succession of the ecclesiastic emperors, from the year 660 before the Christian era, to the year of Christ 1585, during which 107 princes of the same lineage governed Japan. At the last period the secular princes assumed the supreme authority. In general the reigns are pacific; though at very distant intervals the Mandshurs and Coreans occasionally invaded Japan, but were always defeated by the valour of the inhabitants. In the reign of Gouda, the ninetieth Dairi, or spiritual emperor, the Monguls under Mooko attempted a grand invasion of Japan, after having conquered China about fourteen years before. The number of small vessels is ex-

! Kæmpfer, i. 231. French translation.

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aggregated to 4000, and that of the army to 240,000; and it is probable that numerous Chinese junks contained a formidable army of Monguls. But they were dispersed and almost wholly destroyed by a furious tempest, which the Japanese piously ascribed to the gods their protectors. In 1585 the generals of the crown, or secular emperors, who were also hereditary, assumed the supreme power: the Dairis being afterwards confined, and strictly guarded, that they might not reassume their ancient authority.

HISTORICAL
EPOCHS.

The temples and palaces being constructed of wood, few monuments of antiquity can remain. Some of the castles of the nobility have walls of earth or stone; but the most ancient relics are probably the coins and idols.

Antiquities.

CHAPTER II.

POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY.

Religion.—Government.—Laws.—Population.—Colonies.—Army.—Navy.—Revenues.—Political Importance and Relations.

THE established religion of Japan is a polytheism, joined with the acknowledgment of a supreme creator. There are two principal sects, that of Sinto and that of Budſdo. The first acknowledges a supreme being, far superior to the little claims and worship of man, whence they adore the inferior deities as mediators, the idea of a mediator being indispensable in almost every form of religion. They believe that the souls of the virtuous have a place assigned to them immediately under heaven, while those of the wicked wander in the air till they expiate their offences. The transmigration of souls is of course unknown. They abstain from animal food, detest bloodshed, and will not touch any dead body.

RELIGION.

! Thunberg, iv. 19.

RELIGION.

“Although the professors of this religion be persuaded that their gods know all things, and that therefore it is unnecessary to pray to them upon any occasion, they have nevertheless both temples and certain stated holidays. Their gods are called *Sin* or *Kami*; and their temples are styled *Mia*. These temples consist of several different apartments and galleries, with windows and doors in front, which can be taken away and replaced at pleasure, according to the custom of the country. The floors are covered with straw mats, and the roofs project so far on every side as to overhang an elevated path, in which people walk round the temple. In these temples one meets with no visible idol, nor any image which is designed to represent the supreme invisible Being: though they sometimes keep a little image in a box, representing some inferior divinity, to whom the temple is consecrated. In the centre of the temple is frequently placed a large mirror, made of cast metal well polished, which is intended to remind those that come to worship, that in like manner as their personal blemishes are faithfully portrayed in the mirror, so do the secret blemishes and evil qualities of their hearts lie open and exposed to the all-searching eyes of the immortal gods.”

The priests are either secular or monastic; the latter alone being entrusted with the mysteries. The festivals and modes of worship are cheerful, and even gay; for they regard the gods as beings who solely delight in dispensing happiness. Besides the first day of the year, and three or four other grand festivals, the first day of the month is always kept as a holiday. There are several orders of monks and nuns, as in the Roman Catholic system: but human nature is every where the same.

The sect of Budso was imported from Hindostan, being the same with that of Budha or Boodh, reported to have been born in Ceylon about 1000 years before the birth of Christ. Passing through China and Corea, it has been mingled with foreign maxims, but the tenet of the metempsychosis remains; wicked souls being supposed to migrate into the bodies of animals, till they have undergone a due purgation.

* Thunberg, iv. p. 21.

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The doctrine of their philofophers and moralifts is called Shuto, and partakes of the Epicurean, though it acknowledge, with Confucius, that the pureft fource of pleasure is a virtuous life. This feft admits a foul of the world; but does not allow inferior gods, temples, nor religious forms. By a fingular inconfistency the perfecution of the Christians greatly diminished the number of the Epicureans; who, in order to avoid fufpicion, are eager to return to the common religion of the country. RELIGION.

Soon after the difcovery of this country by the Portuguefe, jefuitic miffionaries arrived in 1549: and their fucceffors continued to diffufe their doctrine till 1638, when 37,000 Christians were maffacred. Several perfecutions had formerly taken place; and in 1590 upwards of 20,000 are faid to have perifhed. The pride and avarice of the Portuguefe confpired with the vain ambition of the jefuits, (who, not contented with their ftation, endeavoured to introduce themfelves into the governing councils of the nation,) firft to contaminate and render odious the religion which they profefled, in its pure principles effentially oppofite to fuch views, and afterwards to produce this melancholy catastrophe; the exiftence of the Christian faith being through fuch perverfion found incompatible with that of a ftate otherwife univerfally tolerant. Since that memorable epoch Christianity has been held in fupreme deteftation; and the crofs, with its other fymbols, are annually trampled under foot; but it is a fable that the Dutch are conftained to join in this ceremony.

The Kubo, or feccular emperor, is now fole monarch of the country; but till near the end of the feventeenth century the Dairis, pontiffs, or fpiritual monarchs, held the fupreme authority, being appointed by the high ecclefiaftical court according to their laws of fucceffion. Yet occasionally the appointment has been controverted; and Japan has been ravaged by many civil wars. The ecclefiaftical dignities were of fix orders, fome belonging to particular offices, others merely honorary. The feccular prince is accuftomed to confer, with the confent of the dairi, two honorary ranks, equivalent to our noblemen and knights. The ecclefiaftical court is chiefly occupied with literary purfuits, the Government.

Dairi

GOVERN-
MENT.

Dairi residing at Miaco; and his court remains, though not in its former splendour.

The government of each province is intrusted to a resident prince, who is strictly responsible for his administration, his family remaining at the emperor's court as hostages; and he is himself obliged to make an annual appearance, the journey being performed with great pomp, and accompanied with valuable presents. The emperor, as in the feudal times of Europe, derives his chief revenue from his own estate, consisting of five inferior provinces, and some detached towns. Each prince enjoys the revenues of his fief or government, with which he supports his court and military force, repairs the roads, and defrays every civil expence. The princes of the first dignity are styled Daimio, those of inferior rank Siomio. They are generally hereditary, but the Siomios are not only obliged to leave their families at Jedo the capital, but to reside there themselves for six months in the year.

There do not seem to be any traces of a national council, or even assembly of nobles, which seems indeed foreign to the Asiatic manners, though it may be traced in ancient Persia. The cause of this defect has not been investigated, though it necessarily spring from a despotic form of government, universal in the civilized countries of Asia; where the ebullition of the passions seems too strong for cool debate or senatorial eloquence, and difference of opinion would inflame into mutual slaughter. The singular constitution of Japan therefore consists of an absolute hereditary monarchy, supported by a number of absolute hereditary princes; whose jealousy of each other's power conspires, with domestic pledges, to render them subservient to one supreme.

Laws.

The superiority of the laws of Japan over those of Europe has been loudly proclaimed by Kämpfer. The parties themselves appear, and the cause is determined without delay. Yet Kämpfer's information on this head is defective, as he does not mention any code of laws, and chiefly dwells on the advantages arising from the exclusion of strangers from the kingdom, it being also death for any Japanese to leave his country. Thunberg informs us that the laws are few, but rigidly enforced, without regard to persons, partiality, or violence.² Most crimes

² Thunberg, iv. 64.

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are punished with death, fines being considered as partiality to the rich ; Laws. but the sentence of death must be signed by the privy council at Jedo. Parents and relations are made answerable for the crimes of those whose moral education they ought to have superintended. The police is excellent, there not only being a chief magistrate of each town, called Nimban, but an Ottona or commissary of each street, elected by the inhabitants to watch over property and tranquillity. Two inhabitants in their turn nightly patrol the street to guard against fire.

The best proof that the laws are salutary is that few crimes are committed, and few punishments are inflicted. The brief code, according to Thunberg, is posted up in every town and village, in large letters on a spot surrounded with rails.⁴

The population of the Japanese empire, like that of other Asiatic Population. states, cannot be treated with much precision. Ancient and modern travellers seem to have passed this subject in silence. Perhaps the Japanese have some prejudice against any enumeration, or chuse from political views to bury it in obscurity ; while the Chinese, with like design, may perhaps magnify the population of their country. All travellers however agree that the population is surprising, and though a great part of the country be mountainous, yet even the mountains are the objects of obstinate cultivation. Thunberg observes that the capital, Jedo, is said to be 63 British miles in circumference, and at any rate rivals Pekin in size.⁵ Many of the villages are three quarters of a mile in length ; and some so long that it requires several hours to walk through them : and these large villages frequently occur at very short distances. Kämpfer says that the number of people daily travelling on the highways is inconceivable, and the *tokaido*, the chief of the seven great roads, is sometimes more crowded than the most frequented streets of European capitals.⁶ In another passage he expresses his amazement at the extraordinary population, the highways passing through almost continuous villages, while the capitals, Jedo and Miaco, equal in size any cities in the world. Varenus the geographer, who justly esteemed this country so interesting as to deserve a particular description, has from the

⁴ Thunberg, iv. 72.⁵ iii. 282.⁶ ii. 345. and iii. 318.

POPULATION.

best authorities estimated the standing army maintained by the princes and governors at 368,000 infantry, and 38,000 cavalry: while the Kubo, or emperor, maintains 100,000 foot, and 20,000 horse: thus constituting in all a regular force of 468,000 infantry, and 58,000 cavalry.* It is probable that this army does not bear a greater proportion to the population, than that of an European state in time of peace; and as the army doubles that of France under the monarchy, so the population may also be double. Perhaps a more safe estimate may be formed, by supposing the population of Japan to equal that of China; and the former country being about one tenth part the size of the latter, the population will be about 30,000,000.

Colonies.

Though the national laws prohibit emigration, yet where the Japanese make conquests, they seem to regard the country as their own, and to form settlements without hesitation. Hence Japanese colonies may be found in Jessō, and other adjacent isles: nay even in isles of the Indian archipelago, so that their laws, as in China, seem rather theoretic.

Army.

The army has been already mentioned as amounting to more than half a million; and the character of the people is singularly brave and resolute. The navy, like that of the other oriental powers, is beneath notice. The Japanese vessels are open at the stern, so that they cannot bear a boisterous sea; and though, like the Chinese, they have the use of the compass, yet it is inconceivable how they could, in former times, make voyages, as is asserted, to Formosa, and even to Java.

Revenues.

The revenues of this empire are minutely stated by Varenus, according to princes and provinces, the sum total being 2834 tons of gold, in the Flemish mode of computation; and taking the ton at only 10,000l. sterling, the amount would be 28,340,000l. sterling, besides the provinces and cities which are immediately subject to the emperor. These revenues must not however be considered as national, being only yielded in coin to the various princes. The emperor however, besides the large revenues of his provinces, has a considerable treasure in gold and silver, disposed in chests of 1000 taels, or thayls, each being nearly equal in value to a Dutch rix dollar, or about four shillings and

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pends the public revenue in the support of an army, the real weight of
the Japanese resources may best be estimated from the numerous army
supported.*

Japan maintains no political relations with any other state; and con-
sisting of islands without a navy, its external political importance is of
course confined, if not annihilated. No danger is to be apprehended
except from Russia; and it seems doubtful whether, even supposing the
Russians capable of conducting a sufficient force through the wilds of
Siberia, European weapons and tactics would prevail against prodigious
numbers, and determined valour. To Russia indeed the conquest
might be important as securing numerous havens, and a consequent
powerful fleet in the rear of her Asiatic possessions; but the unavoidable
interference of China, justly apprehensive of the consequence, would
prove an invincible obstacle; nor is it likely that the kingdom and laws
of Japan will be overturned; or her vast population wasted to various
regions of the globe, in subservience to Russian ambition.

REVENUES.

Political Im-
portance and
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CHAPTER III.

CIVIL GEOGRAPHY.

*Manners and Customs.—Language.—Literature.—Education.—Cities and Towns.—
Edifices.—Roads.—Inland Navigation.—Manufactures and Commerce.*

A RECENT traveller has described the persons of this singular people
in the following terms. "The people of this nation are well
made, active, free, and easy in their motions, with stout limbs,

* Thunberg, iv. 8. computes the revenue of the crown lands at more than forty-four thousands
of millions of sacks of rice, each sack being about twenty pounds weight. But this calculation
implies nothing to an European reader.

Thunberg, iii. 251.

although their strength is not to be compared to that of the northern inhabitants of Europe. The men are of the middling size, and in general not very corpulent; yet I have seen some that were sufficiently fat. They are of a yellowish colour all over, sometimes bordering on brown, and sometimes on white. The lower class of people, who, in summer when at work, lay bare the upper part of their bodies, are sun burnt, and consequently brown. Ladies of distinction, who seldom go out in the open air without being covered, are perfectly white. It is by their eyes that, like the Chinese, these people are distinguishable. These organs have not that rotundity which those of other nations exhibit; but are oblong, small, and are sunk deeper in the head, in consequence of which these people have almost the appearance of being pink-eyed. In other respects their eyes are dark brown, or rather black; and the eye lids form in the great angle of the eye a deep furrow, which makes the Japanese look as if they were sharp sighted, and discriminates them from other nations. The eye-brows are also placed somewhat higher. Their heads are in general large, and their necks short; their hair black, thick, and shining, from the use they make of oils. Their noses, though not flat, are yet rather thick and short."

Manners and
Customs.

This highly civilized people must of course display great diversity of character, but the virtues far preponderate over the vices; and even their pride is useful, as it prevents them from stooping to the mean tricks of the maritime Chinese. Though polygamy be allowed, yet one wife only is acknowledged, the others being merely concubines. Marriages are conducted by the parents, or relations; and domestic tranquillity is insured by the wife's being under the absolute disposal of her husband, the laws allowing no claim whatever in case she incur his displeasure. Hence, though the women be not confined, examples of infidelity are very rare. In case of separation the wife is condemned to the ignominy of having her head always shaven. The marriage ceremony is performed before an altar, by the bride's lighting a torch from which the bridegroom kindles another.

The bodies of the distinguished dead continue to be burned, while others are buried. Periodical visits are paid to the tombs, besides the festival of lanterns, held as in China, in honour of the departed.

: Varenus, 39.

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The Japanese use great varieties of food and sauces. The master MANNERS
AND
CUSTOMS. or mistress of the house is not harassed with the trouble of carving, the meat being previously cut into small pieces, served up in basons of porcelain, or japanned wood. The general drink is sacki, or beer made of rice; which last article also supplies the place of bread. They use many kinds of vegetables and fruits. The use of tea is also universal; but wine and spirituous liquors are unknown. The use of tobacco seems to have been introduced by the Portuguese; and the practice of smoking has become general.

The houses of the Japanese are of wood, coloured white, so as to resemble stone; and though roomy and commodious never exceed two stories in height, the upper serving for lofts and garrets, and seldom being occupied.³ Each house forms but one room, which may be divided into apartments at pleasure, by moveable partitions sliding in grooves. They use neither chairs nor tables, sitting on straw mats, the meal being served apart to each on a small square wooden salver. In Jedo the houses are covered with tiles; but the general fabric is a frame work of wood, split bamboos, and clay.

The dress consists of trowsers; and what we call night-gowns, or loose robes of silk or cotton, are universally worn by both sexes.⁴ These are fastened by a girdle; the number being increased according to the coldness of the weather; and in cases of sudden warmth thrown from the shoulders and remain suspended by the girdle. Stockings are not used; and the shoes are commonly of rice straw. The men shave the head from the forehead to the nape, but the hair on the sides is turned up and fastened at the crown of the head: conical hats made of grass are worn on journies, but the fashion of wearing the hair forms the common economical covering of the head; and seems calculated, like the heavy head dress of the ancient Egyptians, to resist the force of too potent a sun.

The Japanese festivals, the games, and theatrical amusements, equal those of most civilized nations. Dancing girls are common, as in other oriental countries; and the introduction of boys indicates an abominable propensity here, as in China, neither reputed a crime nor a singularity.

³ Thunberg, iii. 112.

⁴ Ib. 267.

LANGUAGE. Thunberg has published a curious vocabulary of the Japanese language, which seems indeed to have little connection with the monosyllabic speech of the Chinese. There are also dictionaries drawn up by the Jesuits.

Literature. In the sciences and literature the Japanese yield to few of the oriental nations. This sensible people studies housekeeping, or domestic economy, as an indispensable science; and next to this every Japanese is versed in the history of his country.⁵ Astronomy is cultivated, but has not arrived at much perfection. They survey with tolerable accuracy; and their maps are as exact as their imperfect instruments will permit. The art of printing is ancient, but they use blocks, not moveable types, and only impress one side of the paper. Some of their arts and manufactures even surpass those of Europe. There are excellent workmen in iron and copper; and to no eastern country do they yield in manufactures of silk and cotton; while in varnishing wood they are well known to have no equals. Glass is also common; and they even form telescopes. The porcelain is deemed superior to that of China. Their swords display incomparable skill; and many varieties of paper are prepared from the bark of a species of mulberry tree. The celebrated varnish is from the *rhus vernix*.

Education. There are many schools in which the children are taught to read and write; their education being accomplished without the degradation of personal chastisement, while courage is instilled by the repetition of songs in praise of deceased heroes.

Cities and Towns.
Jedo. The capital city of the Japanese empire is Jedo, centrally situated on a bay in the S. E. side of the chief island Nipon. The houses never exceed two stories, with numerous shops towards the streets. The harbour is so shallow that an European ship would be obliged to anchor at the distance of five leagues. A fire happened in this city in the year 1772, which is said to have consumed six leagues in length and three in breadth: and earthquakes are here familiar as in other regions of Japan. The emperor's palace is surrounded with stone walls, and ditches with draw-bridges; forming of itself a considerable town, said to be five leagues in circumference.⁶ In this, and similar instances of oriental

⁵ Thunberg, iv. 54.

⁶ Ib. iii. 189.

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population and extent, though the best authorities be followed, yet the reader may, with the author, suspend his belief. The Japanese affirm that Jedo would occupy a person twenty-one hours to walk around its circumference, which might thus amount to about twenty-one leagues: and that it is seven leagues in length by five in breadth. A large river, not named by Kæmpfer, passes through the capital, and besides the wide ditches of the palace, supplies several canals. There are no walls nor fortifications, which are unknown in Japanese cities: but there are many splendid houses of the numerous princes. As Europeans have here little freedom, the accounts given by Kæmpfer and Thunberg are little satisfactory.

Miaco, the spiritual capital, and second city of the empire, is placed in an inland situation about 160 miles S. W. from Jedo, on a level plain. Yet it is the first commercial city, and is celebrated for the principal manufactures. It is also the seat of the imperial mint: and the Dairi's court being literary, all books are printed here. Kæmpfer informs us that, upon an enumeration taken in 1674, the inhabitants were found to amount to 405,642; of whom were males 182,070; and 223,572 females; without including the numerous attendants of the Dairi. But they are divided according to sex; and the children probably excluded.

Nagasaki being the nearest city to the Dutch factory in the isle of Dezima, has of course attracted the particular attention of our travellers. The harbour is the only one in which foreign ships are permitted to anchor, a privilege now enjoyed only by the Dutch and Chinese. The Portuguese trade raised this place, from a mere village, to its present size and consequence.

The other cities in the Japanese empire may amount to thirty or forty; but, except those on the route from Nagasaki to the capital, few have been explored by European travellers. Ofacca, and Sakai, boast the name of imperial cities.

Of the principal edifices of the Japanese some idea may be formed from the descriptions which our travellers give of the imperial palace, which, like those of the Chinese, consists of many dwellings, occupying an immense space. The salloon of the hundred mats is 600 feet in length

CITIES AND
TOWNS.

Miaco.

Nagasaki.

Edifices.

EDIFICES. length by 300 in breadth. There is a high square tower, (a mark of dignity not permitted here to the grandees, though what at their own courts,) which consists of several stages richly decorated; and most of the roofs are ornamented with golden dragons. The pillars and ceilings are of cedar, camphor, and other precious woods; but the only furniture consists of white mats, fringed with gold. The emperor gives audience in a smaller chamber, where he is seated on carpets.

Roads. The roads seem to be maintained in excellent order; but the mountainous nature of the country has prevented the formation of canals, which indeed the universal proximity of the sea renders almost unnecessary; otherwise so sensible and industrious a nation would doubtless have imitated the Chinese example.

Inland Navigation.

Manufactures and Commerce. The chief manufactures of Japan have been already mentioned in the account of arts and sciences. The inland commerce is very considerable, being free and exempted from imposts.* The harbours are crowded with large and small vessels; the high roads with various goods; and the shops well replenished. Large fairs are also held in different places, to which there is a great concourse of people. The trade with China is the most important, consisting of raw silk, sugar, turpentine, drugs, &c. while the exports are copper in bars, lackered ware, &c. Thunberg represents the profits of the Dutch trade as very inconsiderable, so that the Company only employed two ships. The Japanese coins are of a remarkable form, the gold being called Kobangs. The silver, called Kodama, sometimes represents Daikok, the god of riches, sitting upon two barrels of rice, with a hammer in his right hand, and a sack at his left. The Seni, of copper or iron, are strung like the Chinese pieces of a similar value.

* Thunberg, iv, 106.

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VOL. II.

CHAPTER IV.

NATURAL GEOGRAPHY.

Climate and Seasons.—Face of the Country.—Soil and Agriculture.—Rivers.—Lakes.—Mountains.—Volcanoes.—Forests.—Botany.—Zoology.—Mineralogy.—Isles.

THE heat of summer is in Japan extremely violent, and would even be insupportable, were not the air cooled by the sea breezes. Equally severe is the cold in winter, when the wind blows from the north, or north east, and seems to be impregnated with particles of ice from the Arctic ocean. The weather is changeable throughout the year; and there are abundant falls of rain, especially in the satfaki, or rainy months, which begin at Midsummer. This copious moisture is the chief cause of the fertility of Japan, and its consequent high degree of population.

CLIMATE
AND SEA-
SONS.

Thunder is not unfrequent; and tempests, hurricanes, and earthquakes are very common. Thunberg has published his thermometrical observations, from which a clear idea may be formed of the climate. The greatest degree of heat, at Nagasaki, was 98° in the month of August; and the severest cold in January 35°. The thunder in the summer months is generally during the night; and the snow will remain on the ground some days even in the south.

Though there be plains of considerable extent, as appears from the description of Miaco, yet Thunberg assures us that the whole country consists of mountains, hills, and valleys, the coast being mostly rocky and precipitous, and invested with a turbulent sea. The face of the country is also diversified with many rivers, and rivulets, by numerous singular tribes of vegetation; and generally excites the social ideas of

Face of the
Country.

! Thunberg, iii. 234.

FACE OF THE
COUNTRY.
Soil and
Agriculture.

industry, more calculated perhaps to delight the heart than the wild appearances of deserted nature. The soil in itself may be said to be rather barren; but the prolific showers conspire with labour and manure to overcome even this obstacle. Thunberg² has presented us with some curious details concerning Japanese agriculture, a science in the highest estimation with this sensible people, so that except the most barren, and untractable mountains, the earth is universally cultivated; and even most of the mountains and hills. Free from all feudal and ecclesiastical impediments, and highly respected by the other social classes, the farmer cultivates the soil with freedom and industry. There are no commons; and if any portion be left uncultivated it may be seized by a more industrious neighbour. But when Thunberg praises the want of meadows, he seems to err against European rules, which consider cattle as necessary for manure. The Japanese mode is to form a mixture of excrements of all kinds, with kitchen refuse, which is carried in pails into the field, and poured with a ladle upon the plants, when they have attained the height of about six inches, so that they instantly receive the whole benefit. The weeding is also carried to the utmost degree of nicety.

The sides of the hills are cultivated by means of stone walls, supporting level plats sown with rice or esculent roots.³ "Thousands of these beds adorn most of their mountains, and give them an appearance which excites the greatest astonishment in the breasts of the spectators." When we consider that the climate of Japan is exposed to heavy rains, we are the more led to blame the want of industry in the Highlands of Scotland, and some other mountainous districts of Europe. Rice is the chief grain; buck wheat, rye, barley, and wheat being little used. A kind of potatoe* is abundant; with several sorts of beans and peas, turnips, and cabbages, &c. The rice is sown in April, and gathered in November: in which last month wheat is sown, and reaped in June. The barley also stands the winter. From the seed of a kind of cabbage lamp oil is expressed; and several plants are cultivated for

² Thunberg, iv. 80.

³ Ib. 83.

* It is the Batatas (*convolvulus edulis*) in the time of Queen Elizabeth imported from Spain to England; and often confounded with the potatoe, (*solanum tuberosum*) which is rare in Japan.

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dying; with the cotton shrubs, and mulberry trees, which last feed abundance of silk worms. The varnish and camphor trees, the vine, the cedar, the tea tree, and the bamboo reed, not only grow wild, but are planted for numerous uses. SOIL AND AGRICULTURE.

The rivers of Nipon have not been delineated with much care. Rivers. Among the few named are the Nogasa, and the Jedogawa, which passes by Osaka, where it is crowned with several bridges of cedar, from 300 to 360 feet in length. The river Ojingawa* is one of the largest and most dangerous in the country, though not subject, like the others, to swell during rains. Fusigawa is also a large and rapid river; as is that called Sakgawa. The largest river seems to be the Jodo, or perhaps in the German pronunciation Yodo, which flows S. W. from the central lake of Oitz; but our geography of the Japanese empire is far from being complete. Among the most important rivers Kämpfer names the Ujin (the Ojin of Thunberg;) the Oomi reported by the Japanese history to have burst from the ground in one night; and the Aska.⁴

One of the chief lakes seems to be that of Oitz, which emits two rivers, one towards Miaco, the other towards Osaka; and it is said to be 50 Japanese leagues in length, each about an hour's journey on horseback: but the breadth is inconsiderable. Lakes.

The principal Japanese mountain is that of Fusi, covered with snow almost throughout the year. The Fakonie mountains are in the same quarter, surrounding a small lake of the same name.⁵ Many of the mountains are overgrown with wood; and others cultivated as before explained. There are several volcanoes; and in general they abound with evergreen trees and crystalline springs. Mountains.

Near Firando there is a volcanic island, nor are others unknown in the surrounding seas.⁶ In the province of Figo there is a volcano which constantly emits flames; and another, formerly a coal mine, in the province of Tikuser. The course and extent of the various ranges of mountains have not been indicated. Volcanoes.

* The word *Gawa*, or *Gawa*, seems to imply a river, in which case the repetition is absurd, though often used in the geography of countries little known.

⁴ Thunberg, i. 163.

⁵ Ib. iii. 164.

⁶ Kämpfer, i. 166.

VOLCANOES.
Jefan.

Near the lake of Oitz is the delightful mountain of Jefan; which is esteemed sacred, and is said to present not less than 3000 temples.⁷

Forests.

In the high state of cultivation few forests can appear; except those already mentioned as decorating the sides of mountains.

Botany.

The vegetable treasures of Japan are numerous, and have been ably explored by Kämpfer* and Thunberg:† on account however of the enormous population of the country, and the absolute necessity of paying the utmost attention to the introduction of whatever may contribute to human sustenance, it is not easy to ascertain how far several of the esculent plants cultivated here are truly indigenous. There are many points of resemblance between the floras of China and Japan, and this similarity has probably been strengthened by a mutual interchange of useful vegetables; if indeed both countries have not rather derived some of their most valuable plants from Cochin-China, or the Philippine islands: the ginger, the soy bean, black pepper, sugar, cotton, and indigo, though perhaps natives of the more southern regions of Asia, are cultivated here with great success and in vast abundance. The Indian laurel and the camphor tree are found in the high central parts of Japan, as is also the rhus vernix, from the bark of which exudes a gum resin that is supposed to be the basis of the exquisitely beautiful and inimitable black varnish, with which the inlaid cabinets and other articles of Indian luxury are covered. Besides the common sweet, or China orange, another species, the citrus japonica, is found wild, and almost peculiar to this country: two kinds of mulberry are met with both in an indigenous and cultivated state, the one valuable, as the favourite food of the silk worm, the other esteemed for the white fibres of its inner bark, which are manufactured into paper. The larch, the cyprus, and weeping willow, found in all the warm regions between Japan and the Mediterranean, here arrive at the extremity of their boundary to the east: the same may be said of the opium poppy, white lily, and jalap (*mirabilis jalapa*). Among the species peculiar to Japan may be mentioned *aletris japonica*, a stately bulbous rooted plant,

⁷ Kämpfer, iii. 23.

* *Amnirates exotice.*

† *Flora Japonica.*
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camellia japonica, and volkameria japonica. The trumpet-flower (big-^{BOTANY.} nonia catalpa) is common to this part of Asia and Peru; in which circumstance it resembles the epidendrum vanilla, whose berries form an article of commerce, being largely used in the preparation of chocolate. The mimosa arborea, and tallow tree, the plantain, the cocoa nut tree, and two other palms, the chamærops excelsa and cycas circinalis, adorn the woodland tracts, especially near the sea shore, by the variety of their growth and foliage, while the uncultivated swamps by the sides of the rivers are rendered subservient to the uses of the inhabitants by the profusion and magnitude of the bamboos, with which they are covered.

It is not a little remarkable that neither sheep, nor goats are found in^{Zoology.} the whole empire of Japan; the latter being deemed mischievous to cultivation; while the abundance of cotton and silk recompense the want of wool. Swine are also deemed pernicious to agriculture; and only a few appear in the neighbourhood of Nagasaki, probably introduced by the Chinese.* There are in general but few quadrupeds; the number of horses in the empire being computed by Thunberg as equal to those of a single Swedish town. Still fewer cattle are seen; and the Japanese neither use their flesh nor their milk, but employ them only in ploughing, or drawing carts. The food consists almost entirely of fish and fowl, with vegetables. Hens and common ducks are domesticated, chiefly on account of their eggs. A few dogs are kept from motives of superstition; and the cats are favourites of the ladies.

The wolf appears in the northern provinces, and foxes in other parts; these last being universally detested, and considered as demons incarnate. The curious reader will find a tolerably ample account in Thunberg's work of the natural history of this singular country; from which shall be extracted the following idea of its mineralogy.

* "That the precious metals, gold and silver, are to be found in^{Mineralogy.} abundance in the empire of Japan has been well known, both to the Portuguese, who formerly exported whole ship loads of them, and to

* Thunberg, iv. 95.

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MINERALOGY.

the Dutch in former times. Gold is found in several parts; and perhaps Japan may in this respect contest the palm with the richest country in the world: but in order that this metal may not lose its value, by becoming too plentiful, it is prohibited to dig more than a certain stated quantity; not to mention that no metallic mine, of any kind whatever, can be opened and wrought without the emperor's express permission. When this permission is obtained two thirds of the produce are the portion of the emperor, and the proprietor of the land receives one third for his expences. Gold is found in small quantities in the sand; but the chief part is extracted from cupreous pyrites, dissolved by brimstone. The finest gold, together with the richest gold mine, I was told, are found on the largest of the Nipon islands near Sado. The next in quality to this is that which is found in Surunga. Besides these places, it is known for a certainty that several rich gold mines are to be found in Satsuma; as likewise in Tsikungo; and in the island of Amakusa. It is used for the mint, gilding, and embroidery; but is not carried out of the country.

"Silver must formerly have been found in much greater plenty than at present, as a large quantity of it was then exported from this country. The Japanese consider it as being more rare than gold, although the latter metal is dearer. They now likewise received in barter a considerable sum of Dutch ducatoons from the Dutch company. It is said to be found in the province of Bingo; and in the more northerly parts towards Kattami, as I was informed, very rich silver mines are to be met with. Independently of these places the two islands which are called the Gold and Silver Isles, (*Ginsima, Kinsima*,) are said to contain a great quantity of both of these precious metals. Silver is used for coining and for plating.

"Copper is quite common in every part of the empire, and is richly impregnated with gold, constituting the main source of the wealth of many provinces. It was not only formerly exported in amazing quantities, but still continues to be exported both by the Dutch and Chinese merchants. The finest and most malleable is dug in Suruga,

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Atsingo, Knyo, Kuni. The last sort is esteemed to be the most malleable of any; whilst that from Suruga contains the greatest quantity of gold. A great number of copper mines are to be found in Satsuma, and at other places. Of this metal are made small pieces of money for change; it is used likewise for plating, for making utensils of Sowas, for pots, kettles, &c.

"Iron seems to be scarcer than any other metal in this country. It is found however in the provinces of Mimafaka, Bitsju, and Bisen. This they are neither fond of importing, nor yet of exporting it for sale. Of it they manufacture scymitars, arms, scissars, knives, and various other implements of which they stand in need.

"Of amber I had a present made me by my friends: they call it Nambu. It was of a dark, as well as of a light yellow colour, and likewise streaky. I was told also that it is found in this country.

"Brimstone is found in great abundance in Japan, especially upon a certain island near Satsuma. Pit-coal, I was informed, is likewise to be met with in the northern provinces. Red agate with white veins I saw several times made use of for the buttons, &c. of tobacco pouches, and medicine chests; which agate was most frequently cut in the shape of a butterfly, or some other animal."

It may be added from Kämpfer that brass is very rare, the calamine being brought from Tunquin; and beautiful tin is found in the province of Bungo, though perhaps this may be the white copper of the Chinese. Amber grease is now discharged from the list of mineral productions, but a reddish naphtha is sometimes found, and used in lamps. Neither antimony nor quicksilver have been discovered in Japan.

Thunberg also enumerates asbestos, porcelain clay, beautiful flesh-coloured steatite, pumice, and white marble."

There are several warm mineral waters, which the inhabitants use for various diseases; particularly those of Obamma, and those in the mountain of Omfen." The natural curiosities of Japan have been little in-

* Thunberg, iv. 102.

" lb. iii. 203.

" Kämpfer, i. 167.

vestigated

MINERALOGY. vestigated, as Europeans have seldom visited the interior of the country.

Isles. There are many small isles dependent on Japan, particularly in the S. and E. ; among which is Fatfiso, the place of exile for the grandees. This, and the other little isles, are scarcely known except by name.

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VOL.

THE BIRMAN EMPIRE.

COMPRIZING THE KINGDOMS OF AVA AND PEGU.

CHAPTER I.

HISTORICAL GEOGRAPHY.

*Name.—Extent.—Boundaries.—Original Inhabitants.—Progressive Geography.—
Modern History.*

BEFORE the appearance of a recent interesting publication¹ little was known concerning this new empire; and geographers were constrained to detail the old accounts, which are little satisfactory. The Birman empire derives its name from the Birmahs, who have been long known as a warlike nation in the region formerly styled INDIA BEYOND THE GANGES; the capital city of their kingdom being Ava, or Awa. Pegu is by the natives styled Bagoo;² being the country situated to the south of the former, and justly inferred to have been the Golden Chersonese of the ancients.

It is difficult to ascertain with precision the boundaries of the Birman empire. Mr. Symes informs us that "it appears to include the space

¹ Symes's Account of the embassy to Ava.

² Ib. i. 6. 8vo. edit.

EXTENT
AND BOUNDARIES.

between the 9th and 26th degree of north latitude; and between the 92d and 107th degrees of longitude east of Greenwich; about 1050 geographical miles in length and 600 in breadth: these are the ascertainable limits, taken from the Birman accounts; but it is probable that their dominions stretch still further to the north. It should however be remarked that the breadth often varies; and is in many places very inconsiderable on what is called the eastern Peninsula."³

The geography of what is called India beyond the Ganges, a vague name for the wide and various regions between Hindostan and China, is still defective. To the north the Birman empire is divided by mountains from Asam, a country little visited or known; and further to the east it borders on Tibet and China. On the west a range of mountains, and the little river Naaf, divide the Birman possessions from the British dominions in Bengal; and the limit is continued by the sea. But the southern and eastern boundaries remain rather obscure. If extended to the 9th degree of latitude it will include a considerable portion of the grand Malaian peninsula to the vicinity of Bangri, or in other words the province of Tanaserim and city of Merghi, formerly regarded as part of Siam. The eastern boundary is yet more vague: if extended to the 107th degree of longitude, it might be said to include almost the whole of what is called India beyond the Ganges, as far as the mouths of the Japanese river in Cambodia; yet there seems no express evidence that Siam is regarded as a portion of the Birman empire; and if it were it would only extend to 103 degrees. Amidst this uncertainty it must suffice to observe that the Birman empire constitutes the fifth grand native power in Asia, since Hindostan and Persia have been divided, and may probably extend its authority over Laos and Cambodia, while it remains divided, by deserts and ranges of lofty mountains, from the united kingdoms of Cochin-China and Tunquin.

Original
Population.

The original population of this region has been little illustrated. The alphabet, literature, and religion, are derived from those of the Hindoos; but the language, the grand criterion of national origins, has not been regularly collated with those of the adjacent countries.*

³ Symes's Account of the embassy to Ava, ii. 311.

* See vol. vi. of the Asiatic Researches.

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The progressive geography of this territory becomes not a little interesting, as it has lately been shewn by M. Goffelin to constitute the utmost boundary of ancient knowledge in this quarter of the globe.* He observes that what chiefly characterizes the Golden Chersonese of Ptolemy is the mouth of a large river, which there divides itself into three branches before it join the sea. These channels appeared so considerable that each of them bore the name of a river, the Chrysoana, the Palandas, and the Attabas. It must be remarked that Ptolemy gives no name to this river above its division; and that he does not indicate its source as he does that of the others. It also appears that he knew nothing of the interior of this country, since he does not determine the position of any place. It was inhabited by a nation of robbers, whence the passage through it was shunned, and the Indians, whom commerce led to the country of the Sinæ, followed a route to the north of this region. The other arguments of M. Goffelin, being founded on minute circumstances, shall be passed in silence; but upon comparing Ptolemy's map with that of the country, there seems no manner of doubt that the Golden Chersonese is the southern part of the kingdom of Pegu, which may be considered as insulated by rivers. In the southern part of the Malaian peninsula, which has hitherto been regarded as the Golden Chersonese, the river Johr is so small a stream, that it could never have supplied the three important mouths noted by Ptolemy; and his delineation of the country of the Sinæ, stretching along a *western* sea, palpably corresponds with Tanaferim, while D'Anville's map so much contradicts that of Ptolemy, as to place the sea on the *east* of the Sinæ, and proceeding to the *northward*, instead of the *southward*. In short there is no doubt that though our ingenious French geographer in a subsequent work too much limited the ancient knowledge of Africa,* yet in describing its Asiatic limits his proofs almost amount to mathematical demonstration. Additional advantages might indeed have been derived from that truly eminent geographer Mr. Dalrymple's map of India beyond the Ganges, of which a sketch is pub-

PROGRESSIVE GEOGRAPHY.

* Geograph. des Grecs Analyf. 139.

• Recherches sur la Geographie des Anciens, 2 vols. 4to. The volumes relative to the ancient knowledge of Europe, if they have appeared, have not yet reached England.

PROGRESSIVE GEOGRAPHY.

lished in Colonel Symes's work, and from the additional labours of Mr. Arrowsmith which give a different aspect to the rivers in this quarter, from what they bore in maps in 1790, when Gosselin published his Analysis of Greek Geography. As the river Berhampoota was totally unknown to Ptolemy, his ignorance of the northern part of Bengal may easily be conceived by the omission of that important and striking feature. The rivers he lays down between the mouths of the Ganges, and the Delta of the Golden Chersonese, amount to five; of which three appear in our maps, but we are ignorant of the southern part of Aracan, which probably contains the two others. The three chief mouths of the Irrawaddy, in Mr. Dalrymple's map, faithfully correspond, even in the form and manner of division, with those in the Golden Chersonese of Ptolemy; and the bay to the south of Dalla seems the Perimulicus Sinus of the Greek geographer, the small river to the east of which is that of Sirian, or Pegu. It will follow that the large river Daona is that of Sltang; and the other six rivers, great and small, might be equally indicated down to the Coteiris of Ptolemy, that of Tanaferim in modern maps, which flowed to the south of the Sinæ. It is also evident that the ancient geographer knew nothing of the straits of Malacca, nor of the northern part of the great island of Sumatra; which must both have been well known, if the Malaian peninsula had been the Golden Chersonese of the ancients.

The isle of Ibadium M. Gosselin supposes to be that called Dommel in modern maps; but by D'Anville, in the Portuguese form, *Ilha do Mel*.

A curious question remains, whether the people to the south of Martaban, along the shore towards Merghi, be noted in Hindoo tradition for such advantages as distinguished the Sinæ of antiquity; while the city of Tanaferim (a word which means the tribe of Tana) corresponded with Thinaæ. The violence of oriental revolutions will speedily ruin even the remains of former opulence, as is exemplified in the present state of Pegu; but as even when D'Anville published his map of Asia this country was called Lower Siam, it must have partaken in the advantages of that ancient and civilized kingdom, the inhabitants of which are justly concluded to have been the Sinæ of antiquity.

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After this long discussion it may seem unnecessary to dwell on any faint and dubious hints to be found in Marco Polo, and other writers of the middle ages. The first precise ideas concerning this part of the globe were derived from the discoveries of the Portuguese, but the geography remains so imperfect that even D'Anville has erred in the delineation; and Mr. Symes's work leaves room for many illustrations and improvements, when future travellers shall investigate with care the countries beyond the Ganges.*

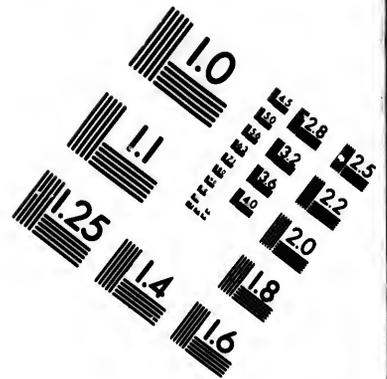
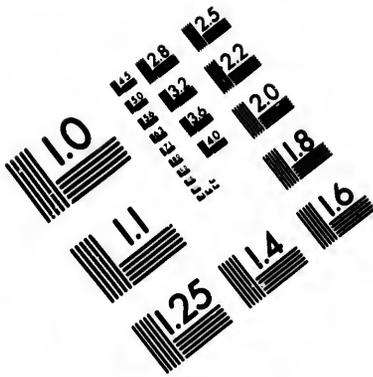
The history of the Birman empire is detailed at some length in the introductory part of the recent publication; and as it displays the origin of a new and great Asiatic power it may be interesting to present an abstract. Colonel Symes justly observes that little was known concerning these countries, till the Portuguese made themselves masters of Malacca early in the sixteenth century, and were afterwards succeeded by the Dutch, who became masters of the whole peninsula, and had a factory even at Ligor, which properly belonged to Siam. The Portuguese historians are prone to exaggeration, and their accounts have little claim to precision, while the Dutch are commonly dull and unscientific. From such sources however flowed the first knowledge of these countries, of Aracan, extending southward to cape Negrais, and of Ava, the ancient capital of the Birmans, while their country at large is called Miama, being divided from the former by a ridge of lofty mountains, called Anoupec-tou-miou, or the great western hilly country. Pegu, or Bagoo extended as far as Martaban, the city of Prome being its northern limit; while Siam adjoined on the east, extending south to Junkfeilon a considerable isle, the Siamese calling themselves Tai, while their capital was Yoodia.† From the Portuguese accounts it appears that the Birmans, a brave and warlike race, formerly subject to the king of Pegu, became afterwards masters of Ava, and caused a revolution in the former country about the middle of the sixteenth century, when they took Martaban, a subject of the extrava-

* The French intercourse with Siam, towards the end of the seventeenth century, occasioned many descriptions of that kingdom; but the accounts of Ava and Pegu are rare. There is one of Tanquin and Laos, translated from the Italian of Marini, Paris 1661, 4to.

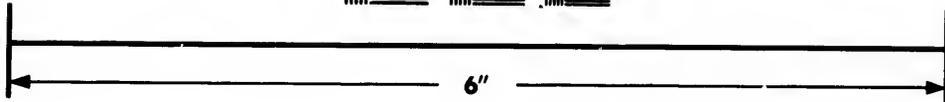
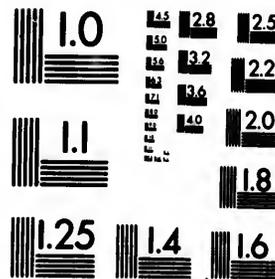
† Also called Siam. As the *j* is in many countries pronounced *y*, (the real Oriental form) this name became the *Juthea* of travellers.

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gant fables of the notorious Mendez de Pinto, the soverign of hyperbolic voyagers. The Portuguese continued to influence these countries till they were expelled by the Dutch, who obtained settlements in various parts of the Birman territory; while the English had factories at Sirian, and even at Ava.

The Birmans continued to exercise their supremacy over Pegu till about the year 1740, when a civil war arose, during which the British factory at Sirian was destroyed in 1744. By some European aids the Peguese, in 1750 and 1751, gained several victories over the Birmans; and in 1752 Ava was besieged and taken; the last of a long line of Birman kings being reduced to captivity, but two of his sons escaped to Siam.

When Binga Della, king of Pegu, had completed the conquest of Ava, he returned to his own country, leaving his brother Apporaza to govern the late capital of the Birman king. All wore the aspect of tranquil submission, when there suddenly arose one of those men who are destined, by means almost invisible, to break the strongest rod of power, and to change the fate of empires. Alompra, a Birman of low extraction, was the chief of a small village, and was continued in this petty office by the victors. With one hundred devoted followers he attacked a band of fifty Peguese, whom he put to the sword; and afterwards defeated a small force sent against him; and, about the autumn of 1753, took possession of Ava, while the Peguese government seems to have been lost by mere infatuation. After repeated defeats Binga Della himself advanced against Alompra, and the war was conducted by fleets on the great river Irrawady, as well as by land, that of the Peguese being utterly defeated in close combat by that of the Birmans. Alompra, proceeding in his conquests, founded the town now well known by the name of Rangoon, which signifies "victory achieved;" and soon after chastised the people of Cassay, who had revolted from the Birman authority. In 1756 he blockaded Sirian, which yielded to his arms; and after having deprived the capital of any foreign aid by water, he advanced against the city of Pegu, situated on an extensive plain, and then surrounded with no mean fortifications, while the stupendous pagoda of Shomadoo served as a citadel. This capital was in-

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vested in January 1757, and in about three months became a prey to the Birman. Alompra then proceeded to subdue the countries to the eastward, as far as the Three Pagodas; the ancient boundary between Pegu and Siam. Tavoy has been since added to the Birman possessions in this quarter.

MODERN
HISTORY.

Alompra next determined to chastise the Siamese, for the encouragement they had given to his rebellious subjects, and ordered a fleet to sail to Merghi, a sea port belonging to the Siamese, which was easily taken, and was followed by the conquest of Tanaferim, a large and populous city.

The victor next advanced against the capital of Siam; but two days after the siege had commenced Alompra was seized with a deadly disease, which saved the Siamese from destruction. He died, within two days march of Martaban, about the 15th May, 1760, regretted by his people, who at once venerated him as their deliverer, and as a great and victorious monarch: This founder of the Birman empire had not completed his fiftieth year; his person, strong and well proportioned, exceeded the middle size; and though his features were coarse, his complexion dark, and his countenance saturnine, there was a dignity in his deportment that became his high station, and which, like that of Oliver Cromwell, seems to spring from conscious power.

He was succeeded by his son Namdogee, who suppressed several insurrections, and died in 1764, leaving an infant son, Momien, whose uncle Shembuen, second son of the great Alompra, assumed the regency and afterwards the diadem.

Shembuen, to divert the national attention, as usual with usurpers, declared war against Siam; and in 1766 two armies entered that country from the N. and S. and, being united, defeated the Siamese about seven days journey from their capital. The Siamese king privately withdrew after a blockade of two months, and the city capitulated; a Siamese governor being appointed who swore allegiance to the Birman sovereignty, and engaged to pay an annual tribute.

The Chinese, apprehensive of the progress of these conquests, advanced an army from the province of Yunan, but were completely defeated by the Birman. Policy spared the captives, who were in-

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invited to marry Birman wives, the Hindoo prejudices being here unknown. Shembuen rebuilt Awa Haung, or ancient Ava, the metropolis of the empire which had fallen to ruin during the late commotions. The Siamese, though vanquished, remained unsubdued; and there is an inveterate enmity betwixt the nations, which will prevent either servitude or alliance.' A Siamese prince assumed the monarchy, and in 1771 defeated the Birmans. Shembuen afterwards turned his arms to the west, and forced the raja of Cachar to pay homage to his power. He died at Ava in 1776, and was succeeded by his son Chenguza, whose tyrannical conduct occasioned a conspiracy, at the head of which was Shembuen Minderagee, the present monarch, younger brother of the deceased Shembuen. Chenguza was slain in 1782.

Soon after Minderagee withdrew the seat of government from Ava, and founded a new city to the N. E. where there is a deep and extensive lake called Touzemaun, formed by the influx of the river, during the monsoon, through a narrow channel, which afterwards expands to a mile and a half broad, by seven or eight miles in length. Between this lake and the river Irrawady stands the new capital Umerapooza, constructed of wood, but which has speedily become one of the most flourishing cities in the east, the situation being more strong than that of Ava.

The southern conquests of the Birmans had already extended as far as Merghi, and the northern provinces, formerly belonging to Siam, had been reduced to subjection and tribute. Minderagee determined to pass the mountains of Anoupec, and subdue Aracan, the raja, or prince being of a supine character, and his subjects unwarlike, though they had never been reduced to pay homage to any foreign power. This conquest was commenced in 1783, and was speedily effected, the booty most highly valued, being an image of Gaudma, the Boodh of the Hindoos, made of burnished brass.

After this conquest the Birman arms were again turned against Siam, and in 1785 a fleet was sent to subdue the isle of Junkfeylon, which carries on considerable trade in ivory and tin, and is the only remaining

‡ Symes, i. 171.

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mart of Siamese trade on this coast. Meeting with a repulse, the Bir-
 man monarch left his capital at the head of 30,000 men, with a train of
 20 field pieces; but was defeated by the king of Siam, who, in his
 turn, failed in an invasion of the viceroyalty of Martaban, which com-
 prehends Tavoy, Merghi, and all the Birman possessions to the south.
 In 1793 a treaty was ratified between the Birmans and Siamese, by
 which the latter ceded the western maritime towns as far S. as Merghi
 inclusive. But with this exception, and that of some northern pro-
 vinces, the Siamese monarchy retains a considerable portion of its an-
 cient fame. Hence it appears that the Birman empire can scarcely be
 computed to extend beyond the 102d degree of longitude, and that
 only in the part to the north of Siam.

MODERN
 HISTORY.

CHAPTER II.

POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY.

*Religion. — Laws. — Government. — Population. — Army. — Navy. — Revenues. —
 Political Importance.*

THE Birmans follow the worship of Hindostan, not as votaries of
 Brahma but as disciples of Boodh, which latter is admitted by
 Hindoos of all descriptions to be the ninth Avatar, or descent of the
 deity, in his capacity of preserver.* He reformed the doctrines con-
 tained in the Vedas, and severely censured the sacrifice of cattle, or even
 the depriving any being of life. By a singular transposition the name
 of Gotma, or Gaudma, who is said to have been a philosopher, about
 500 years before Christ, and taught the religion of Boodh, is generally
 accepted for that of the divinity. This sect is said far to exceed in an-

RELIGION.

* Symes, ii. 313.

RELIGION. tiquity the followers of Brahma, and seems more widely diffused, extending even to China, where Fo is said to be the same with Boodh, who is also credibly supposed to be the Budz or Seaka of the Japanese. But when he is asserted to have been the Woden of the Goths, a striking dissonance appears between the peaceful author of happiness, and the God of War. Even Sir William Jones has not escaped these visionary ideas of antiquaries;* but where the imagination confounds, it is the business of judgment to discriminate. The Birmans of course believe in the transmigration of souls: after which the radically bad will be condemned to lasting punishment, while the good shall enjoy eternal happiness in the mountain Meru. They esteem mercy to be the chief attribute of the divinity.

Laws. The laws of the Birmans are inseparable from their religion. The sacred verses or forgeries of Menu are illustrated by numerous commentaries of the Munis, or old philosophers, and constitute the Dherma Sastre, or body of law. Both the religion and laws proceeded originally from Ceylon, and passed through Aracan to Miama. "The Birman system of jurisprudence is replete with sound morality, and in my opinion is distinguished above any other Hindoo commentary for perspicuity and good sense; it provides specifically for almost every species of crime that can be committed, and adds a copious chapter of precedents and decisions, to guide the inexperienced in cases where there is doubt and difficulty. Trial by ordeal and imprecation are the only absurd passages in the book; but on the subject of women it is to an European offensively indecent; like the immortal Menu it tells the prince and the magistrate their duty, in language austere, manly, and energetic."³

Government. Though the form of government be despotic, yet the king consults a council of ancient nobles. There are no hereditary dignities nor employments; but all honours and offices, on the demise of the possessor, revert to the crown. The *tsaloe*, or chain, is the badge of nobility, the number of strings or divisions denoting the rank of the person; being

* That great man embraced too wide a range for any human mind, and his decisions in Hindoo learning have since often been found rash and erroneous.

³ Symes, ii. 326.

three, six, nine, or twelve, while the king alone wears twenty-four. Rank is also denoted by the form and material of various articles in common use.

GOVERN-
MENT.

The royal establishment is arranged with minute attention. The queens and princes have the title of Praw, which, like the Latin Augustus, implies at once sacred and supreme. The elder son of the monarch is styled Engy Teekien. Next in rank to the princes are the Woongees, or chief ministers of state, (the name implying "bearer of the great burthen,") who are three or four in number, and form the ruling council of the nation, issuing mandates to the Maywoons or viceroys of the several provinces, and in fact governing the empire, under the king's pleasure, whose will is absolute. There are other inferior ministers and secretaries, who have their distinct offices, so that the business of government is conducted with great regularity and precision.

"Of the population of the Birman dominions I could only form a conclusion from the information I received of the number of cities, towns, and villages in the empire; these I was assured by a person who might be supposed to know, and had no motive for deceiving me, amount to 8000, not including the recent addition of Arracan. If this be true, which I have no reason to doubt, and we suppose each town on an average to contain 300 houses, and each house six persons; the result will determine the population at 14,400,000. Few of the inhabitants live in solitary habitations; they mostly form themselves into small societies, and their dwellings, thus collected, compose their Ruas or villages; if therefore we reckon their numbers, including Arracan, at 17,000,000, the calculation may not be widely erroneous; I believe it rather falls short of than exceeds the truth. After all, however, it is mere conjecture, as I have no better data for my guidance than what I have related."

Population.

Every man in the empire is liable to military service, but the regular army is very inconsiderable. During war the viceroys raise one recruit from every two, three, or four houses, which otherwise pay a fine of about 40l. sterling.* The family of the soldier is detained as hostages; and in case of cowardice or desertion suffer death, a truly tyrannic mode

Army and
Navy.

* Symes, ii. 352.

† lb. 358.

ARMY AND
NAVY.

of securing allegiance. The infantry are not regularly clothed, but are armed with muskets and sabres; while the cavalry carry spears, about seven or eight feet in length. The royal magazines are said to contain about 20,000 miserable firelocks. But the war boats form the chief military establishment, consisting of about 500, formed out of the solid trunk of the teak tree,* the length being from 80 to 100 feet, but the breadth seldom exceeding eight. They carry from 50 to 60 rowers, the prow being solid, with a flat surface, on which a piece of ordnance is mounted. Each rower is provided with a sword and lance; and there are 30 soldiers armed with muskets. The attack is impetuous, and chiefly conducted by grappling; but the vessels being low in the water, the greatest danger is that of being run down by a larger boat striking the broadside. Their naval actions thus recall to remembrance those of classical antiquity.

Revenues.

The revenue arises from one tenth of all produce, and of foreign goods imported; but the amount is uncertain. Yet as grants are commonly made in land or offices, and no money leaves the royal treasury except in cases of great emergency, it is supposed that the monarch possesses immense treasures.

Political Im-
portance and
Relations.

The political importance and relations of the Birman empire may considerably influence the commerce of the east, and may be considered as a barrier against the ambition of the Chinese, who might perhaps be induced to extend their possessions in this quarter, and might, in co-operation with the native princes, endanger our possessions in Hindostan. Such is, however, the superiority of European arms, that this event is little to be apprehended. But if the Birmans, as is not improbable, were to extend their authority over the whole of that part called India beyond the Ganges, they might, as being a most brave and determined nation, prove dangerous neighbours to our possessions in Bengal, especially if so far advanced in policy as to co-operate with the western princes of Hindostan. The temporary disgusts therefore between the British and Chinese ought not to induce us to forget

* The teak tree abounds in this empire though rare in Hindostan, and works as easily as the oak, but is said to be more lasting. It must not be confounded with iron wood, which will turn the edge of an axe.

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the greater danger from the Birman, whose empire it cannot be our interest to enlarge, though policy will prevent our offering any open obstruction.

POLITICAL
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CHAPTER III.

CIVIL GEOGRAPHY.

Manners. — Language. — Literature. — Cities. — Edifices. — Manufactures. — Commerce.

THE general disposition of the Birman is strikingly contrasted with that of the Hindoos, from whom they are separated only by a narrow range of mountains, in many places admitting of an easy intercourse. "Notwithstanding the small extent of this barrier, the physical difference between the nations could scarcely be greater, had they been situated at the opposite extremities of the globe. The Birman are a lively inquisitive race, active, irascible, and impatient; the character of their Bengal neighbours is too well known as the reverse to need any delineation; the unworthy passion of jealousy, which prompts most nations of the east to immure their women within the walls of an haram, and surround them with guards, seems to have scarcely any influence over the minds of this extraordinary and more liberal people. Birman wives and daughters are not concealed from the sight of men, and are suffered to have as free intercourse with each other, as the rules of European society admit; but in other respects women have just reason to complain of their treatment; they are considered as not belonging to the same scale of the nation as men, and even the law stamps a degrading distinction between the sexes; the evidence of a woman is not received as of equal weight with that of a man; and a woman is not

Manners and
Customs.

† Symes, ii. 383.

MANNERS
AND
CUSTOMS.

suffered to ascend the steps of a court of justice, but is obliged to deliver her testimony on the outside of the roof. The custom of selling their women to strangers, which has before been adverted to, is confined to the lowest classes of society, and is perhaps oftener the consequence of heavy pecuniary embarrallment, than an act of inclination: it is not however considered as shameful, nor is the female dishonoured, partly perhaps from this cause, and partly from their habits of education, women surrender themselves the victims of this barbarous custom with apparent resignation. It is also said that they are very seldom unfaithful to their foreign masters; indeed they are often essentially useful, particularly to those who trade, by keeping their accounts, and transacting their business; but when a man departs from the country he is not suffered to carry his temporary wife along with him; on that point the law is exceedingly rigorous, every ship, before she receives her clearance, is diligently searched by the officers of the custom-house: even if their vigilance were to be eluded the woman would be quickly missed; and it would be soon discovered in what vessel she had gone, nor could that ship ever return to a Birman port, but under penalty of confiscation of the property, and the infliction of a heavy fine and imprisonment on the master: female children also, born of a Birman mother, are not suffered to be taken away. Men are permitted to emigrate: but they think that the expatriation of women would impoverish the state, by diminishing the sources of its population.”

The women though free are generally too much occupied in the labours of the loom to admit of infidelity, the offspring of idleness. In war the men display the ferocity of savages, while in peace they can boast a considerable degree of gentleness and civilization. The Birman year comprises twelve months of 29 or 30 days alternately, a month being interposed every third year. The subdivision of the month is peculiar, as they number the days not only from the new moon but from the full, which last is called the decreasing moon. They are fond of poetry and music, and among their instruments is the heem, resembling the ancient pipe of Pan, formed of several reeds neatly joined together,

† Symes, ii. 384.

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The alphabet represents 33 simple sounds, and is written from left to right like the European. The Birman books are more neatly executed than those of the Hindoos, and in every *kioul*, or monastery, there is a library or repository of books. Colonel Symes was surprized at the number contained in the royal library, in which the large chests probably amounted to 100.* “The books were regularly classed, and the contents of each chest were written in gold letters on the lid. The librarian opened two, and shewed me some very beautiful writing on their leaves of ivory, the margins of which were ornamented with flowers of gold, neatly executed. I saw also some books written in the ancient Palli, the religious text. Every thing seemed to be arranged with perfect regularity, and I was informed that there were books upon divers subjects; more on divinity than on any other; but history, music, medicine, painting, and romance had their separate treatises. The volumes were disposed under distinct heads, regularly numbered: and if all the other chests were as well filled as those that were submitted to our inspection, it is not improbable that his Birman majesty may possess a more numerous library than any potentate, from the banks of the Danube to the borders of China.”

MANNERS
AND
CUSTOMS.
Language
and Literature.

The study of the laws and national religion must of course constitute a considerable branch of education among the great; that of the poor seems to be utterly neglected.

Ava, the ancient capital, has been permitted to sink into ruin since the recent foundation of Ummerapoorra, on the eastern side of a great river which flows into the Irrawady if, in the imperfect geography of these countrys, we regard the Keen-Duen as the chief stream, a supposition little countenanced by Mr. Wood's map, inserted in Colonel Symes's account, in which the Keen-Duen is a small river flowing into the Irrawady, which last is said to pass by the capital. On the opposite side of the river is Chagaing, once a city of imperial residence, seated partly at the foot and partly on the side of a rugged hill, broken into eminences, each of which is crowned by a spiral temple. Um-

Cities.

* Symes, iii. 93.

† lb. 96.

CITIES.
Ummerapoo-
poora.

merapooora the capital, with its spires, turrets, and lofty piasath, or obelisk, denoting the royal presence, seems to rise like Venice from the waters, being placed between a lake on the S. E. and the large river with numerous isles on the N. W. The lake is called Tounzemahn, from a village on the opposite side ornamented with tall groves of mango, palmyra, and cocoa trees. The number and singularity of the boats that were moored in the lake, and the surrounding amphitheatre of lofty hills, conspired to render the scene grand and interesting. The fort is an exact square, with public granaries and store rooms; and there is a gilded temple at each corner, nearly 100 feet in height, but far inferior to others in the vicinity of the capital. In the centre of this fort stands the royal palace, with a wide court in front, beyond which is the Lotoo, or hall of council, supported by 77 pillars disposed in eleven rows. The extent and population of this city have not been accurately stated, but are probably inconsiderable.

Ava.

Ava, formerly the capital, is also styled Aungwa, but is in a state of ruin. "The walls are now mouldering into decay, ivy clings to the sides, and bushes, suffered to grow at the bottom, undermine the foundation, and have already caused large chasms in the different faces of the fort. The materials of the houses consisting chiefly of wood had, on the first order for removing, been transported to the new city of Ummerapooora: but the ground, unless where it is covered with bushes or rank grass, still retains traces of former buildings and streets. The lines of the royal palace, of the Lotoo, or grand council hall, the apartments of the women, and the spot on which the Piasath, or imperial spire had stood, were pointed out to us by our guide. Clumps of bamboos, a few plantain trees, and tall thorns occupy the greater part of the area of this lately flourishing capital. We observed two dwelling houses of brick and mortar, the roofs of which had fallen in; these our guides said had belonged to Colars, or foreigners; on entering one we found it inhabited only by bats, which flew in our faces, whilst our sense of smelling was offended by their filth, and by the noisome mildew that hung upon the walls. Numerous temples, on which the Birmans never lay sacrilegious hands, were delapidating by time.

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time. It is impossible to draw a more striking picture of desolation and CITIES.
ruin."⁶

Pegu, formerly the capital of a kingdom, is also in ruins; but it ap- Pegu.
pears to have been a quadrangle, each side measuring nearly a mile and
a half. The wall must have been about 30 feet high, and in breadth at
the base not less than 40; but only constructed of bricks, cemented
with clay.⁷ It was razed by Alompra in 1757, the Praws, or temples
being spared; and of these the vast pyramid of Shomadoo has alone
been revered, and kept in repair. The present Birman monarch
has endeavoured to conciliate the Taliens, or native Peguese, by per-
mitting them to rebuild their ancient city, within the site of which
a new town has accordingly been reared; but Rangoon possesses so
many superior advantages that the merchants will scarcely abandon it
for this new foundation. The city occupies about half its former
extent, and is the residence of the Maywoon, or governor of Pegu. It
is decorated with that extraordinary edifice the Shomadoo, seated on
a double terrace, one side of the lower being 1391 feet, of the upper
684. The building is composed of brick and mortar, octagonal at the
base, and spiral at the top, without any cavity or aperture. At the
summit is a Tee, or sacred umbrella, of open iron work gilt, 56 feet in
circumference; the height of the whole being 361 feet, and above the
inner terrace 331 feet. Tradition bears that it was founded about 500
years before Christ. A more complete idea of this very singular edifice
may be obtained from the print published by Colonel Symes, than any
verbal description can convey.

One of the chief ports of the Birman empire is Rangoon, which,
though like the Capital, of recent foundation, is supposed to contain
30,000 souls. Towards the mouth of the river Pegu stands Sirian,
formerly one of the chief ports of that kingdom, and of considerable
commerce when in possession of the Portuguese. It was particularly
celebrated for the export of rubies, and other precious stones, which
seem however to be chiefly found in the northern mountains.

Martaban was another sea port of considerable eminence, till the
harbour was impeded by order of the Birman emperor. Of Tavoy and

⁶ Symes, ii. 270.

⁷ Ib. ii. 51.

CITIES. Merghi little is known; but Tanaferim maintains the dignity of a city.

The grand river of Irrawady is bordered with numerous towns and villages. Pefain, or Bassien, stands on its western branch. At a considerable distance to the north is Prome, celebrated as the scene of many long sieges and bloody conflicts. The number of inhabitants exceeds that of Rangoon. Pagahm is also a considerable place. Nor must Aracan, a recent acquisition, be forgotten, which is divided by several canals derived from a river of the same name.

Towards the Chinese frontier are Quangtung, corresponding in name with the distant province called Canton by Europeans; Bamoo; and in the country of Cassay, Munnipora. Monchaboo is a considerable town to the north of the capital.

Edifices. The most remarkable edifice is the Shomadoo before described. The Kioums are often of singularly rich and fantastic architecture, as may be observed in the delineation given by Colonel Symes; who has also published a view of the grand hall of audience, perhaps as splendid an edifice as can well be executed in wood. His reception at the "golden feet," such is the term used for the imperial presence, was also remarkably grand, the pomp in some degree corresponding with that of the ancient Byzantine emperors.

Inland Navigation. Nature has so amply provided the means of inland navigation by the numerous mouths and streams of the grand river Irrawady, that additional industry seems superfluous.

Manufactures. The Birmans excel in gilding, and several other ornamental manufactures. Their edifices and barges are constructed with singular oriental taste and elegance; and at Chagain is a manufacture of marble divinities, the material being remarkably fine and almost transparent.

Commerce. A considerable trade is carried on between the capital and Yunan, the nearest province of China, consisting chiefly in cotton, with amber, ivory, precious stones, and beetle nut; the returns being raw and wrought silks, velvets, gold leaf, preserves, paper, and some utensils of hard ware. Several thousand boats are annually employed in transporting rice from the lower provinces to supply Ummerapooa, and the northern districts. Salt and gnapee, a kind of fish sauce used with rice,

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are also articles of internal commerce. European broad cloath and hard ware, coarse Bengal mullins, china ware, and glafs, are imported by foreigners. The Birmans, like the Chinefe, have no coin : but filver in bullion, and lead, are current.

CHAPTER IV.

NATURAL GEOGRAPHY.

Climate and Seasons.—Face of the country.—Rivers.—Lakes.—Mountains.—Forests.—Botany.—Zoology.—Mineralogy.—ISLES

CLIMATE
AND
SEASONS.

THE vigorous health of the natives attests the salubrity of the climate, the seasons being regular, and the extremes of heat and cold little known ; for the intense heat which precedes the beginning of the rainy season* is of short duration.

Face of the
Country.

The face of the country affords almost every variety, from the swampy Delta of the Irrawady to pleasant hills and dales, and considerable ranges of mountains. "The soil of the southern provinces of the Birman empire is remarkably fertile, and produces as luxuriant crops of rice as are to be found in the finest parts of Bengal. Farther northward the country becomes irregular and mountainous ; but the plains and valleys, particularly near the river, are exceedingly fruitful ; they yield good wheat, and the various kinds of small grain which grow in Hindoستان ; as likewise legumes and most of the esculent vegetables of India. Sugar canes, tobacco of a superior quality, indigo, cotton, and the different tropical fruits in perfection, are all indigenous products of this favoured land." † Agriculture seems to be pursued with considerable avidity, but the mode has not been particularly illustrated.

Rivers.

The chief river of the Birman empire is the Irrawady, supposed to be the Kenpou of Tibet, which, instead of being the river of Keen Duem, probably passes by Moguang to Bamoo, and thence by Ummerapoora and Prome towards the sea, which it joins by many mouths, after a comparative course of near 1200 British miles. The Keen Duem seems to rise in the mountains towards Afam, being of much inferior size where it joins the Irrawady.

* See Hindoستان.

† Symes, ii. 372.

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The river Sitang is next on the east, after passing the small river RIVERS. of Pegu, but seems to be a kind of remote branch of the Irrawady.

The Thaluan enters the sea near Martaban, being supposed to be the Nou Kiang of Tibet, which may with more probability be the river of Siam. In either case the length of its course exceeds that of the Irrawady, though not being fed by such numerous streams it cannot equal it in size. The river of Siam, or Maygue, also pervades a part of the Birman territory. The geography of all these rivers remains imperfect.

Dr. Buchanan observes in general, on the errors of former geographers, that the river of Arracan is not so considerable as has been supposed, but rises in hills at no great distance to the north, having been confounded with the Keen Duem, or great western branch of the Irrawady; while what is called the western branch of that river is in fact the eastern.² His assertion that the Loukiang or Noukiang of D'Anville is the same with the Thaluan, seems liable to doubt. He adds that the river of Pegu, formerly supposed to come from China, rises among hills about 100 miles from the sea, which form the boundary between the Birman and Pegu kingdoms: that between the rivers of Pegu and Martaban there is a lake from which two rivers proceed, one running N. to old Ava, where it joins a river that flows into the Irrawady, while the other passes S. to the sea, being the Sitang: that the rivers of China, which were supposed to be the sources of that of Pegu, are those of the river of Siam; and that the latter communicates with that of Cambodia by a large branch called the Anan.*

It would appear that there must be numerous lakes in this empire, Lakes. which abounds with mountains; but the imperfect state of its geography has supplied no materials for their description.

It is probable that the highest range of mountains is on the frontiers Mountains. of Tibet. The other ranges are delineated as passing N. and S., but the

² Symes, ii. 413.

* D'Anville, in his map of Aka, has supposed the Sampou, or Berhampooter, to be the same with the river of Ava or the Irrawady. The Nou Kiang he imagines the same with the river of Pegu: while the large river of Siam is supposed to have a comparatively short course. Such are the gross errors of this eminent geographer, whose work Mr. Gibbon pronounces to be perfect, while in fact they only shew the very imperfect state of geography even in his time.

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names are not indicated, except those of Anoupec, between Ava and Arracan, and a small range running E. and W., which supplies the sources of the river of Pegu.

Forests.

The forests are large and numerous, many parts remaining in a state of nature. They supply almost every description of timber that is known in Hindostan; and, about four days journey to the N. of the capital, firs grow in abundance. But the lord of the Birman forest is the teak tree, superior to the European oak, which is there unknown: the teak flourishes in many parts of the empire, to the N. of the capital as well as to the S.

Botany.

All the countries that compose the rich and extensive territory of India beyond the Ganges, including the Birman empire, and the dominions of Pegu, Siam, Cambodia, Cochin-China, and Malacca, bear such a similarity to each other in their vegetable productions as far as they have been investigated, as renders it impossible to give a general and separate view of their respective floras without continual repetitions. Certain districts also in further India have been examined with considerable attention,* while others similarly situated have remained almost wholly overlooked: it is only therefore from analogy (a highly probable one indeed) that we can conjecture the most characteristic species of their indigenous plants. The mountains of the interior, and in general the whole northern frontier, are still totally unexplored, and the deep forests infested with tigers, must ever continue, even in the more accessible parts, to oppose no trifling obstacles to the spirit of scientific adventure.

It is in those parts of the torrid zone that abound with water, and where, from the influence of the monsoons, the country is extensively flooded every year, that vegetation assumes a vigour and sublimity wholly inconceivable by the native of more temperate climates: everlasting verdure, grace, and majesty of form, height and amplitude of growth, are the distinguishing attributes of their trees, compared with which the monarchs of our forests sink into vegetables of an inferior order: the same exuberance of nature is conspicuous in their shrubs and herbaceous plants, in their blossoms and their fruits, whose vivid bril-

* Zoureiro Flora Cochinchinensis. Mem. de l'Acad. des Sciences, 1666.

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liancy of colour, singularity of shape, aromatic fragrance, and exalted ^{BOTANY.} flavour, reduce to relative insignificance the puny produce of European summers.

Here rises in proud magnificence the white sandal tree, whose fragrant wood, mixed with that of the *alœoxylum verum*, also a native of these regions, is in high request through the whole east for the grateful odour of its smoak. The teak tree is at least equal even to British oak as a durable material for shipbuilding: the true jet black ebony wood is the produce of the *ebenoxylum verum*, one of the indigenous trees of Cochin China. The sycamore fig, the Indian fig, and the banyan tree itself a grove, by the breadth of their leaves and the luxuriance of their foliage, afford a most delicious shelter, impenetrable even by the meridian ardour of an Indian sun. Mingled with these, and emulating them in size, are the *bignonia indica*, the *nauclea orientalis*, *corypha scribus*, one of the loftiest of the palm trees, and *excoecaria Cochinchinensis*, remarkable for the crimson under surface of its leaves.

Of the plants that are used in medicine or the arts some of the most important are natives of further India: the nature of this work does not admit of specifying the whole, but those of most consequence are the following. The ginger and cardamom, two pleasant aromatics, are found wild on the river sides, but are also cultivated in great abundance; the turmeric, whose principal use in Europe is as a dying drug, is largely used by the natives of the coast to tinge and flavour their rice and other food: the leaves of the betel pepper, with the fruit of the black and long pepper, and the *sagara piperita*, are the most favourite of their native spices, to which may also be added three or four kinds of capicum. Among the various dying drugs may be distinguished *justicia tinctoria*, yielding a beautiful green tinge; *morinda umbellata*, gamboge and carthamus, all of them yellow dyes, the red wood of the *lawsonia spinosa* and *Cæsalpinia sappan*; and the indigo; the gum resin called dragon's blood appears to be produced by several species of plants, and two of these, the *dracæna ferrea* and *calamus rotang*, are natives of Cochin-China. The bark of the *nerium antidysentericum*, called *codagapala*, and that of the *laurus culilavan*, the fruit of the *strychnos nuxvomica*, the *cassia fistula*, the tamarind, and the *croton tiglium*, the in-

spissated

BOTANY.

spissated juice of the aloe, the resin of the camphor tree, and the oil of the ricinus, are all occasionally imported from this country for the European dispensaries. The cinnamon laurel grows in abundance on each side of the Malayan peninsula, and sometimes, as it is said, accompanied by the nutmeg. The sugar cane, the bamboo, and the spikenard, the three most celebrated plants of the grass tribe, are found throughout the whole country; the two former in rich swamps, and the latter on dry hills. The sweet potatoe, mad-apple and love-apple, gourds, melons, water melons, and a profusion of other esculent plants, enrich this favoured country; all these however require cultivation: but the plantain, the cocoa nut, and sago palm, furnished by the free unstinted bounty of nature, contribute most plentifully to satisfy the wants of the inhabitants. Of native fruits they possess a vast variety and an inexhaustible abundance. The vine grows wild in the forests, but from the excessive heat and want of cultivation its fruit is far inferior to that of the south of Europe: to compensate however for this deficiency, they have the luscious mango, the pine apple, the sapindus edulis (the li-tschi of the Chinese), the mangosteen plum, the averrhoa carambola, the custard apple, the papaw fig, the orange, the lemon and lime, and a multitude of other exquisite fruits, whose very names are scarcely known in Europe. The attempt to give even a very faint idea by words of the infinite multitude of ornamental plants that cover the country would be wholly in vain; a few have been introduced into our hot-houses, where they continue a languid imperfect existence, and of which, faded and sickly as they are, they constitute the chief glory.

Zoology.

The animals in general correspond with those of Hindostan. Elephants principally abound in Pegu. The horses are small, but spirited. The ichneumon, or rat of Pharoah, is rather peculiar. A kind of wild fowl called the henza, and by the Hindoos the braminy goose, has been adopted as the symbol of the empire, like the Roman eagle. The Birman abstain from animal food except game; but there are many bufaloes.

Mineralogy.

The mineralogy of this region, the Golden Chersonese of the ancients, is opulent, and some products rather singular. While Malacca, which has hitherto been supposed the Golden Chersonese, scarcely produces

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duces any mineral except tin, and is in truth a poor country, only celebrated as an emporium of Portuguese trade with China, the rivers of Pegu, on the contrary, still continue to devolve particles of gold; and their sands must in ancient times have been yet more prolific of that precious metal. Nor is it improbable that the practice of gilding the roofs and spires of temples and palaces may ascend to ancient times, as we are told that the Shomadoo was built about 500 years before the Christian era; in which case the splendid appearance might naturally give rise to the classical appellation of the country. Colonel Symes informs us that "gold is discovered in the sandy beds of streams which descend from the mountains. Between the Keen Duem and the Irrawady, to the northward, there is a small river called Sho Lien Kioup, or the Stream of Golden Sand." In many regions gold is found intermingled with silver; and six days' journey from Bamoo (probably towards the north) there are mines of gold and silver at Badouem, near the frontiers of China. By a singular conjunction, there are, according to the same authority, mines of gold, silver, rubies, and sapphires, at present open on a mountain called Wooboloo-taun, near the river Keen Duem.

There is also abundance of inferior minerals, as tin, iron, lead, antimony, arsenic, and sulphur; and amber, a rare and singular product, is not only dug up in large quantities near the river Irrawady, but is uncommonly pure and pellucid.

Diamonds and emeralds are not found in the Birman empire; but it affords amethysts, garnets, very beautiful chrysolites of a greenish yellow; with the inferior products of jasper, loadstone, and marble, the quarries of the latter, which equals the best Carara, being only a few miles from Ummerapoor.

The most singular product of Pegu is the ruby, a stone next to the diamond in value, and which, according to Sheldon, is found in a mountain between Siriam and Pegu, this substance being almost as peculiar as the diamond is to Hindostan. By Colonel Symes's account, rubies and sapphires are also found in the north-western part of the empire; but the most valuable mines are in the vicinity of the capital, or rather

³ Symes, ii. 375.

MINERA-
LOGY.

Isles.

about 30 British miles to the north. The gem called the Siriam garnet, or vulgarly and improperly *Syrian*, is also found only in Pegu.

The Birmans seem to be in possession of several isles in the gulph of Martaban, the Magnus Sinus of antiquity, and of others to the south and west, but too minute to demand description, if there even were sufficient materials.*

* See Forrest's *Voyage from Calcutta to the Archipelago of Mergui*, 4to.

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A R A C A N.

THIS kingdom has been already mentioned in the preceding account of the Birman empire. The materials concerning it are scanty and imperfect, though the extent of coast seems to invite commerce. The air is pure, and contagious disorders unknown. The plains are said to be extremely fertile; and delicious valleys present numerous flocks of cattle, but horses are rare, and the land is laboured by buffalos. The rainy season, improperly called winter, begins in April and ends in October. The other months are dry and afford abundance of vegetables, fruits, and grain; but wheat and rye are unknown.*

The capital gives a great idea of the kingdom, its extent being said to fill several leagues; and oriental exaggeration adds, that the number of inhabitants equals that of the most populous European cities, while the temples are computed at six hundred. The palace of the monarch was of distinguished wealth, and the golden hall was so styled, because it was covered from top to bottom with that precious metal. A hundred ingots of gold, each weighing forty pounds, were suspended from the canopy, which was also of massy gold. Such are the tales of the east, but the judicious reader will think that I am copying Mendez de Pinto, or some other extravagant traveller, and will observe that, when the Birmans conquered this country, in 1783, the richest booty was an idol of brass.

The natives of Aracan are said to be averse to commerce, and to a maritime life; but the Mahometans export elephants to Hindostan and Persia, whence they return linens, silks, and spices. Aracan chiefly

* Turpin, II. 362.

abounds in wood, ivory, lead; and, if we believe our author, likewise in tin.

A large and flat forehead distinguishes the inhabitants of Aracan, but is the work of fashion and caprice, by the application of a leaden plate in early infancy. Their nostrils are large, and their ears said to be even monstrous. Their dress consists in a cotton shirt covering the arms, but on occasions of ceremony they wear long robes. Their hair is woven in tresses, while that of the women is disposed in floating buckles, with all the skill of an European coquette.

Their repasts are not of an enticing kind, consisting of rats, mice, serpents, and other animals little known in European cookery. Fish must be kept a considerable time before it can provoke their palate; and their drink is pure water, or the juice of the palm tree.

Virginity is not a respected virtue, the indolence of the husbands preferring the temporary brides of the foreign seamen. The monarch, shut up in his palace, vegetates in insipid luxury with his queen and concubines. Twelve girls are annually exposed to the sun; and the fine linen which imbibes their perspiration is sent to the monarch, that from the odour he may judge of the fairest. It is even said that, as in some countries in Africa, the royal guard is composed of armed concubines.

Medicine is only practised by the priests called Raulins, who breathe upon the sick, pronounce mysterious words, and offer sacrifices.

The dead bodies of the great are committed to a funeral pile, but those of the poor are thrown into the rivers, as our author asserts, though the practice be contradictory to that of all other nations. He adds, however, that the bodies are sometimes exposed to the birds of prey, a well-known custom of the Persees. It is esteemed an act of piety to hasten the fatal termination of a lingering disease.

Their temples are said to resemble pyramids; and they have domestic gods, whose image they sometimes impress on their arm with heated iron. There are processions of idols, as in Hindostan, when many voluntary victims are crushed by the wheels of the car.

There are three orders of priests; and their chief, who resides in the isle of Munay, has great authority, the king, though despotic, being

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uncovered in his presence, and yielding the precedence in ceremonies. All the priests live in perpetual celibacy, and the violation of this purity implies instant degradation. Some of these religious men live like hermits, amidst rocks, dark forests, and deserts; while others inhabit palaces at the royal expence.

Among other small kingdoms in the vicinity of the Birman empire, may be mentioned Jangoma, or perhaps Yangoma, on the north of Siam. The extent is said to be various, at short epochs, the revolutions being frequent. This country, according to the Siamese reports, is governed by priests. The inhabitants are said to be tall and well proportioned, their sole garment in this hot climate being a cinclure of linen. The women are famed in the east for their gallantry and beauty, in which last quality they surpass those of Pegu; and voluptuous monarchs think their harem enriched and adorned by a concubine from Jangoma. The common food is rice, and the country is also said to abound in musk, pepper, silk, gold, silver, copper, and gum-benjamin. But it is sufficient to mention this country, only known by such doubtful relations.

Between Aracan and our possessions, in Bengal is the small and mountainous country of Tibra, which is said to be only remarkable for a mine of gold. Secure in their mountains, the people are happy, because they are unknown.

MALAYA OR MALACCA.

*Progressive Geography.—Name and Extent.—Language.—Divisions.—Products.
City of Malacca.—General Remarks on the Malays.—History of Malacca.—
Isles of Andaman and Nicobar.*

HAVING thus finished the description of the chief native empires of Asia, a foreign power, that of the English in Hindostan, will naturally attract the next attention, as perhaps not unequal in real and effective force even to the greatest of these empires. While the English colonies in America claim a decided preponderance over any power on that continent, it is not a little surprizing to behold the natives of a remote European isle exercising such sway in Asia, and influencing the councils of the most remote potentates. The colony established in New Holland is also a striking and singular feature in human history; and will probably secure lasting ascendancy in a region before unknown. Were Egypt to yield to the British arms, it might be asserted that the English name is pre-eminent in every quarter of the globe.* Such are the fruits of national freedom, the parent of industry and enterprize.

But as the British empire in Hindostan only embraces a comparatively small part of that extensive region, indissolubly connected with the others by identity of population, manners, and laws, it seems preferable to follow a plan merely geographical in describing the remaining states of Asia; and after completing the account of those beyond the Ganges, to proceed to Hindostan, Persia, and Arabia.

* This event has since happened, but Egypt is resigned to Turkish barbarism.

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In the same view of geographical connection, where the political weight of the state deserves little consideration, either from power or durability, it will be proper, after the preceding description of the Birman territories, to subjoin some account of that peninsula appended to them on the south, and styled *Malaya or Malacca*.

This Chersonese was certainly unknown to the ancients, and seems to have escaped the knowledge of Marco Polo, though the isle of Sumatra appears to have been known to him by the name of Java Minor, if this be not his Maletur, where he says there was abundance of spices, and the natives had a proper and peculiar speech.*

Progressive
Geography.

However this be, the Portuguese are regarded as the first discoverers of Malacca, to which they were led by the vain idea of finding the golden Chersonese of the ancients. When Sequeira reached this peninsula in 1509, he found it subject to Mahmud, a Mahometan prince; while the capital, Malacca, had acquired some consideration from its favourable position, as a mart of trade between China and Hindostan. In 1511 the Portuguese conquered the peninsula.

The name is derived from the Malays, who are mostly Mahometans, and in some degree civilized; but the inland parts seem to be possessed by a more rude native race, little known amidst the imperfection of materials concerning this country, neither the Portuguese nor Dutch being eminent in scientific precision. The norther limits are not strictly defined; but Malacca is about 80°, or near 560 British miles in length, by about 150 miles of medial breadth, a territory sufficiently ample for a powerful monarchy, had its native productions corresponded with its extent.

Name.

Extent.

As the Malays have established several governments in Sumatra, the best ideas concerning them may be derived from Mr. Marsden's history of that isle. Their language has been called the Italian of the east, from the melody of frequent vowels and liquids; and the above intelligent traveller has produced the following specimen:

Language.

* See in the account of the Asiatic islands a note on this subject. Some may imagine that his Boeac or Loeach is perhaps *Loeak* or *Camboja* (D'Anville's Asia). But it seems more probable that *Boeac* is the northern part of Malacca, and *Maletur* the southern; for his *Garbinus* is the S. W. point, and *Scirocus* the S. E.

Apu

LANGUAGE.

*Apo goono passung palecto**Callo teedab dangan soomboonia ?**Apo goono bermine matto**Callo teedab dangan soongoonia ?*

What signifies attempting to light a lamp
If the wick be wanting ?

What signifies making love with the eyes,
If nothing in earnest be intended ?

The Malays use the Arabic character ; and an influx of words of that language has followed the adoption of the Mahometan religion.* They write on paper, using ink of their own composition, and pens made of the twigs of a tree. The purest Malay is still supposed to be spoken in the peninsula, and has no inflexion of nouns or verbs.

Divisions.

Though the manners and customs of the Malays be deeply tinged with those common to other Mahometans, yet in the inland parts of the country the people remain nearly in a savage state, and do not partake of the civilization of the adjacent kingdoms of Pegu and Siam. In the last century Mandello, or rather Olearius, who published his voyage, describes Malacca as divided into two kingdoms, that of Patani in the north, and that of Johor in the south.† The town of Patani was inhabited by Malays and Siamese ; and the people were Mahometans tributary to Siam. The town is built of reeds and wood, but the most of brick ; and the commerce was conducted by the Chinese and the Portuguese settlers, the native Malays being chiefly employed in fishing and agriculture. According to this traveller there are continual rains with a N. E. wind during the months of November, December, and January. Agriculture was conducted with oxen and buffaloes, the chief product being rice. There was abundance of game and fruits, and the forests swarmed with monkeys, tigers, wild boars, and wild elephants. From the kingdom of Patani the Portuguese used yearly to purchase about 1500 cattle for their settlement at Malacca.

Patani.

* Hence Thunberg, ii. 228. has ridiculously supposed the Malay to be a dialect of the Arabic. It is of Sanscrit origin. *As. Res.* iv. 217.

† Vol. i. col. 338. edit. 1727. 2 vols. fol.

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The kingdom of Johor occupied the southern extremity of the DIVISIONS.
 Cherfoneſe, the chief towns being Linga, Bintam, Carimon, and Ba- Johor.
 tuſaber; which laſt was the capital of the kingdom, being ſituated
 about ſix leagues from the ſea on the river Johor, in a marſhy ſitua-
 tion, ſo that the ſmall houſes were obliged to be raiſed about eight feet
 from the ground. All the country belonging to the king, lands were
 aſſigned to any perſon who demanded them, but the Malays were ſo
 indolent that the country was chiefly left to the wild luxuriance of
 nature. Even in the time of this traveller the Malayan language was
 eſteemed the moſt melodious in the eaſt, and as univerſal as the French
 in Europe, a remark which has been recently repeated by Thunberg.

According to the curious deſcription and map of Valentyn* the pe-
 niinſula of Malacca is bounded on the north by the river Rindang which
 runs by Ligore to the eaſt, and by a ſmall range of hills dividing it from
 the Kingdom of Siam, and contains five kingdoms or rather provinces
 receiving their denominations from their reſpective capitals. On the
 eaſtern coaſt are thoſe of Patani and Pahang followed by the moſt ſou-
 thern kingdom of Djohor or Johor. On the weſtern coaſt are thoſe of
 Keidah and Peirah followed by another province called the Malay coaſt
 and of which the capital is Malacca.

The inland part of the Malayan peninſula ſeems to remain full of Products.
 extenſive aboriginal foreſts; nor do the ancient or modern maps indi-
 cate any towns or villages in theſe parts. The indolence of the inha-
 bitants has prevented the country from being explored; but it produces
 pepper, and other ſpices, with ſome precious gums and woods, among
 which perhaps the teak may be found. The chief mineral is
 tin, and the produce of gold ſeems to have been very modern and
 temporary †.

* Col. 342.

• Deſcription of the Dutch Eaſt India provinces, &c. in the Dutch language, published at
 Dort, 1726, 8 Volumes folio, vol. vii.

† Hamilton informs us, p. 73, that Quedah and Perah are rich in tin; and, p. 83, that a high moun-
 tain on the N. E. of Malacca gives ſource to ſeveral rivers that roll gold duſt in ſmall quantities. He
 adds, p. 152, that the river Pahaung, which riſes at a conſiderable diſtance and runs near the town of
 Malacca, contains gold which is moſtly found in the deepeſt parts, lumps about five or ſix ounces in
 weight having been found at the depth of from three to ten fathoms. But theſe are modern diſco-
 veries, and even now the tin and pepper are regarded as the chief products.

PRODUCTS. The form of the Malay government may be conceived from those transplanted to Sumatra, and described by Mr. Marsden.³ The titles of the sultans or rajas are numerous and fantastic. Next in rank are a kind of nobles, who in Sumatra are called Dattoos, to whom the others are vassals.

**Malacca
City.**

The city of Malacca, which seems to have been founded by Mahometans in the thirteenth century, was held by the Portuguese till 1641, when it was seized by the Dutch. It was considered as situated in the southern kingdom of Johor, on the western side of the peninsula; and in the seventeenth century was supposed to contain 12,000 inhabitants, of which however only 3000 dwelled within the walls. Not above 300 were native Portuguese, the others being a mixed race of Mahometan Malays, accounted among the chief merchants of the east. The Portuguese settlement did not extend above five leagues around; yet became highly important from its advantageous position for Indian and Chinese commerce⁴.

The mean and disgraceful jealousy of the Dutch concerning their oriental possessions renders the recent accounts of this city imperfect.

Malays.

In general the Malays are a well made people, though rather below the middle stature, their limbs well shaped, but small, and particularly slender at the wrists and ancles. Their complexion is tawney, their eyes large, their noses seem rather flattened by art than nature; and their hair is very long, black, and shining.

Besides the tiger and elephant, Malacca produces the civet cat described by Sonnerat, who also mentions that wild men are found in this peninsula, perhaps the noted Orang Outangs. Some singular birds are also found; and Malacca likewise produces a most delicious fruit called the mangosten.

In imitation of Mr. Pennant,⁵ this account shall be enriched with a few extracts from M. le Poivre's philosophical voyages, that judicious observer having given a more just idea of the Malays than any other traveller.

³ 267. 283.

⁴ Mandello, i. Col. 337.

⁵ Outlines of the Globe. London, 1800, 4 vol. 4to. iii. 33.

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“ Beyond the kingdom of Siam is the peninsula of Malacca, a coun- MALAYS.
 try formerly well peopled, and consequently well cultivated. This
 nation was once one of the greatest powers, and made a very consider-
 able figure, in the theatre of Asia. The sea was covered with their
 ships, and they carried on a most extensive commerce. Their laws
 however were apparently very different from those which subsist among
 them at present. From time to time they sent out numbers of colo-
 nies, which one after another peopled the islands of Sumatra, Java,
 Borneo, Celebez or Macassar, the Moluccas, the Philippines, and those
 innumerable islands of the Archipelago which bound Asia on the east,
 and which occupy an extent of 700 leagues in longitude from E. to W.
 by about 600 of latitude from N. to S. The inhabitants of all these
 islands, those at least upon the coasts, are the same people. They speak
 almost the same language, have the same laws, the same manners. Is
 it not somewhat singular that this nation, whose possessions are so ex-
 tensive, should scarce be known in Europe? I shall endeavour to give
 you an idea of those laws and those manners; you will from thence
 easily judge of their agriculture.

“ Travellers who make observations on the Malays, are astonished
 to find in the centre of Asia, under the scorching climate of the line, the
 laws, the manners, the customs, and the prejudices, of the ancient inhabi-
 tants of the north of Europe. The Malays are governed by feudal laws,
 that capricious system conceived for the defence of the liberty of a few
 against the tyranny of one, whilst the multitude is subjected to slavery
 and oppression.

“ A chief, who has the title of king or sultan, issues his commands to
 his great vassals, who obey when they think proper; these have inferior
 vassals, who often act in the same manner with regard to them. A small
 part of the nation live independent, under the title of *Orangi* or noble,
 and sell their services to those who pay them best; whilst the body of
 the nation is composed of slaves, and lives in perpetual servitude.

“ With these laws the Malays are restless, fond of navigation, war,
 plunder, emigrations, colonies, desperate enterprises, adventures, and
 gallantry. They talk incessantly of their honour and their bravery, whilst
 they

MALAYS.

they are universally considered by those with whom they have intercourse as the most treacherous ferocious people on the face of the globe; and yet, which appeared to me extremely singular, they speak the softest language of Asia. What the Count de Forbin has said, in his memoirs, of the ferocity of the Macassars, is exactly true, and is the reigning characteristic of the whole Malay nations. More attached to the absurd laws of their pretended honour than to those of justice or humanity, you always observe that amongst them the strong oppress and destroy the weak; their treaties of peace and friendship never subsisting beyond that self-interest which induced them to make them, they are almost always armed, and either at war amongst themselves, or employed in pillaging their neighbours.

“This ferocity which the Malays qualify under the name of courage, is so well known to the European companies who have settlements in the Indies, that they have universally agreed in prohibiting the captains of their ships, who may put into the Malay islands, from taking on board any seamen of that nation, except in the greatest distress, and then on no account to exceed two or three.

“It is nothing uncommon for a handful of these horrid savages suddenly to embark, attack a vessel by surprize, poignard in hand, massacre the people, and make themselves masters of her. Malay barks, with 25 or 30 men, have been known to board European ships of 30 or 40 guns, in order to take possession of them, and murder with their poignards great part of the crew. The Malay history is full of such enterprizes, which mark the desperate ferocity of these barbarians.

“The Malays who are not slaves go always armed; they would think themselves disgraced if they went abroad without their poignards, which they call *Crit*; the industry of this nation even surpasses itself in the fabric of this destructive weapon.

“As their lives are a perpetual round of agitation and tumult they could never endure the long flowing habits which prevail among the other Asiatics. The habits of the Malays are exactly adapted to their shapes, and loaded with a multitude of buttons, which fasten them close to their bodies in every part. I relate these seemingly trifling observations

in order to prove that in climates the most opposite the same laws produce similar manners, customs, and prejudices : their effect is the same too with respect to agriculture. MALAYS.

“ The lands possessed by the Malays are in general of a superior quality ; nature seems to have taken pleasure in there assembling her most favourite productions. They have not only those to be found in the territories of Siam, but a variety of others. The country is covered with odoriferous woods, such as the eagle, or aloes wood, the sandal, and the *Cassia odorata*, a species of cinnamon ; you there breathe an air impregnated with the odours of innumerable flowers of the greatest fragrance, of which there is a perpetual succession the year round, the sweet flavour of which captivates the soul, and inspires the most voluptuous sensations. No traveller wandering over the plains of Malacca but feels himself strongly impelled to wish his residence fixed in a place so luxuriant in allurements, where nature triumphs without the assistance of art. In the midst of all this luxuriance of nature the Malay is miserable ; the culture of the lands, abandoned to slaves, is fallen into contempt. These wretched labourers, dragged incessantly from their rustic employments by their restless masters, who delight in war and maritime enterprizes, have rarely time, and never resolution, to give the necessary attention to the labouring of their grounds ; their lands in general remain uncultivated, and produce no kind of grain for the subsistence of the inhabitants.”

The reader who wishes for more ample information concerning this peninsula may be referred to the voyages of Nieuhof and Hamilton. As the latter asserts that the inland inhabitants, whom he calls the Monocaboes, are a different race from the Malays, and of much lighter complexion, it would seem probable that the Malays passed into this country from the north or south, and there is no small difficulty in accounting for their origin. The language should be skilfully collated with those of the neighbouring countries, and even with the ancient dialects of Hindostan, as perhaps they may be found to be the same with the Pallis, traditionally said to have been the most early inhabitants of that celebrated country.

MALAYS.

All the accounts of Malacca being extremely defective, the author was anxious to remove this reproach from oriental geography. The work of Valentyn, though somewhat ancient, contains the most ample description of this interesting country which has yet appeared; and a translation has been obtained from a Dutch gentleman, of which the most essential parts shall be laid before the reader in their original arrangement.* It is to be regretted that Valentyn's compilation is more replete with civil than with natural history, and that his prolix details concerning Dutch captains, and preachers of the gospel, supplant information that would have been more generally interesting; but these parts are of course omitted or abbreviated.

CHAP. I. *Description of the Town of Malacca.*

The town of Malacca is in $2^{\circ} 20'$ N. lat. and long. from Ferro $122^{\circ} 20'$. It is situated on what is called the Malay coast, about eight leagues from the opposite island of Sumatra. It is built partly upon a hill, partly on level ground, which is low, wet, and unhealthy.

The circumference of the town is about eighteen hundred paces, or a Dutch mile. Towards the sea there is a strong wall, about six hundred paces in length; and another by the side of the river. On the N. E. there is a bastion called that of St. Domingo, and there was formerly a redoubt called St. Iago. These and the other fortifications, erected by the Portuguese, were considerably decayed in the time of Valentyn.

The house of the Jesuits was on the neighbouring hills; but the country in general is so flat that the sea-shore is dry to the distance of two musquet-shot at low water, and the bottom being soft and muddy, the shore is of difficult approach.

The jurisdiction of the town is about thirty miles in length, and from eight to ten in breadth. There are two small isles, one within cannon-shot called *Ilha das Naos*, the other named *Ilha das Pedras* is somewhat

* Valentyn's Description of the Dutch Settlements in the East Indies, Dort, 1726, 8 volumes folio; vol. vii. p. 308.

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more distant. Both supply clay for bricks, and the Portuguese vessels MALAYS. used to anchor between these islets in a depth of four or five fathoms.

The north-west side of the town is slightly fortified, there being a river which is salt on the flowing of the tide. This stream is rapid, and about forty paces in width. It is called Cryforant; and on the east side of the town is another river.* Over the Cryforant there is a wooden bridge, and the country in that direction is high and agreeable, but towards the S. E. it is marshy.

The town presents many broad and straight streets, but without pavement; and the houses of brick remained strong though built by the Portuguese. The general shape is that of a crescent. The central part upon the hill is detached, and has two gates, being the residence of the governor. Before the Portuguese conquest Malacca was only a fishing town. It afterwards contained eleven thousand inhabitants; but in Valentyn's time had dwindled to between two and three hundred Dutch, Portuguese, and some Malays in huts at the extremities of the town, who also possessed some neat plantations in the vicinity.

The noted strait of Malacca presents great opportunities of commerce, which was maintained in a considerable degree with Bengal, Coromandel, Surat, Persia, Ceylon, Java, Sumatra, Siam, Tunquin, China, and other places. The duties on importation amounted to ten *per cent.*; and three *per cent.* was paid on goods exported. In 1669, the amount of the duties was seventy-four thousand nine hundred and fifty-nine florins, and the vessels from Java were one hundred and sixteen, not to mention the Danish, Portuguese, and Moorish ships. It was a convenient station for the Dutch vessels passing through the strait from Japan to Hindostan, and some chose this route to Batavia. But provisions are scarce, except fish and a few fruits.

The woods around the town are infested with wild beasts, especially tigers; and the elephants are very numerous. A tiger pursuing a deer across the river, was seized by a crocodile, while his intended prey escaped.

* Probably the Pahaung of Hamilton, but the description is not very clear. A map of Malacca and Sumatra is given in the same volume on a large scale, but the names of the rivers are omitted. It would appear that the river on the N. of the town is the Cryforant; and that on the S., which is the more considerable, the Pahaung.

The

MALAYS.

The Malays, inhabitants of this country, are the most ingenious, sagacious, and polished people of all the East Indies. Their complexion is lighter than that of the other races, and they are more cleanly in their mode of living. Their language is used throughout the east to the confines of Persia; and without it education is deemed imperfect. The Malays also study the Arabic and the Persian, but their language is nowhere so pure as in this country, though the genteeler class, especially the princes, courtiers and priests, affect to mingle Arabic expressions. There are numerous works written in that language, and even some of their historical ballads, or songs on national traditions. They are in general of a gay disposition, but cautious, sagacious, and proud, so that it is necessary to be on one's guard as with the Macassars. The male attire consists of pantaloons, with a wide robe of blue, red, or green; the neck is bare, but the head covered with a turban. The female dress is the general one of the East Indies, being a long narrow petticoat, reaching from the breast to the feet, while the other parts are naked, and the hair is commonly tied. The women are superior in intelligence to most others in the east, whence their conversation is sensible and agreeable. The other inhabitants are Portuguese, Moors, and Chinese, with some from Bengal and Guzerat.

The chief articles of commerce are azelwood and camphor from the kingdom of Pahang; tin, gold, pepper, *pedra de porco*, ivory. The manufactures are various articles of dress, worn here and in Hindostan, cottons, chintz, &c., and some articles of copper.

The governor is appointed by the Dutch East India company; the expences of the garrison and provisions were very high, sometimes about two hundred thousand florins, thus greatly exceeding the amount of the duties. Since the year 1664, the fortifications and garrison were diminished, so that about forty thousand florins were annually saved.

Under the controul of the governor of Malacca there are several factories, some of them in the peninsula, others on the east coast of Sumatra; the directors being appointed by the governor and council. These factories are styled of Peirah, Keedah, CEdjang-Salang, and Andragiri.

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The first factory, that of Peirah, on the Malay coast, was in the dominions of the queen of Atsjien, and was only kept for the tin trade, that article being exchanged for money or cloths at fifty rix dollars the *bar*; the natives, a dirty and cruel race, murdered all the Dutch in 1651, and the factory was abandoned.

The second factory, that of Keedah, or Queda, is on the same coast, nearly opposite to Atsjien, in Sumatra; its object being to trade with the petty king of Keedah for tin, gold, and ivory. The third factory that of Oedjang-Salang, was in an island, so called, where the Dutch traded for tin and ivory. The fourth, that of Andragiri, was on the coast of Sumatra, the objects pepper and gold. The Dutch also traded with Ligor and Tanaferim, in the dominions of Siam, for tin; and with Bangkoelo for gold and *pedra de porco*, before the English established themselves there. The island Dinding was also considered as a dependence of Malacca.

CHAP. 2. *Ancient History of Malacca.*

Valentyn informs us, that having fortunately met with some Malay manuscripts, written in the Arabian character, he is enabled to give some account of the ancient history of this country. These books are called *Tadjoe Effatina*, or *Macota Segalla Radja*, that is, The Crown of Kings; *Misa Gomitar* and *Kitab Hantoewa*, or *Hanghtoeba*, that is, the Book of Hantoewa, commonly called the *Soclalet Effalathina*, signifying the Genealogical Register of the Kings (of the Malays;) all esteemed among the first productions in the language, but being only found in the possession of the princes and priests, they are rarely to be procured. The last of these three manuscripts is preferred by our author, as it aspires to develop the very origins of Malay history, but the author of the Hanghtoeba is unknown. Valentyn, however, adds, that it is one of the best books in the Malay language which he had ever perused, and he has selected it as his chief authority.

It would appear, according to this account, that the Malays were first established on the eastern coast of Sumatra, in the kingdom of Palambang,

MALAYS.

bang, opposite to the isle of Banka, at the river Malajoe, which encircles the mountain Mahameirac, and afterwards joins the river Tatang. Some suppose that the river derives its name from the Malays, and that they are so called from a word, signifying industrious and quick,* but Valentyn rather thinks they derived their name from the river, and communicated it to their present peninsula, which formerly belonged to the king of Siam, and was inhabited by fishermen. The learned reader will observe, that these traditions rest on recent manuscripts, and only seem to indicate that the Malays came from the west.

The same traditions bear that, during their residence in Sumatra, they chose a king called Siri Toeri Bowana, who reigned forty-eight years, and pretended to be a descendant of Alexander the Great. This happened about the Christian year 1160. During this reign the Malays proceeded to the opposite coast, and settled on the *north-east* corner, whence they gradually spread, and the country assumed the name Tanah Malajoe, or Malay-land, extending from 2 to 11 degrees N. lat. though the inhabitants of the town and district of Malacca be peculiarly styled *Orang* Malajoe, that is, simply the Malays, whilst all the other nations are called with the addition of the name of the place where they dwell, for instance, Malajoe Djochor, Malajoe Patani, &c. that is, the Malays of Djochor, the Malays of Patani, &c.

After a residence of some years, the Malays built their first town Singapoera, which gave its name to the southern strait. About the same period the king of Madjapahit, in the isle of Java, was one of the most powerful princes in the east, being not only sovereign of that island, but having possessions in Sumatra and other isles, though his title was, as not unusual, derived from his capital city. But this conqueror attacked the Malays without success, and his ambition only imparted more energy to their counsel.

The first king was succeeded, A. D. 1208, by Padoeka Pikaram Wira, who reigned only fifteen years, having vigorously defended his town

* I cannot find such a word in Dr. Howison's Malay Dictionary, 1800 4to. an interesting work, especially since our settlement at Pulo Pinang, or Prince of Wales's Island, on the Malay coast. But Pinang is the name, as Pulo only signifies an island; and to introduce new names into such countries, as if among savages, can only be called an ignorant and puerile affectation, as if a Chinese were to give new names to Jersey and Guernsey.

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and territory against the powerful king of Madjapahit. In 1223, he was followed by Siri Rema Wikaram, who died suddenly, in 1236; the next was Siri Maha Radja, who enlarged his capital Singapoera, and died in 1249.

Siri Iskender Shah was the last king of Singapoera, having been constrained by the arms of a king of Madjapahit to retire further to the north, where, in the year 1253, he built a new capital, which he called Malacca, from the name of a tree, the Mirabolan, under which he had taken shelter while hunting, as minutely detailed in the book Hantoewa. After having established salutary laws and regulations, he died in the year 1274.

From the adoption of the words, Shah and Sultan, it would appear that Mahometanism was now introduced.

The successor sultan Magat reigned only two years; and was followed by Sultan Mohamed Shah. This great prince reigned fifty-seven years, and is esteemed the first Mahometan sovereign. He extended the name of the Malays over the isles of Lingga and Bintam, or Bintang; and farther among the people of Djochor, Patani, Keidah, Peirah, and others even on the coast of Sumatra, in Gampar and Haroe. Marrying the princess of Aracan, that kingdom fell to him by inheritance, and he abandoned it to his chancellor. Sultan Mohamed died in 1333; and was succeeded by his son Sultan Aboe Shahid, who was stabbed in the second year of his reign by the king of Aracan.

Sultan Modofar Shah reigned forty years, and is celebrated for his code of laws. About 1340, a powerful prince reigned in Siam, called Boebatnja, who became jealous of the prosperity of Malacca, and ordered an army to advance against it, but the battle was in favour of the Malays. A succeeding king of Siam was equally unfortunate, and the commercial town of Malacca was regarded, with Madjapahit and Pasi, as the third celebrated city in these regions.

Modofar died in 1374, and was followed by his son, who was at first called Sultan Abdul; but when he ascended the throne, he assumed the name of Sultan Mantsoer Shah. The reign of this prince was of extraordinary length, being seventy-three years. The kingdom of Andri-giri, on the east side of Sumatra, formerly subject to the kings of Madjapahit,

MALAYS.

japahit, was annexed to Malacca, in consequence of a marriage between Sultan Mantfoer and Radin Gala Tijindra Kiraan, daughter of the king of Madjapahit, who was about this time, 1380, so powerful that he might have been styled emperor; and among the subject princes were the king of Daha, and the king of Tandjong Poera, who married one of his daughters, Nafa Casoema, and became his successor in the empire. Sultan Mantfoer made a treaty with the emperor of China, and married his daughter, probably after the death of his former wife, in consequence of which alliance he subdued the kingdom of Pahang. At this time Malacca was esteemed the chief city, Pasi the second, and Haroe the third, in these parts of the eastern world; but the king of Pasi became subject to Malacca.

Krain Samarloeka, king of Macassar, sailed with a large fleet of two hundred vessels, in the year 1420, to attack Malacca, but the Locsamana, or admiral of Mantfoer, repulsed him, so that he was obliged to retreat to Pasi, in the north of Sumatra. Mantfoer died in 1447.

His son and successor, Alawoddin, was the eleventh king of the Malays, the sixth of Malacca, and the fifth, who professed the Mahometan religion. After an inglorious reign of thirty years, during which Malacca became subject to Siam, he died in 1477, and was succeeded by Sultan Mahmud Shah, who reigned thirty-six years, twenty-nine in Malacca, and seven in Johor. During this reign, in the year 1509, the Malays threw off the yoke of Siam, but this effort was soon followed by the Portuguese conquest.

CHAP. 3. *The Portuguese in Malacca.*

Sultan Mahmud Shah had reigned thirty-two years when the Portuguese arrived, king Emanuel having, in 1508, ordered a fleet of sixteen ships to the East Indies under Siqueira. The kingdom of Malacca had been weakened by its subjection to Siam, and the prince granted leave to trade, though the Moors opposed it as contrary to the interest of the Mahometans in Egypt. But at their instigations the king was prevailed on to form a plot, for the assassination of Siqueira and his officers, which was detected. Among these officers we find the name of Magalhaens,

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or Magellan, who afterwards became the first circumnavigator of the world. Another scheme of assassination having failed, and Sequeira finding an arrangement impossible, he returned to Portugal. The great Albuquerque was now the Portuguese viceroy in the East Indies. On the first of August 1511, he arrived before Malacca with a powerful fleet, while the king of Pahang was in the town to celebrate his nuptials with the daughter of Mahmud. A triumphal car, upon thirty wheels, was to convey the two kings to the solemnity, the very day that Albuquerque cast anchor before the city. Valentyn informs us, probably from Maffei, whom he quotes on another occasion, that there were not less than nine thousand brass cannon in the town, a circumstance utterly incredible, and especially at that early period of the use of artillery, even if we suppose the invention to have passed from China to Malacca, as the Chinese had long been settled in that city. Malacca was, however, taken by storm; and the king fled to Johor, where he founded a new town and kingdom. The Portuguese, in complete possession of Malacca, formed an alliance with Siam; while the king of Johor died in 1513, and was followed by his son Sultan Ahmed Shah, who afterwards made a treaty with the Portuguese. The succeeding events need not be mentioned, as they are sufficiently known in the Portuguese annals.

CHAP. 4. *Other Events.*

In this chapter Valentyn proceeds to detail the Portuguese history of Malacca, the repeated attempts of the king of Johor to retake the city, till his death in 1540, when he was succeeded by Sultan Alawoddin Shah. Among the Portuguese governors of Malacca was Peter Mascarenhas, 1526, from whom, perhaps, was derived the name anciently given to the isle of Bourbon. It would be of little importance to enlarge on the events of the little kingdom of Johor. Alawoddin was succeeded, 1559, by Abduldjaniel, who was followed, 1591, by another Alawoddin; during whose reign the Dutch arrived, and formed an alliance with this prince against the Portuguese. In 1606, the Dutch attacked Malacca, in conjunction with the king of Johor; but our author is so extremely prolix in every particular relative to the Dutch affairs, that

MALAYS.

that it is unnecessary to follow him. The sea-fights, however, between the Dutch and Portuguese interest, from their equipoise and fluctuation. It appears, from the list given, that no Portuguese ship of war was of more than eleven hundred tons, while the Dutch did not exceed eight hundred; and the fleets were only of seven or eight ships.

CHAP. 5. *The Dutch in Johor.*

The sea engagements continued without decisive success; and the Dutch were obliged to content themselves with a factory in Johor, where Abdalla had become king, in 1610, and was succeeded, in 1621, by Mahmud. In 1623 and 1627 various attempts were made to subdue Malacca, which was vigorously defended by the Portuguese, who were, however, destined to lose this valuable settlement in the year that they freed themselves from the Spanish yoke.

CHAP. 6. *The Dutch in Malacca.*

The celebrated governor-general of the Dutch settlements in the East Indies, Antony Van Diemen, finding the opportunity favourable for the conquest of this settlement, sent, in the beginning of June 1640, twelve ships and six sloops to blockade Malacca, which were joined by about twenty small vessels of Johor. On the second of August the Dutch landed on the north side of the city, and erected a battery. The siege became very severe, and was accompanied, as sometimes happens, with famine and pestilence. In January 1641, the famine became extreme, and the women and children were expelled. Many of the Dutch officers, among whom was the commander in chief, died of heat and fatigue. Impatience and desperation produced a general assault, which was executed on the fourteenth of January. All the effective men, soldiers and sailors, not exceeding six hundred and fifty in all, were formed in three columns, who attacked in three different points; and one having entered, the governor capitulated. The town was not sacked, but the chief moveables were brought to the conquerors. Thus the Portuguese, after a possession of nearly a hundred and thirty years,

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lost this valuable settlement, then esteemed, after Goa, the richest in the MALAYS. East Indies. The town was fortified with sixty-four cannon of brass, and four of iron, a number which may be compared with the nine thousand found by the Portuguese, and which good sense might reduce to ninety. The judicious reader will apply this scale to most of the Portuguese and Spanish relations of the first discoverers in Asia and America; their imaginations, inflamed with novelty and swelled with vanity, having no check on that disposition to hyperbole, so justly imputed to travellers in distant countries, before the spirit of criticism, and the exactness of modern knowledge, began to dissipate those enchantments. The travels of Mendez de Pinto appeared a century too late, and only excited universal ridicule; while, if they had appeared in the preceding century, they would have been received into history, and might long have misled the opinions even of the more enlightened part of mankind.

Valentyn reports that, during the siege, more than seven thousand died in the town, and a still greater number found means to escape; so that of twenty thousand reputed inhabitants not more than three thousand were found. The Dutch lost about fifteen hundred, chiefly by the plague, which continued some months after the place was taken. Yet, towards the end of the year, several valuable cargoes were sent to Batavia and Holland.

In the seventh chapter Valentyn continues a prolix detail of the succession of Dutch governors, and other minute events, by no means interesting to the general reader. The eighth and last chapter contains the history of religion, and an exact succession of the Dutch clergymen in Malacca. It is to be regretted that this valuable and expensive work had not rather been restricted to the geography and natural history, than enlarged with minute details rarely interesting even to his countrymen themselves; but, as it contains many valuable materials no where else to be found, a judicious abstract would be highly acceptable. Meanwhile it is to be hoped that this addition to the account of Malacca will be found interesting, not only on account of its importance to geography, as illustrating a country very little known, but as a specimen of a publication much celebrated but rarely perused.

Opposite

ANDAMAN
ISLES.

Opposite to the coast of Malacca, though at a considerable distance, are the islands of Andaman and of Nicobar. The great Andaman is about 140 B. miles in length, but not more than 20 in the greatest breadth, indented by deep bays affording excellent harbours, and intersected by vast inlets and creeks, one of which, navigable for small vessels, passes quite ¹ rough the isle.⁶ The soil is chiefly black mould, the cliffs of a white arenacious stone. The extensive forests afford some precious trees, as ebony and the *mellori*, or Nicobar bread fruit. The only quadrupeds seem to be wild hogs, monkeys, and rats. The sea supplies numerous fish, among which are mullets, soles, and excellent oysters. The people of the Andamans are as little civilized as any in the world, and are probably cannibals, having at least a particular antipathy against strangers. They have woolly heads, and perfectly resemble negroes; being as some report descended from a crew of African slaves; but they are mentioned in the ninth century by the Mahometan travellers with all their peculiarities, and it is difficult to conceive how a cargo of slaves could at an early period be steered in that direction. The S. W. monsoon may have driven their canoes from the coasts of Africa; and, opposed in civilized parts, they may have seized this desert isle.* Their character is truly brutal, insidious, and ferocious, and their canoes of the rudest kind. On Barren isle, about 15 leagues to the east of the Andamans, is a violent volcano which emits showers of red hot stones; and the whole island has a singular and volcanic appearance. A British settlement has been recently formed on the Greater Andaman, and some convicts sent thither from Bengal. The natives, about 2000, have already profited by the example of English industry.

Nicobar.

The Nicobars are three; the largest being about five leagues in circumference.⁷ They produce cocoa and areca trees, with yams and sweet potatoes; and the eatable bird's nests, so highly esteemed in China, abound here as well as in the Andamans. The people are of

⁶ Af. Ref. iv. 385. According to Hamilton, ii. 68. Edin. 1727, 8vo., some of the Andaman isles abound in quicksilver.

* They are, after all, probably of the same race with the other negroes of the Asiatic Isles, which see.

⁷ Af. Ref. iii. 149.

a copper colour, with small oblique eyes and other Tatar features. In NICOBAR. their dress a small stripe of cloth hangs down behind; and hence the ignorant tales of seamen which led even Linnæus to infer that some kinds of men had tails. The only quadrupeds are swine and dogs. The traffic is in cocoa nuts, of which one hundred are given for a yard of blue cloth. The tree called by the natives Larum, by the Portuguese Mellori, produces an excellent bread fruit, different from the kind found in the interior parts of Africa, and also from that of Otaheite. The fruit is said to weigh 20 or 30 pounds; and some plants have been brought to the botanical garden of the East India Company near Calcutta.

S I A M.

CHAPTER I.

HISTORICAL GEOGRAPHY.

*Name.—Extent.—Boundaries.—Original Population.—Progressive Geography.—
Historical Epochs.*

TILL the recent extension of the Birman empire, the rich and flourishing monarchy of Siam was to be regarded as the chief state of exterior India. The brief connection established with France, towards the end of the seventeenth century, excited many writers to give accounts of this kingdom, while only an imperfect knowledge was diffused concerning the surrounding states. Those of the jesuits are deservedly disesteemed, when compared with that of La Loubere, himself envoy extraordinary from Louis XIV. to the Siamese court, which remains the chief guide concerning this state, though capable of occasional improvements from more recent information on particular topics.*

Name.

The name of this celebrated country is of uncertain origin, and in appearance first delivered by the Portuguese, in whose orthography Siam and Siao are the same, so that Sian, or Siang, might be preferable

* The latest account of this interesting country is that published in Paris, 1771, by M. Turpin, from the Papers of Brigot, bishop of Tabraca, whence it is cited as the work of the latter.

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to Siam; and the Portuguese writers in latin call the natives *Sio-* NAME.
nes. The Siamese style themselves *Tai*, or freemen; and their
country *Meuang Tai*, or the kingdom of freemen. It is probable that
the Portuguese derived the name Siam from intercourse with the Pe-
guese.*

The extent of the Siamese dominions has been recently restricted by Extent and
Boundaries. the encroachments of the Birmans, nor can some of the limits be ac-
curately defined. On the west of the Malaian peninsula a few pos-
sessions may remain, to the south of Tanaferim; and on the eastern side
of that Chersonese Ligor may mark the boundary. On the west a
chain of mountains seems to divide Siam, as formerly, from Pegu,—
but the northern province of Yunshan would appear to be in the hands
of the Birmans, who here seem to extend to the river Maykang; and
perhaps the limits may be a small ridge running E. and W. above the
river Anan. To the south and east the ancient boundaries are fixed;
the ocean, and a chain of mountains, dividing Siam from Laos and
Cambodia. Thus the ancient idea may be retained, that this kingdom
is a large vale between two ridges of mountains.

The northern boundaries, as defined by Loubere, evince that Siam
has lost little in that quarter. His city Chiamai is probably Zamee;
and was fifteen days journey beyond the Siamese frontier. But
when he marks the northern limit at 22°, there is an error in latitude.
It is about the nineteenth degree; so that the length of the kingdom
may be about ten degrees, or near 700 British miles; but of this
about one half is not above 70 miles in medial breadth. A more
adequate admeasurement may be estimated from about 11° of N.
lat. to 19°; a length of about 550 British miles, by the breadth of
240.

This kingdom is divided into ten provinces, Supthia, Bancok, Porcelon
Pipli, Camphine, Rappri, Tanaferim, Ligor, Cambouri and Conca-
cema, which have each a particular governor.

Bancok is situated about seven leagues from the sea, and it cal-
led Fou, in the Siamese language. The environs are embellished

* Loubere, i. 16. edit. Amst. 1714. See also Turpin, i. 2. Paris, 1771. 8vo.

• *Siam* is the oriental term, as appears from several papers in the Asiatic Researches.

EXTENT
AND FERTI-
LITY.

with delicious gardens furnishing the natives with fruit their chief nourishment.

Tanaferim is a province abounding in rice and fruit trees. It enjoys a safe and commodious harbour where arrive vessels of all nations, and the people find more resources of subsistence than in the other parts of the monarchy.

The province of Cambouri which is situated on the frontiers of Pegu carries on a considerable trade in what the French call eagle wood, elephants teeth, and horns of the rhinoceros: It is also from this province that the finest varnish is procured.

Ligor affords a kind of tin, called by the French calain, the calin of the Portuguese.

Porcelon was formerly a distinct sovereignty, and produces dying woods and precious gums.*

Original
Population.

The original population of Siam, and other regions of exterior India, can only be traced by affinity of languages; and the topic has been little illustrated. For this purpose the vulgar speech must be chosen, and not the Bali, or language of the learned, which is perhaps the same with the Palli, of Hindostan. If the former be monosyllabic, as Loubere says, it bears some affinity with the Chinese; and, he adds, with those of the eastern regions of exterior India. That of the Malays is very different; and perhaps they proceeded, as before mentioned, from Hindostan, while the other tribes of further India advanced by land from China and Tibet; though there may perhaps be found great difference in the dialect, from early separation in a savage state, followed by different wants and customs.

According to Turpin, who published at Paris, 1771, a new history of this country, drawn up from the papers of the missionaries, the people of Laos and Pegu have established a considerable colony in Siam, since their countries were ravaged by the Birmas. There are also many Malays, and the ancient kings had a guard of Japanese, a circumstance that gives an uncommon idea of the intercourse of oriental nations; and though we be told that the Chinese laws prohibit expatriation, the Chinese colony is the most flourishing of all.

* Turpin, i. 23.

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The progressive geography of Siam ascends to classical antiquity, if the people be, as is reasonably inferred, the *Sinæ* of Ptolemy. The early navigators imagined that the Chinese were the *Sinæ*, and that the isle of Taprobana was Sumatra! In the reign of the emperor Justinian, Cosmas, called Indicopleustes, mentions the silk of the *Sinæ*, as imported into Taprobana; which he also calls *Sielediva*, coinciding with *Selendib*, the oriental name of Ceylon: and when he adds that this isle was at an equal distance from the Persian gulph, and the region of the *Sinæ*, he affords an additional proof that the latter was Siam. This country is not indeed at present remarkable for the production of silk, the staple article of the ancient *Sinæ*; but it appears that the silk of the early classics was the growth of a tree, a kind of silky cotton, still abundant in Siam; and perhaps, as Malacca afterwards became famous for products not its own, so Siam, in a similar central position between China and Hindostan might, in ancient times, be the mart of this and other more oriental articles. When real silk became known to the Romans, about the time of Aurelian, a pound was sold for twelve ounces of gold, a price which shews that it must have passed through repeated mercantile profits. The Persian monks, who, in the sixth century, introduced the silk-worm into the Byzantine empire, perhaps proceeded to the west of China, if they did not find that valuable insect in some warm vales of Tibet.* Nor, while it is denied that the Greeks, or Romans had any knowledge of China, is it meant to be inferred that the Persians were in the like predicament; the Arabian travellers of the ninth century, whose account is published by Renaudot, and is incontestibly genuine, shewing a very complete knowledge of that country.

Some faint notices concerning Siam may probably occur in the oriental geographers of the middle ages; but such enquiries are more proper for an antiquarian dissertation. Suffice it to observe that, till the Portuguese discoveries, Siam may be said to have remained unknown to Europeans. In the middle of the seventeenth century Mandelslo,*

* If, as some ancients affirm, they brought it from the *Seres*, (not the *Sinæ*) Little Bucharis must be implied; but the ancient ideas were vague; and often, as in the case of Arabia and Hindostan, confounded the mart with the native country.

† Col. 304-331.

PROGRES-
SIVE GEO-
GRAPHY.

or his translator Wicquefort, has compiled a tolerable account of this country; but the French descriptions present more precision of knowledge, as well as more extent of information. By the latter was first reformed a singular error in the geography, which deduced the great rivers of Ava, Pegu, and Siam from a large inland lake called Chiamai, in lat. 30°, while Tibet is placed in lat. 40°. This gross error perhaps arose from the report that the small river of Pegu rises in a lake about lat. 21°. But on comparing the maps of Asia, in the beginning of last century, and even that of China and the East Indies, in the Amsterdam edition of Mandelstø, 1718, the reader will be sensible of the great progress of geography in recent times.

Historical
Epochs.

The Siamese history is imperfect, and abounds with fables. Their epoch is derived from the pretended disparition of their god Sammona Codam (or Boodh); and the christian year 1689 corresponded with their 2233d.* Yet by Loubere's account their first king began to reign in the year 1300 of their epoch, or about 756 years after the Christian era. Wars with Pegu, and occasional usurpations of the throne, constitute the hinges of Siamese history since the Portuguese discovery. In 1568 the Peguese king declared war on account of two white elephants which the Siamese refused to surrender; and after prodigious slaughter on both sides Siam became tributary to Pegu. But about 1620 Raja Hapi delivered his crown from this servitude.† In 1680 Phalcon, a Greek adventurer, being highly favoured by the king of Siam, opened an intercourse with France, in the view of supporting his ambitious designs; but they were punished by his decapitation in 1689, and the French connection ceased in consequence. The latter events of Siamese history may partly be traced in that of the Birman empire.

Turpin, in his second volume, has extended the history of Siam to the year 1770. Nor may it be uninteresting to recapitulate the ancient history of the country, with a few remarks, for he does not excel in the spirit of criticism. He says that the first king began to reign about 1444 years before Christ, and that he had 40 successors before the epoch of the Portuguese discovery 1546, many of whom were precipitated from their throne on account of their despotism. These forty kings there-

* Loubere, i. 21.

† Mandelstø, 322.

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fore cannot be supposed to have reigned more than ten years each, at a medial computation, so that instead of 1444 years before Christ, as he supposes, the first historical date cannot ascend beyond the year 1100 after Christ. But as he says that all these kings were of different families, it is probable that he has confounded monarchs with dynasties.

The war of the white elephant, so called because it arose from the refusal of the king of Siam to yield one of these animals to the monarch of the Birmahs, ended in the subjugation of Siam; but the bishop of Tabraca gives no dates, so that his narrative is not a little confused. Repeated cruelties fill the page of Siamese history; and one of the monarchs made an ingenious apology for his own despotism.

"A Sancrat, proud of his dignity, supposed that he had a right to instruct the sovereign in his duty, and dared to represent to him, that all the nation murmured in secret at his extreme severity. The prince heard him, without appearing offended at his indiscreet zeal; but some days after sent to the house of his monitor an ape, an animal detested by the Siamese, with orders to let him have abundance of food, without any restraint or punishment. The Sancrat was obliged to suffer all the caprices of this new guest, who overturned the furniture, broke the vessels of porcelain, and bit all the domestics. At last, losing all patience, he warmly supplicated the monarch to be delivered from this domestic enemy. "What," replied the king, "you cannot suffer for two days the tricks of a little animal; and you wish that I should endure all my life the insolence of a people, a thousand times more wicked than all the apes of all our forests. Learn, that if I punish the bad, I also know how to recompence merit and virtue."

The history of Phalcon, the Greek, and the embassies to Siam, during the reign of Louis XIV., are sufficiently known; nor can praise be refused to the conduct of the chevalier Forbin, who has given a relation of his own exploits against the furious Macassars of Celebez: and who has candidly observed that the eyes of a jesuit must be different from those of other people, because, when he read their accounts, he found a country which he so well knew, so totally misrepresented. The infant son of the celebrated Phalcon was educated by the French missionaries;

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and, in 1749, was captain of a Siamese vessel, but died poor in 1754. His son was, 1770, living in obscurity at the capital of Siam.*

One of the most remarkable events, after the French had evacuated Siam, is the war against the kingdom of Cambodia, which was obliged, on this occasion, to seek the protection of Cochin-China. The Siamese army, having advanced too far into the country, was destroyed by famine, and even their fleet had little success, though it destroyed the town of Ponteamas, with 200 tons of elephants teeth.

In 1760, a remarkable revolution happened in Siam, preceded by violent civil wars between two rival princes. According to our author, in 1754, the Birmas, or people of the kingdom of Ava, had already languished five years under the Peguese domination. They had beheld the death of their king, their queen, and the greater part of their princes. The remembrance of their past misfortunes, and the feelings of their servitude, and of their humiliation, made them incessantly sigh for a deliverer. They did not seek him among men softened by the luxury of the court, and who, proud of their titles, computed their talents by their ambition. They threw their eyes on one of their compatriots, named Manlong, a gardener by profession, who, in a body condemned to abject and painful functions, had the courage and firmness of a hero: they begged him to accept the sceptre, and to deliver them from the yoke of their tyrants. "Yes," replied this extraordinary man, "I consent to be your king; but the first step must be to prove that you are worthy to have a chief like me. I command you to cut off the heads of all the little subaltern tyrants, whom the Peguans have sent to oppress you." They answered, that if this were the only sacrifice, he should instantly be obeyed: and after the massacre, Manlong was proclaimed king.

He began by forming a strong cavalry, and a body of fusileers, who had orders to fire upon all fugitives of their own army; a discipline, which being rigorously observed, rendered the Birmas almost invincible. About 1759, they took and completely ruined the city and port of Siriam. Having advanced to Martavan and Tavail, the new monarch heard of the riches of Siam, and conceived the design of its

* Turpin, ii. 178.

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conquest. He dispatched thirty ships to pillage the cities of Merghi, Tanaferim; and, astonished at the terror which his name and arms inspired, was persuaded that he would subdue the whole kingdom of Siam with great facility.

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Upon the tidings of this irruption, the court of Siam sent to the bishop of Tabraca to request that he would arm the Christians; who, though only amounting to 100, behaved better than the pusillanimous multitude. The Birma sovereign was at a distance of three days march from Yuthia, the capital, when he was attacked with an abscess, which became mortal. Yet, the suburbs on the Dutch quarter were ravaged and burnt; and the surrounding country exposed to a thousand cruelties. The death of Manlong delivered the Siamese capital; the youngest of his sons having assumed the sceptre, found himself under the necessity of regaining his own kingdom, in order to stifle any revolt.

Soon after the Siamese sovereign having rashly pronounced a sentence of death against the favourite of his brother, was forced to abdicate the throne. He became a Talapoin, or monk, in May 1762, and his example was followed by many nobles. Siam remained in a state of security, upon the report that the new prince of the Birmas had been dethroned upon his return to Ava; and, that his elder brother, who had succeeded, had no wish to make conquests.

This tranquillity was unhappily of short duration, the pacific monarch having died suddenly, and a pretence of war being afforded by the assistance lent by the Siamese to a rebel Birman governor. On the tenth of January 1765, in the dusk of the evening, was suddenly heard along the river of Merghi, the confused noise of a multitude who filled the air with lamentations. This tumult occasioned a conjecture that the enemy was about to appear. In fact, the Birmas were only three or four leagues from the town, and a pilot had perceived ten of their vessels. Yet, the reports were various, and a momentary calm succeeded. But, about four o'clock in the morning, the sound of fifty cannon-shot announced the arrival of the Birmas. Their conduct, though cruel, was not so atrocious as in the war of 1760; the French missionaries, and their Christian converts, escaped by the benignity of one of the captains; and all the married women were saved from violation.

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After the capture of Merghi, a Birma general conducted the greater part of their army to Tanaferim, and that unfortunate city was reduced to ashes.

The army of the Birmas, more occupied with pillage than with a view of establishing a conquest, devoured the spoil in debauchery; and when it was exhausted, they proceeded in search of a supply.* The general, flattered with his first success, promised himself easy triumphs, and marched against Yuthia, persuaded that the conquest of the capital would give a powerful example of submission to the other cities. It was necessary to pass immense forests, and steep mountains, but these obstacles were foreseen and provided against. The provinces on the north-west of the royal city were ravaged, the inhabitants only saving themselves from death or slavery by their dispersion into forests, where they shared the food of the wild beasts. The fire which devoured the towns and villages threw terror into the capital, and the Siamese, threatened with speedy destruction, reunited their forces. With trepidation they marched against an enemy, whose valour they had often known and felt. They tried the fate of a battle, and fought with more ardour than usual; but their sanguinary defeat left their country in the power of their conqueror. The fields, ravaged by the consuming flames, presented nothing but ashes, and famine became then more terrible than war.

The Birmas built, at the confluence of two rivers, a town, or rather fortified station, which they called Michoug.

The Siamese, on their part, attempted to fortify the capital, and eagerly invoked the assistance of two English vessels which happened to arrive. The captain of one of them consented to defend the capital, on condition of being supplied with cannon and ammunition, but the jealous Siamese insisted that he should first lodge his merchandise in the public magazine. He consented with a smile of contempt, and after conferences with the ministers, went on board his ship, where he prepared himself to justify the confidence which had been placed in his courage.† He ordered descents, which were all destructive to the enemy; their forts were destroyed before they were completed, and every day was marked by their defeat or their flight. But, demanding

* Turpin, ii. 294.

† Ib. 307.

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more ammunition, the dastardly court became afraid, that the English captain, with his single ship, would conquer this ancient monarchy. The English captain, disgusted with the refusal, withdrew, after seizing six Chinese vessels, whose officers received from him orders upon the king of Siam, to the amount of the merchandise, which had been lodged in the public treasury.

Upon his retreat, the Birmas finding no opposition, spread universal desolation, and even the temples were delivered to the flames. The superstitious monarch and his ministers placed all their confidence in their magicians. Even the officers and the soldiers, instead of military exercises, were solely occupied in the study of charms, supposed to render the wearers invisible. Their courage was indeed invisible, while their persons were exposed, without defence, to a less credulous enemy, who knew that in war valour is the only magic. A Siamese prince, who had been banished to Ceylon, found means to raise a little army, and return to the assistance of his country: and the distracted court of Siam actually sent forces to oppose this deliverer. This imprudence so much irritated the Siamese, that many of them joined the Birmas, who, in the month of March 1766, again advanced to within two leagues of the capital, having been before repulsed by the English captain, the war being depredatory, and without any regular plan. The temples, built of brick, and surrounded with ditches, did not suffer so much from the flames, as the Christian churches which were constructed of wood.

These events have been narrated at considerable length, as being little known to English readers, and interesting to the history and security of our oriental possessions. This apology will also be accepted for the remainder of the details concerning the capture of the Siamese capital, an event not a little important in the annals of Asia.

On the 7th of September 1766, the Birmas seized on a high tower, a little more than a quarter of a mile from the city, and raised a battery of cannon, which rendered them absolute masters of the river. The danger becoming urgent, six thousand Chinese were charged with the defence of the Dutch factory, and of a large temple adjacent. After some skirmishes, the Birmas made an assault, and seized on five considerable temples, which they changed into fortresses, opening a heavy

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cannonade. Yet, in another assault, on the 8th of December, they were obliged to retire. The Siamese officers, in their eagerness to secure the magazines of grain, as a future resource, produced an immediate famine. The streets and squares were filled with dead bodies; and a contagious disorder or pestilence completed the horrid scene. During six months the dead bodies in the street were devoured by hungry dogs, and even the walls began to be deserted, the centinels descending by means of long cords, in expectation of finding more mercy from the enemy than from their own officers, or at least a speedy death, more agreeable than the horrors of a lingering dissolution, which every where met their eyes. The Dutch factory was in vain defended by the Portuguese and the Chinese; and after a special siege of eight days was taken and reduced to ashes. The whole Christian quarter of the city shared the like fate; and the virgins were obliged to marry the first young men that presented themselves, in order to be protected by the matrimonial tie which the Birmas reverence.

After an ineffectual negotiation, in which the Birmas insisted upon an unconditional surrender, the city was at length taken by assault on the 28th April 1767. The wealth of the palaces and temples was consumed by the flames, or abandoned to the soldiery. The golden idols were melted, and the victors were astonished to find that their avarice had been sacrificed to their fury. Scenes of violation and cruelty followed their disappointment. The great officers of the kingdom were laden with irons, and condemned to the galleys. In a vain attempt to escape, the king was massacred at the gate of his palace. Nothing being left to destroy, the victorious army resumed its march to Pegu, accompanied, among other captives, with the remaining princes and princesses of the royal blood of Siam.

The Christians and the missionaries fled by sea to the port of Kancoa, in Cochin-China. On the 6th of June, the Birmas quitted Siam, after having burnt the town of Michoug, a short time after its construction. The bishop of Tabraca arrived in France the 30th of October 1769, and retired to the seminary of foreign missions.

After the Birmas had thus evacuated their conquest, the Siamese issued from their forests, and their first rage was directed against their

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gods, whom they accused of being idle and negligent of their duties, when they had thus abandoned them to a destructive enemy. Several of the statues which remained were known by the natives to be full of gold and silver, placed there by superstitious persons in a certainty of finding them, should they revisit this world. Having thus restored some degree of wealth to their country, they proceeded to elect a leader; and the unanimous choice fell upon Phaia-Thaë an officer of acknowledged ability. This new prince displayed considerable clemency and talents; and in the year 1768, suppressed a rebellion which was instigated against him. The Birmas in vain attempted to repeat their incursions into the Siamese territory. They were repelled, and afterwards forced to turn their arms against the Chinese, who were defeated in their turn.

The remainder of the Siamese recent history becoming incorporated with that of the Birman empire may be compared with the present abstract; the political situation of these two countries being not a little connected with our possessions in Hindostan.

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CHAPTER II.

POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY.

Religion. — Government. — Laws. — Population. — Army. — Navy. — Revenues. — Political Importance.

RELIGION.

THE religion of the Siamese, like that of the Birmans, resembles that of the Hindoos; and the transmigration of souls forms an essential part of the doctrine. Sommona Codam, mentioned by Loubere as the chief idol of Siam, is interpreted by competent judges to be the same with the Boodh of Hindostan.¹ The sacred language called Bali is of the same origin; and Loubere has published a translation of a Siamese legend in that tongue. The most esteemed book seems the Vinac; and the precepts of morality are chiefly five. 1. Not to kill. 2. Not to steal. 3. Not to commit uncleanness. 4. Not to lie. 5. Not to drink any intoxicating liquor.² Compared with the precepts of Moses, those against idols are of course unknown, nor is any particular day of the week declared sacred. Vain swearing, and false testimony are also omitted; nor is there any command to pay due respect to parents, or to avoid covetousness. But in the universal code of morality murder and theft are esteemed pre-eminent crimes; the first being irreparable. Loubere has also given a translation of a more minute code of morals, chiefly compiled for the use of the persons dedicated to religion, whom he names Talapoins.

In the Birman empire the high priest is called the Sere daw, while the term for an inferior priest is Rhahan. Loubere has entered into considerable details concerning the priests and monks of Siam, whom he calls Talapoins, though he adds that the native term is Tchaoucou;*

¹ Symes, ii. 319.

² Loubere, i. 381.

* Kämpfer, i. 62, says the young monks are styled Dhaunces, and the old Dhaikus: the nuns Nank-tsjii.

and he does not explain the probably Dutch appellation of Talapoin, RELIGION. though he informs us that the convents are named Vat, and the temples Pihan; while the Portuguese style them and the idols *Pagods*, as that author conceives, from the Persian *Poutgheda*, meaning an idol-temple.

The Siamese imitate the Chinese in their festival of the dead; and in some other rites of that singular nation.

The government of Siam is despotic; and the sovereign, as among Government. the Birmans, revered with honours almost divine. The succession to the crown is hereditary in the male line. Loubere adds that a council was generally held twice a day, about ten o'clock in the morning, and at the same hour in the evening, when suits were discussed, and affairs of state deliberated. It may be conceived that the king was not always present. Sometimes he consults the Sancras, or superior Talapoins, and sometimes the governors of provinces.

The laws are represented by all writers on this country as extremely Laws. severe, death or mutilation being punishments even of unimportant offences.

Concerning the population of Siam there are no adequate documents. Population. If the Birman empire contain, as is asserted, more than fourteen millions, it might perhaps be reasonable to conclude that the Siamese dominions may be peopled by about eight millions. Yet Loubere assures us, that, from actual enumeration, there were only found of men, women, and children, one million, nine hundred thousand.³ So uncertain are the computations in oriental countries!

Loubere says that, in his time, there was no army, except a few Army. royal guards; but Mandello estimated the army, which may be occasionally raised, at 60,000, with not less than 3000 or 4000 elephants. The manner of raising this army resembles that already described, as practised in the Birman empire.

The navy is composed of a number of vessels of various sizes, some of Navy. which are richly decorated. Hence, as in the Birman history, naval engagements are not uncommon; and the large rivers of exterior India are often reddened with human gore. The form of the Birman and

³ Loubere, i 30. The work of Purpin, is singularly deficient with regard to the population, revenues and other political objects.

NAVY. Siamese vessels may be better learned from the plates, in the works of Col. Symes and Loubere, than from the most elaborate description. They frequently display a singular fantastic elegance.

REVENUES. The revenues of this sovereignty are of uncertain computation. They are described by Mandelslo as arising from the third of all inheritances, from trade conducted by royal agents, annual presents from the governors of provinces, duties imposed on commerce, and the discovery of gold, which by this account seems a regal claim. Loubere adds a kind of land-tax; and other particulars, among which is the royal domain. Tin is also a royal metal, except that found in Jonkseylon, a remote isle on the Malaian coast, which is abandoned to the adventurers. There is a royal treasury, as in most other eastern states, but voyagers have not attempted to define its probable amount. Loubere says it was reported as an extraordinary affair, that the king had increased his revenue by about 42,000l. sterling: supposing this a fifth part of the whole, the opulence of the monarch must chiefly arise from the national poverty, which renders money valuable when compared with commodities.

Political Importance and Relations. Siam appeared of considerable political importance to the French in the reign of Louis XIV, who aspired to form lasting settlements, and render it a mart of Indian commerce, and a source of great opulence to themselves. Were the Birmans to become dangerous to our possessions in Bengal, a firm alliance with Siam might be highly serviceable; and the like policy is adapted to the Chinese empire, if that great state ever formed alliances. In a merely commercial point of view, as it may be difficult to preserve the friendship both of the Birmans and the Siamese, it is a matter of calculation from which state superior advantages may be derived. If directed by European policy, Siam would form strict alliances with the more eastern states of exterior India, as a common defence against the growing preponderance of the Birmans.

* Loubere, i. 284.

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CHAPTER III.

CIVIL GEOGRAPHY.

Manners. — Language. — Literature. — Cities. — Edifices. — Manufactures. — Commerce.

THERE is a considerable similitude in the manners and customs of all the ^{MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.} *provinces* between the vast countries of China and Hindostan; with shades of difference, as they approximate to either of these *foci* of civilization. Siam, though central, has embraced a branch of Hindoo faith, and the manners are rather Hindostanic than Chinese.

Loubere has given an ample and interesting account of Siamese manners. The fair sex are under few restraints, and are married at an early age, being past parturition at forty. The espousals are concluded by female mediation; and as wealth is carefully concealed, from dread of extortion by the magistrate or prince, a priest or magician is consulted concerning the propriety of the alliance. On the third visit the parties are considered as wedded, after the exchange of a few presents, and without any further ceremony civil or sacred. Polygamy is allowed; but is rather practised from ostentation than any other motive, and one wife is always acknowledged as supreme. From pride the royal marriages are sometimes incestuous, and the king does not hesitate to espouse his own sister. Divorce is seldom practised, as mutual necessities and habits perpetuate the union of the poor; and the rich may choose a more compliant wife without dismissing the former. A temporary amorous intercourse is rather forbidden by the pride of the sex, than by any moral or legal considerations, being regarded as a brief marriage, and inconstancy as a divorce. Few women become nuns till they be advanced in years.

According to the same excellent author the Siamese funerals considerably resemble those of the Chinese. The body is inclosed in a

¹ Loubere, i. 371.

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wooden bier or varnished coffin; and the monks called Talapoin, (perhaps from their *talapan*, or peculiar umbrella,) sing hymns in the Bali tongue. After a solemn procession the body is burnt on a funeral pile of precious woods, erected near some temple; and the spectacle is often rendered more magnificent by the addition of theatrical exhibitions, in which the Siamese excel. The tombs are in a pyramidal form; and those of the kings large and lofty. Mourning is not prescribed by the laws, as in China: and the poor are buried with little ceremony.

As we eat less in summer than in winter, so in general nations inhabiting warm climates are temperate in diet. The common nourishment of the Siamese consists in rice and fish, both which articles are abundant. They also eat lizards, rats, and several kinds of insects. The value of about one penny sterling sufficed to procure a poor man his daily pound of rice, with some dried fish and rack. The buffaloes yield rich milk; but butter would melt and become rancid, and cheese is unknown. Little animal food is used in Siam, mutton and beef being very bad; and while the Chinese indulge in all viands, the doctrine of Boodh rather influences the Siamese, and induces a horror at the effusion of blood. So that Siam in this, as in other respects, forms a medial point of comparison between China and Hindostan. Yet in grand fest'vals the Chinese manner is sometimes adopted.

The houses are small, and constructed of bamboos upon pillars, to guard against inundations so common in this country. They are speedily destroyed and replaced; and a conflagration, if a common, is at the same time a slight calamity. Even the palaces only exceed the common habitations by occupying a more extensive space, and being constructed of timber, with a few ornaments: they are also of a greater height, but never exceed one floor. If they continue as Loubere describes them, they form a striking contrast with the splendid edifices of the Birmans; but it is probable that rivalry has produced greater pomp. Brick was however used in the construction of temples, and funeral pyramids. It is to be wished that Loubere had figured the latter as well as the former; and indeed to be regretted in general that a more intelligent voyager to Siam has not supplied any defects in his interesting narrative.

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In person the Siamese are rather small but well made.* "The figure of the countenance, both of men and women, has less of the oval than of the lozenge form, being broad, and raised at the top of the cheeks: and the forehead suddenly contracts, and is almost as pointed as the chin. Besides their eyes, rising somewhat towards the temples, are small and dull; and the *white* is commonly completely yellow. Their cheeks are hollow, because the upper part is too high: mouth very large, with thick pale lips, and teeth blackened by art. Complexion coarse, brown mixed with red, to which the climate greatly contributes."* PERSONAL FEATURES.

From this description it would appear that the Siamese are much inferior in personal appearance to the Birmans; and rather approach to the Tataric or Chinese features.

The dress is extremely slight, the warmth of the climate rendering clothes almost unnecessary. A muslin shirt with wide sleeves, and a kind of loose drawers, are almost the only garments of the rich, a mantle being added in winter. A high conic cap covers the head. The women do not use the shirt but a scarf; and the petticoat is of painted calico: but with this slight dress they are extremely modest. Dress.

The Siamese excel, as already mentioned, in theatrical amusements. The subjects are often taken from their mythology, and from traditions concerning their ancient heroes. According to Loubere the *Cone* is a kind of pantomime, with music and dancing: the *Lacone* is a serious drama, generally requiring three days to represent: the *Rabam* is a jocund dance by men and women. For an account of the other amusements the reader must be referred to that intelligent voyager; who describes the races of oxen and those of boats, the combats of elephants, cock-fighting, tumbling, wrestling, and rope-dancing, religious processions, and illuminations, and the beautiful exhibitions of fire works. The men are generally indolent to excess, and fond of games of chance, while the women are employed in works of industry. Amusements.

Like the other languages of further India the Siamese has not been completely investigated, and compared with the adjacent tongues. Language.

* Loub. i. 81.

* Kæmpfer, i. 29. calls them negroes, so dark did their complexions appear to him; and he compares their persons to apes.

LANGUAGE. There are thirty-seven letters, all consonants, while the Bali has thirty-three.* The vowels and diphthongs constitute a distinct alphabet. The R appears, which is not known to the Chinese, and the W. There is a considerable chant in the enunciation, as in other ancient languages; and as Europeans in general consider this change of voice as ridiculous, though really pleasant and strictly conformable to nature, it is in vain to attempt the just pronunciation of even Greek or Latin, till this prejudice be overcome, if it be not indeed invincible. There are no inflexions of verbs or nouns; and the idioms being very remote from those of Europe, any translation becomes very difficult. The words seem mostly monosyllabic, like the Chinese.

The Bali of the Siamese resembles that of the Birman; but a curious topic of research would be to compare the vulgar tongues of exterior India.

Literature.

In literature the Siamese are far from being deficient, and Loubere has well explained their modes of education.† At the age of seven or eight years the children are often placed in the convents of the Talapouts, where they are instructed in reading, writing, and accounts, for the mercantile profession is very general. They are also taught precepts of morality; but it is to be regretted that Boodh is not only the god of wisdom but of cunning, which is esteemed, if not a positive virtue, yet a proof of superior abilities, whence his followers ever attempt to over-reach others. This singular perversion of the moral sense, by which honesty and sincerity are branded as marks of folly, is not unknown to some Europeans, but has not yet been adopted as a precept of religion: in this respect therefore the morals of the Chinese, and other oriental traders, must be computed by a new standard. Books of history are not unknown, and there is an excellent code of laws. Poetry, tales, and mythologic fables, seem to constitute the other departments of Siamese literature.

Cities and Towns.

The capital city of the kingdom has been called Siam, by the vague ignorance of the Portuguese navigators. In the native language the name approaches to the European enunciation of Yuthia. It is situated in an isle, formed by the river Meinam. The walls, in Loubere's time, were

* Loub. ii. 73.

† Ib. i. 180.

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extensive; but not above a sixth part was inhabited. Its condition, since it was delivered from the Birman conquest in 1766, has not been described. Loubere's method is unhappily mingled and digressive, so that his information concerning the capital is suddenly interrupted by other topics. It must therefore suffice further to observe that the royal palace was on the north; and that on the east there was a causey,* affording the only free passage by land. Distinct quarters were inhabited by the Chinese, Japanese, Cochinchinese, Portuguese, and Malays. Mandello seems to have lent some faith to the fables of that notorious voyager Pinto; but Yuthia has not impressed other writers in a respectable point of view. The temples, pyramids, and royal palace, seem greatly inferior in all respects to those of the Birmans.†

The other chief towns in the Siamese dominions are Bangkok, at the mouth of the Meinam; with Ogmo and others on the eastern coast of the gulph of Siam. On the western D'Anville marks Cham, Cini, and others as far as Ligor. Along the banks of the great river are Louvo and Porfelouc, with others of inferior note. Loubere mentions Motac as the chief town on the N. W. frontier. Louvo was a royal residence for a considerable part of the year. In general these towns were only collections of hovels, sometimes surrounded with a wooden stockade, and rarely with a brick wall. As there is no complete description of the country, it would be superfluous to dwell on old descriptions of places perhaps ruined in the frequency of oriental revolutions; while other cities may have arisen as yet unknown to geography.

In the S. W. Tanaferim and Merghi must seemingly be now regarded as Birman possessions; and the remaining fragment of the Siamese territory in that quarter presents no considerable town, though villages appear in Jonksaylon and some of the other isles.

The industrious Kämpfer, on his voyage to Japan in 1690, visited Siam; and his account, though brief, is solid and interesting. He

* This word being from the French *chauffée*, *causeway* seems an odd colloquial translation.

† According to Turpin, i. 12. the Siamese denominate the royal city Sigarada, or simply Crung, that is to say, the court. It is surrounded by three great rivers, and the chief temples were in the southern quarter. During the inundation, which begins in the end of July, this city resembles Venice. The houses are of wood, but the king's palace of brick, gilt in many parts, the roofs being of tin with stripes of rich gilding.

minutely

EDIFICES.

minutely describes two remarkable edifices near the capital.¹ The first is the famous pyramid called Puka Thon, on a plain to the N. W., erected in memory of a victory there obtained over the king of Pegu. It is a massy but magnificent structure, about 120 feet in height, in a square spot inclosed by a wall. The first stage is square, each side being about 115 paces long. The others vary in form; and there are open galleries ornamented with columns. At the top it terminates in a slender spire. He mentions the surrounding temples as being built of brick, whence it may be inferred that the pyramid is of stone,* perhaps resembling those of the Birmans.

The second edifice consists of two squares to the east of the city, each surrounded with a fair wall, and separated by a channel of the river. They contain many temples, convents, chapels, and columns, particularly the temple of Berklam, with a grand gate ornamented with statues and other carvings; the other decorations were also, by his account, exquisite.

That intelligent voyager also describes some other edifices; and his ideas on the subject deserve to be contrasted with those of Loubere, who, accustomed to the pomp of Louis XIV, or disgusted by the massacre of his countrymen, may in this, and some other instances, have perhaps given unfavourable representations of this celebrated country.

Manufactures.

Though the Siamese be an indolent, yet they are an ingenious people, and some of their manufactures deserve praise. Yet the ruinous and despotic avarice of the government crushes industry by the uncertainty of property. The service of six months, due by every subject to the sovereign, also proves an invincible obstacle. They are little skilled in the fabrication of iron or steel; but excel in that of gold, and sometimes in miniature painting. The common people are mostly occupied in procuring fish for their daily food, while the superior classes are engaged in a trifling traffic.

Commerce.

Loubere gives us little or no intelligence on the nature of their commerce, passing, in his usual way, to the manner of signing names, the

¹ Kämpfer, i. 50.

* He specially mentions, i. 43. that many houses and some bridges in Yuthia were of stone: and he says, p. 45, that the temples exceed German churches in magnificence.

weights and measures, and the singular shape of their coins. Mandellso COMMERCE. informs us that the commerce of Yuthia consisted in cloths imported from Hindostan, and various articles from China; in exports of jewels, gold, benjoin, lacca, wax, tin, lead, &c. and particularly deer-skins, of which more than 150,000 were sold annually to the Japanese. Rice was also exported in great quantities to the Asiatic isles.

The king was, by a ruinous policy, the chief merchant, and had factors in most of the neighbouring countries. The royal trade consisted in cotton cloths, tin, ivory, saltpetre, rack, and skins sold to the Dutch.*

The following recent information is derived from a valuable collection.† "The productions of this country are prodigious quantities of grain, cotton, benjamin; sandal, aguallo, and sapan woods; antimony, tin, lead, iron, load-stones, gold, and silver; sapphires, emeralds, agates, crystal, marble, and tambac."

The considerations of the bishop of Tabraca upon the trade of Siam may be found interesting to this commercial country, and are therefore subjoined.*

"The misfortunes which attended the French expedition to Siam, in the reign of Louis XIV., have, without doubt, created a disgust against any new establishments. The French ministers have always resisted the solicitations of the missionaries; but, if we consider the advantages which other Europeans derive from their commerce with this kingdom, it must be agreed that the French, naturally impatient, easily allow themselves to be discouraged by the first obstacles, and that they disdain sources of wealth, if they do not open themselves under their feet.

"The Siamese king had permitted the French merchants to erect a factory, where they enjoyed the public esteem, and became the most favoured nation. Two cities had been yielded in absolute property to Louis XIV., in return for the troops that he had sent to defend the kingdom. The revolution, which happened during the administration of Phalcon, obliged the French to quit Siam, and from that period only a few of their ships from Surat have visited the ports of that country; while at first the supreme consul of Pondicherry sent several every

* Loub. i. 286.

† Dalrymple's Oriental Repertory, p. 113.

* Turp. ii. 351.

year,

COMMERCE. year, of which there was always one destined solely for the port of Merghi. They were exempt from paying the ordinary duties, and the French missionaries, respected on account of their integrity, were the only judges appointed to decide any disputes that might happen to arise between the Europeans and the natives.

"More than a century has past since the English had at Siam any factory or agent, though some of them carried on there a commerce more useful than offensive. It was the Dutch who had seized all the sources of wealth. Their factory was the most beautiful and spacious house in the kingdom, and they enjoyed great privileges. The king of Siam, from a mistaken policy, hurtful to his own interest as well as to those of his subjects, reserved to himself the exclusive privilege of carrying on foreign trade, which soon became languid, because the interested despot fixed at his will the price of merchandise.

"Since the last revolution the form of the government is absolutely changed, and it would now be easy for the French to re-establish their commerce by erecting a factory at Merghi, as before, or in the neighbourhood of the capital. They might protect this establishment by raising a fort, as their ancestors formerly did at Bancok, of which the foundations and ruins may be seen to this day. It was naturally defended by a large and deep river, resembling a lake; and was only about twelve leagues distant from the sea.

"The French might re-establish this fort: 1. Because they have a claim for the losses they sustained in 1680: 2. Because the ground had been formerly ceded to them: 3. Because there remain considerable sums due by the government of Siam to the French India company: and lastly, by the facility of over-awing a pusillanimous people, which trembles at the sight of an armed Frenchman.

"Since the retreat of the Birmas into their country, the kingdom of Siam is governed by many little tyrants who destroy each other. Bancok and Merghi have their little princes. The French ministry might enter into an agreement with one of these usurpers; who, flattered with the protection of France, would willingly yield a spot of ground where a citadel might be erected for the protection of her trade. This factory and

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and fortrefs would serve at a mart to Pondicherry, in carrying on the Chinese trade. The country produces all the materials requisite for building, as brick, and lime made of shells.

“ All the neighbouring nations would crowd there to traffic; and many Christian families, wandering without a country since the irruption of the Birmas, would here find a refuge. The Chinese, who equip ships at a very small expence, sometimes sent forty in the course of one year. They would be eager to bring hither their merchandise from the hopes of a quicker sale; and our India company would save the expences which consume a part of the profit from the necessity of so distant a voyage. The Mahometans, descended from the Arabs, the Monguls, and the Persians, have long maintained commercial relations with the royal city; and to renew them, they only wait for an establishment, which would open easy and profitable channels of trade.

“ The foundations would be easy to form, and the means of strengthening them would be found in the re-establishment of the college, which the French missionaries possessed in this kingdom, where they enjoyed great consideration; and it would be advantageous to find in this foreign country a society familiar with the manners, the customs, the vices, and the virtues, of men whose fellow-citizens they had become. The knowledge of the languages used in all the neighbouring countries would furnish a great resource; and the French merchants would no longer be exposed to the risk of unfaithful interpreters.

“ In the description of this kingdom may be seen the various productions which might form objects of commerce. If even the branches were not found to be so extensive, as might be expected in a country which produces ambergris, agates, diamonds, pearls, perfumes, sweet-scented and dying woods, there would still be a sufficient recompence by the advantages which might be procured by a trade with the surrounding nations, of which this kingdom is by its position the point of reunion.”

CHAPTER IV.

NATURAL GEOGRAPHY.

Climate and Seasons.—Face of the Country.—Soil and Agriculture.—Rivers.—Lakes.—Mountains.—Botany.—Zoology.—Mineralogy.

CLIMATE.
AND
SEASONS.

THE two first months of the Siamese year, which correspond with our December and January, form the whole winter of this country: the third, fourth, and fifth, belong to what is called their little summer; the seven others to their great summer.* Being on the north of the line, their winter of course corresponds with ours; but is almost as warm, says our author, as a French summer. The little summer is their spring; but autumn is absolutely unknown in their calendar. The winter is dry; the summer moist; the former is distinguished by the course of the wind, which blows almost constantly from the north, refreshed with cold from the snowy mountains of Tibet, and the bleak wastes of Mongolia.

Face of the
Country.

This country, as already mentioned, is a wide vale between two high ridges of mountains, thus somewhat resembling Egypt on a wider scale. Compared with the Birman empire, the cultivated level is not above half the extent either in breadth or length. Nor do the Siamese seem so industrious as the Birmans, as their agriculture does not appear to extend far from the banks of the river and its branches; so that towards the mountains there are vast aboriginal forests filled with wild animals, whence the numbers of deer and other skins exported as merchandise. The rocky and variegated shores of the noble gulf of Siam, and the size and inundations of the Meinam, conspire with the rich and picturesque vegetation of the forests, illumined at night with crowds of brilliant fireflies, to impress strangers with delight and admiration.

* Loub. i. 53.

The soil towards the mountains is parched and unfertile, but on the shores of the river consists, like that of Egypt, of an extremely rich and pure mould, in which it is even difficult to find a pebble. It is in fact a muddy deposition, accumulating from early ages, and manured, as it were, by regular inundations, so as to produce exuberant quantities of rice. The country would be a terrestrial paradise, were it not subject to the most absurd despotism, which impoverishes itself, and may perhaps be classed among the worst of governments, being far inferior to that of their neighbours the Birmans.

Agriculture, as usual in the east, is simple and primitive. The chief product is rice of excellent quality; but wheat is not unknown, in lands not subject to the inundations. Peas, and other vegetables, also abound. Maiz is confined to their gardens. From indolence or prejudice seldom more than one annual crop is taken from the same land.^a

The grand river Meinam, a name which signifies the *mother of waters*, reigns supreme among the Siamese streams. Loubere^b asserts that this river is so small when it enters the dominions of Siam, that for about fifty leagues it can only convey small boats, not capable of carrying above four or five persons. By his account it is afterwards swelled, at the town of Laconcevan, by another considerable river from the north, also called Meinam: but this in our modern maps^c is a mere reunion of a branch of the river; and this error of Louberc may lead us to suspect his information concerning the smallness of the stream, which may probably be only impeded by *rapides*, or declivitous cataracts. On the contrary, when we consider the regular inundations, resembling those of the Nile and Ganges, rivers of long course, and other circumstances, there is room to infer that the Meinam is of a more distant and higher extract than from the mountains of Yunnan in the west of China; and that the Tibetan alps furnish its source in that of the Nou Kian of the lamas, supposed to be the Thaluan or river of Martaban, which has no delta, nor any marks of so distant an origin, but is represented by Loubere and D'Anville as a short and insignificant stream.

^a Loub. i. 50, who has engraved the Siamese plough.

^b Ib. i. 7.

* D'Anville however follows Loubere.

RIVERS.

However this be, the Meinam is deservedly celebrated among the oriental rivers. Kämpfer informs us that it is very deep and rapid, always full, and larger than the Elbe.* He adds that the inhabitants suppose its source to be in the mountains which give rise to the Ganges, and that it branches through Cambodia and Pegu, an account somewhat confirmed by the discovery of the river Anan, which connects the Meinam with the river of Cambodia. But they fabled that other branches passed through immense forests even to the Ganges. The inundations are in September, after the snows have greatly melted in the northern mountains, and the rainy season has commenced. In December the waters decline, and sink by degrees to their former level. The same intelligent traveller informs us that the water in the earth swells before the river rise: that the wells are nitrous, but the water of the Meinam, though muddy, is pleasant and salutary: that the inundations are chiefly perceivable towards the centre of the kingdom, not near the sea, the causes being somewhat exhausted: that the rice is reaped in boats, and the straw left in the water: that a festival is celebrated in December, when the wind begins to blow from the north, and the inundation abates.

The banks of the Meinam are generally low and marshy, but thickly peopled from Yuthia to Bangkok, below which are wild deserts like the Sunderbunds of the Ganges. Monkeys, fire-flies, and mosquitoes, swarm on the fertile shores.

To the north of the Siamese dominions some rivers join the Meinam; but their names are unknown, and they belong to the Birman territories. The same observation may be applied to the river of Tanaserim, and that of Tavoy. In the S. E. is that of Shantebon; and a stream which joins the delta of the Meinam.

Lakes.

In the east of the kingdom a small lake is delineated, giving source to a river which flows into that of Cambodia; and it is probable that others may exist near the mountains, though unknown to geographers.

Mountains.

The extensive ranges of mountains which inclose this kingdom on the east and west have been repeatedly mentioned. These may be called

* Kämpfer, i. 67. Fr. edit.

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the Siamese chains, till the native names be ascertained. A small ridge MOUN-
TAINS. also passes east and west, not far to the north of Yuthia, which Loubere seems to call Taramamon. In the north Siam terminates in plains; nor does it, even by conquest, seem ever to have reached the mountains on the Chinese frontier.

The forests are numerous and large, and produce many kinds of va- Forests. luable woods; but the teak is not mentioned.

The chief animals of Siam are elephants, buffaloes, and deer. Horses: Zoology. Horses seem little known or used, though found wild in Tibet: yet there are or were, a few ill-mounted cavalry. The elephants of Siam are of distinguished sagacity and beauty; and those of a white colour are treated with a kind of adoration, as the Siamese believe the soul of such is royal. Wild boars, tigers, and monkies, are also numerous. The Meinam is, at distant intervals of time, infested with small poisonous serpents; and the trees on its banks are, as already mentioned, beautifully illuminated with swarms of fire-flies, which emit and conceal their light as uniformly as if it proceeded from a machine of the most exact contrivance.

Mandello, or rather his translator Wicquefort, who added, about the Mineralogy. year 1670, the accounts of Pegu, Siam, Japan, &c., informs us that Siam contains mines of gold, silver, tin, and copper. Loubere dedicates a whole chapter to the Siamese mines; and expresses an opinion that they were in preceding ages more industriously wrought, as the ancient pits evinced; not to mention the great quantity of gold, which must have been employed in richly gilding the idols, pillars, ciclings, and even roofs of their temples. In his time, though Europeans were employed, no mine of gold or silver could be found which was worth the working. Yet some copper mines were discovered, which yielded a small proportion of gold: and a larger proportion constituted the metal called *tambac*. The best native *tambac* was found in the isle of Borneo. Le Blanc says that the Peguese had a mixture, probably artificial, of copper and lead, which they called *gansa*.

Loubere adds that a French physician employed by the Siamese monarch, had discovered antimony, emery, and some other minerals, with
a quarry

MINERALOGY.

a quarry of white marble. He also boasted that he had found a mine of gold, which he concealed from the natives.

But the mines chiefly wrought by the Siamese were of tin and lead. The tin, called *calin* by the Portuguese, was sold throughout the Indies, but was soft and ill refined, as it appeared in the tea-cannisters then used. Loubere adds that zink was added to form tutenag; an error, for tutenag is a native mixture of zink and iron. In another passage he informs us that all the tin, except that of Junkfeylon, was a royal perquisite¹.

Near Louvo was a mountain of load-stone: and another in Junkfeylon of inferior quality. Fine agates abounded in the mountains, nor were sapphires unknown; but the addition of diamonds seems doubtful, if the doubt be not a negation that so precious a substance should remain so long unknown. The *mines of steel*, mentioned by our author, seem to imply a pure iron easily converted into steel, or rather a carbonated ore of iron, which was however so little wrought that wooden anchors were used.*

The chorography of Siam is too imperfect to supply any account of mineral waters, or natural curiosities.

Isles.

Among the numerous and minute isles which owe a doubtful subjection to Siam, Junkfeylon alone deserves mention, if it be not reduced under the power of the Birman. By Captain Forest's account, who visited this isle in 1784, it annually exports about 500 tons of tin, and contains 12,000 inhabitants.

¹ Loubere, i. 287.

* The work of Turpin, adds little or nothing to our knowledge of Siamese mineralogy, and he seems indebted to Loubere. His whole knowledge on the subject is confined to three pages, i. 208. He speaks of the mines of gold as being exhausted or unknown, and says that none have been wrought except those of tin, lead, and iron. The tin ore resembles a black sand, is washed in order to detach it from the soil, and forms a great article of commerce. Pearls are found near the isles of Merghi, and he asserts that a mine of diamonds was discovered in the mountains, but neglected. His account of the Calin, i. 213, is borrowed from Loubere.

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THE other states of exterior India are Laos, Cambodia, Siampa, Cochin-China, and Tunquin; countries unimportant in themselves, and concerning which the materials are imperfect.

L A O S.

ACCORDING to Kämpfer¹ this was a powerful state, surrounded with forests and deserts: and difficult of access by water, because the river is full of rocks and cataracts. But by the newly discovered river of Anan the passage from Siam may perhaps be expedited. The soil is represented as fertile in rice; and Laos furnished the merchants of Cambodia with the best benjoin and lacca. Exquisite musk is also brought from Laos, with some gold and rubies; and the rivers boast of the fresh water mya, which yields pearls. The religion and manners resemble those of Siam; but in personal appearance the people of Laos resemble the southern Chinese. The chief towns were, in Kämpfer's time, Landjam and Tfiamaja. The former is also styled Lantchang; and Sandepora is added in modern maps: from the former the people are called Lanjanese.

This kingdom, from its inland situation, is less known than any other state of further India, and scarcely any recent materials can be indicated. It remains an object of curious investigation to future travellers.* Du Halde has however published a rout from China to Siam by land, in which some account is given of Lahos or Laos. In the language of the country Mohang signifies a town; and the capital is styled Mohang Leng by the Chinese.² It is of considerable extent, but only inclosed with a palisade: on the west are large forests and several rivers. This city stands on both sides of a river called Meinam Tai, which by the Chinese accounts joins the river of Siam, so that perhaps

¹ Kämpfer, i. 40.

* The common accounts in geographical compilations are derived from Marini, an Italian Jesuit, whose account of Tunquin and Laos appeared about 1650, and a French translation 1661,

⁴ 10.

² Du Halde, i. 125.

the Anan is to the south of the capital. Fish is rare, but buffalo and venison are common in the markets. About five days journey to the north of Mohang Leng are mines of gold, silver, and copper; and one of rubies near the city: emeralds are also found, of great size. Tin, red sulphur, (perhaps cinnabar, or rather realgar,) cotton, tea, sapan or brasil-wood, are also exported. Laos was then tributary to Ava: but the chief trade was with the Chinese. Du Halde's account is not a little confused; and though he give the names of many provinces and towns, it would be impossible to construct a sketch of a map from his description. The chief river is styled Meinam Kong, which afterwards passes through Cambodia. It would seem that branches of the same river are distinguished by different names. In Mr. Dalrymple's valuable map of exterior India this grand stream is called the Kiou Long, or Maykaung; and Mr. Arrowsmith derives it from the Tibetan alps, where it is styled the Satchou, and afterwards by D'Anville the Lan-tan Kiang; which seems to identify it as implying the river of Lantsang, or Leng, the capital of Laos.

The most recent account of this country seems to be that given by M. Turpin*. According to this author, the name Laos implies a thousand elephants, and was derived from the great abundance of these animals. The climate is so temperate, and the air so pure, that men are said to be healthy and vigorous sometimes to the age of one hundred years. The flat part of the country nearly resembles Siam, but the eastern bank of the river is more fertile than the western. The rice is more esteemed than that of other oriental countries.

Though the ivory be beautiful, the horn of the rhinoceros is preferred, and is kept with superstitious attention, being thought to insure the felicity of the possessor. The florid fields supply food to numerous swarms of bees, and the wax and honey are excellent. Rich mines of tin, iron, and lead are found in the mountains; but gold and silver are only sought in the sands of the rivers, and explored with small nets of iron. Musk is not a product of the country; and it is difficult to define the meaning of our author, when, on this and on other occasions, he mentions ambergris, a marine production. The fish in the main river

* Turpin, ii. 381.

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may be very large ; but where do they procure the salted herrings which they eat with rice ? Equally great is his skill in natural history, when he informs us that rubies are produced by a saline scum which covers the fields after the rice harvest !

The Chinese carried on a considerable commerce with Laos, before the irruption of the Tatars, exchanging velvets, silks, cottons, and porcelain, for ivory, opium, and medicinal plants.

In the province of Laos, which imparts its name to the kingdom, there is a deep mine, which affords rubies, and above all, beautiful emeralds, of which one in the royal treasury is said to be as large as a common orange.

The people of Laos are said to rank among the few honest nations in the east, being celebrated for the rectitude of their procedure, and fidelity to their promise. They are very sensible of their reputation on these objects ; and if a traveller be robbed, the nearest town or village is obliged to indemnify him for the damage sustained. On the other hand, they are indolent and luxurious, and given to the study of magic, so prevalent amongst numerous nations, that one would be led to imagine that nonsense is the superlative attribute of mankind.

Our author computes the Laotian army at five hundred thousand combatants, in which he is as credible, as when he adds, that a numerous army might be raised of men who have lived a century. The people pass the bounds of oriental sobriety, eating daily four repasts of rice, fish, and the flesh of the buffalo.

Marriages are easily contracted and dissolved, and the rich entertain numerous concubines. A funeral is rather a festival ; and a sum of money is deposited in the tomb, which the priests take care to circulate after a decent period.

The commerce of this country was formerly chiefly with Siam, and after the irruption of the Birmas, it passed to Pegu ; latterly the trade of Laos has been transferred to Cambodia.

The Laotians boast that they taught the Siamese the art of writing on the leaves of the palm tree. The tongue and characters are said to be the same ; but a Laotian cannot pronounce the letters *L*. and *R*.

Their ancient worship is said to have been very pure, and directed solely to one God the Creator of all, who was only to be pleased by the exercise of virtue, and not by sacrifices, ceremonies, and the observance of certain days. The commerce with China corrupted this purity of faith. Priests appeared, and produced books written in foreign language and characters; and were credited, because they were not understood. They believe in regular renovations of the universe; and that our earth has attained the age of eighteen thousand years. Polygamy is one of the promised joys of paradise; but as this idea does not delight the ladies, they have solemn assurances that, if they lead a virtuous life, they shall be changed into men, and take a sweet vengeance for the privations they have suffered. The priests console themselves for their celibacy, in the firm belief, that in another world they can create as many women as they choose, by a sacred privilege peculiar to their order. Some of their ceremonies, like those of Tibet, seem to have passed from the Nestorian Christians. They even sell dispensations and pardons to the rich, while the poor alone are condemned to perpetual misery.

C A M B O D I A.

This country is also called Camboja and Camboge; and being partly maritime, is known by repeated descriptions. Like Siam, it is inclosed by mountains on the east and west, and fertilized by a grand river, the Maykaung or Makon, near its estuary, from some absurd caprice, called the Japanese river. In the compilation by Wicquefort, styled the voyage of Mandello, it is said that this river begins to inundate the country in June. Near its mouth it is full of low isles and sandbanks, so that the navigation is impeded, and there is no port nor town. The country is thinly peopled, and the capital called Cambodia, perhaps because we know not the native term, consists only of one

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street, with a single temple. The most peculiar product is the substance styled gamboge, or rather Camboge gum, yielding a fine yellow tint. Ivory also abounds, with several precious woods: and some add gold. The country is fertile in rice, and animal food. There are many Japanese settlers, with Chinese and Malays, which last can scarcely be distinguished from the natives, who are of a dark yellow complexion, with long black hair.

It is unnecessary to enlarge on the old and trivial accounts of this country. M. Poivre¹ observes that, not far from the capital, the traveller sees with astonishment the ruins of an ancient city built with stone, the architecture somewhat resembling the European, while the adjacent lands are marked with furrows of former cultivation. Among the present possessors of the country no tradition exists concerning this city. But French travellers are often fond of the romantic; and this information remains to be consulted or confirmed.*

Turpin in his work, constructed upon the papers of the French missionaries in Siam, gives some additional information concerning this kingdom. Its vicinity to the line renders the heat so great that there are few habitations, except on banks of rivers or of lakes, where the musquitos are numerous and offensive. Among the products he mentions excellent sugar and indigo, fruits of many kinds, sandal and other precious woods, with opium and camphor. The mountains produce fine rock crystal, and he adds amethysts, jacinths, rubies, tapazes. Silk and ivory are common: an ox weighing five hundred pounds does not cost above three shillings, and one hundred and forty pounds of rice may be had for the value of four-pence.

The coasts, which extend about one hundred and forty leagues, only present about five or six ports where vessels can anchor with safety. The most celebrated is opposite to Siam, and carries on a considerable trade in lacquer and elephants' teeth. There are many small islands between Cambodia and Siam, which render the navigation dangerous. The natives are mingled with Japanese, Malays, and Portuguese, the latter being a degenerate race, partly lapsed into idolatry; and the mo-

¹ Poivre, 78.

* He tells, p. 105, a similar tale of a brick wall near the capital of Cochin-China.

desty of the women is far from being equal to their beauty. The Dutch were viewed with jealousy ; and other nations have been disgusted from forming any lasting settlement in that country.

Their religious creed partakes of the Mahometan voluptuousness ; and the first class of priests has usurped the precedence over the monarch, who, in other respects, is despotic. He seizes on the property of his subjects, or rather slaves ; and the right of inheritance is violated by his caprice. The country is in consequence little populous, as tyranny exhausts its own wealth and power.

SIAMPA.

THIS small maritime tract is to the S. E. of Cambodia, from which it seems to be separated by a ridge of mountains. Mr. Pennant* informs us, from an old French narrative, that the people of this country are called Loyes ; and are large, muscular, and well made, complexion reddish, nose rather flat, with long black hair : dress very slight. The king resides at Feneri, the capital, and was tributary to Cochin-China. Productions, cotton, indigo, and bad silk. Their junks are well built, and are much employed in fishing.

Turpin adds, that the people of Siampa are mild and affable, especially towards strangers, and live in a severe subordination. The creed of Mahomet is here mingled with that of Confucius, the paradise of the prophet finding easy belief amongst the voluptuous orientals. But the shade of faith becomes obscure, and the pretended followers of the Koran devour pork, and lend their concubines to strangers.†

The Chinese arrive yearly with tea, porcelain, silk, and other articles, which they exchange for odoriferous woods and gold.

* With D'Anville he spells the name Ciampa. Staunton, i. 364, puts Tsiompa, and says it appears from the sea as a sandy tract intersected with rocks.

† Outlines, iii. 51.

† Turpin, ii. 404.

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COCHIN-CHINA.

THIS country, presenting an extensive range of coast, has been visited by many navigators, who have supplied considerable materials for its description. The name is said to imply Western China, and appears to have been imposed by the early navigators, perhaps from the Malay appellation, while the native name remains unknown. In his account of the late embassy to China Sir G. Staunton has given a comparatively ample description of this country.

An usurper had extended his conquests over Tunquin, while the descendants of the former royal family were restricted to the southern districts. A considerable degree of civilization appeared, and it is said that the people are of Chinese extract: nay some assert that this country was anciently a part of that great empire. The aboriginal savages, called Moos or Kemoos, are confined to the western range of mountains. As the shores abound with havens, the canoes and junks are numerous. The harbour, called Turon by Europeans, is a noble inlet, minutely described by our author. The country is divided into distinct provinces, the capital being Hue-fo, about forty miles to the north of Turon, which is called Han-san by the natives. It was reported that the garrison in Hue-fo amounted to not less than thirty thousand men, armed with matchlocks, besides elephants of war. Sabres and pikes are also used.

The superior ranks are clothed in silk, and display the politeness of Chinese manners. The dress of both sexes is similar, being loose robes with large long sleeves; and cotton tunics and trowsers. A kind of turban covers the head of the men: but no shoes nor slippers are used. The houses are mostly of bamboo, covered with rushes or the straw of rice: and stand in groves of oranges, limes, plantains, and cocoa trees. Poultry abounds in the markets; and at an entertainment were served pork and beef, two porcupine quills supplying a knife and fork. An ardent

ardent spirit is drank distilled from rice, and the amusements of the theatre are not unknown. They evince some skill in the manufacture of iron, and their earthen ware is very neat. The rainy season is during September, October, and November; and the three following months are also cold and moist, presenting the semblance of an European winter. The inundations only last two or three days, but happen once a fortnight in the rainy season. Borri's account bears that the rains only continue for three days regularly in each fortnight: if true a singular phænomenon.' March, April, May, form a delicious spring; while the heat of the three following months is rather excessive.

The horses are small, but active: there are also mules, and asses, and innumerable goats. The products of agriculture are rice of different qualities, yams, sweet potatoes, greens, pumpkins, melons. Sugar abounds, and is excellently purified by a process described by Staunton. Gold dust is found in the rivers; and the mines yield ore of singular purity. Silver mines have also been lately discovered. Both metals are used in ingots, as in China. The little trade is chiefly conducted by the Portuguese from Macao.

Mr. Pennant mentions tigers, elephants, and monkeys, as abounding in Cochin-China;¹ and that able naturalist adds that the edible birds' nests, esteemed a luxury in China, are chiefly found in this country. They are formed by a species of swallows from some unknown viscous substance; and the Dutch used to export great numbers from Batavia, gathered in the oriental isles, and on the coast of this country.

The French missionaries in Siam observed that the chief commerce of that country was with Cochin-China. It is a very populous and fertile country, the mud left by the inundations serving the purpose of manure. The rhinoceros abounds in the mountains, being larger and more vigorous than in most other oriental countries: we are told that the foot of the male is half a yard in circumference, and the tusks sometimes of the incredible length of five yards!* When travellers detail such extraordinary circumstances, they ought at least to be extremely minute, and circumstantial; for truth itself is not always probable.

¹ Churchill's Col. vol. ii.

^{*} Outlines, iii, 65.

^{*} Turpin, ii. 408.

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Bad silk abounds to such a degree as even to supply nets, ropes, and sails. Oil is derived from the land tortoise. Wine seems not to be unknown; but arrack is generally preferred. The great are magnificent in their dress, using many pearls which they prefer to diamonds. The women are veiled; but when saluted they display their countenance.

Their religion resembles that of China, but the temples are neglected. The first act of theft is punished by the loss of a finger, the second by that of an ear, and the third by death.

Besides a capitation tax, amounting to about twelve shillings sterling upon each male, from the age of eighteen to that of sixty, each subject is obliged to labour for the sovereign during eight months of the year. Property is little respected, the king commonly seizing upon the estates at the death of the possessors, and leaving nothing to the children except the money and moveables.

The constitution is entirely military, but the chief dignities of the state are entrusted to eunuchs, on the supposition that having no children they will be less avaricious; the soldiers are clothed with satin and the officers with velvet inwoven with gold or silver. There are even military schools, where children are educated at the expence of the public treasury. Emulation is excited by recompenses, and by shame, robes of silk and other decorations being assigned to those who excel; while linen garments degrade those who do not profit by the lessons and example.

A still more recent account of this country shall here be presented to the reader in the words of the author, Mr. Chapman, who passed hither from Bengal in 1778.*

"Cochin-China, called by the natives Anam, extends from about the 20th degree of north latitude to Pulo Condore which lies in 8° 40'. It is bounded by the kingdom of Tonquin on the north, from which it is separated by the river Sungen, by the kingdom of Laos, and by a range of mountains, which divides it from Cambodia on the west; and by that part of the eastern Ocean, generally called the China sea, on the south and east.

* Asiatic Register, iii. 84.

"The

" The kingdom is divided into twelve provinces all lying upon the sea coast, and succeeding each other from north to south.

" The breadth of the country bears no proportion to its length. Few of the provinces extend further than a degree from east to west, some less than 20 miles: Donai, which is properly a province of Cambodia, is much larger.

" The whole country is intersected by rivers which, although not large enough to admit of vessels of great burthen, yet are exceedingly well calculated for promoting inland commerce.

" The climate is healthy, the violent heat of the summer months being tempered by regular breezes from the sea. September, October, and November, are the seasons of the rains; the low lands are then suddenly overflowed by immense torrents of water which fall from the mountains. The inundations happen generally once a fortnight, and last for three or four days. In December, January, and February, there are frequently rains brought by cold northerly winds, which distinguish this country with a winter different from any other in the East. The inundations have the same effect here as the overflowings of the Nile in Egypt, and render the country one of the most fruitful in the world. In many parts the land produces three crops of grain in the year. All the fruits of India are found here in the greatest perfection, with many of those of China.

" No country in the East produces richer, or a greater variety of articles proper for carrying on an advantageous commerce, cinnamon, pepper, cardemoms, silk, cotton, sugar, Agula-wood, Japan-wood, ivory &c. Gold is taken almost pure from the mines; and before the troubles great quantities were brought from the hills in dust, and bartered by the rude inhabitants of them for rice, cloths, and iron. It was from them also the Agula and Calambac woods were procured, with quantities of wax, honey, and ivory.

" The animals of Cochin-China are bullocks, goats, swine, buffaloes, elephants, camels, and horses. In the woods are found the wild boar, tyger, and rhinoceros, with plenty of deer; the poultry is excellent, and the fish caught on the coast abundant and delicious. The flesh of the elephant is accounted a great dainty by the Cochin-Chinese. The breeding

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ing of bullocks is little attended to; their flesh is not esteemed as food, and they are made no use of in tilling the land, which is performed by buffaloes. They are totally unacquainted with the art of milking their cattle.

“ The aborigines of Cochin-China are called Moys, and are the people which inhabit the chain of mountains which separate it from Combodia. To these strong holds they were driven when the present possessors invaded the country. They are a savage race of people, very black, and resemble in their features the Caffres.

“ It was about the year 1280 of the Christian era, that the first Tatar prince became possessed of the throne of China. This revolution afforded an opportunity to the western provinces to throw off their dependence, and they were formed into a kingdom, under a prince whose descendant now reigns in Tunquin, and is called Knaw-Whang. About the beginning of the fifteenth century, a large body of people from these provinces being disaffected to the government, joined under a leader of abilities; they soon became masters of the coast of Cochin-China, as far as Cape Aurilla which lies in latitude 12° 30' N. The Moys, the original inhabitants, retired to the hills bordering their country to the westward, where they have ever since remained. The emigrants, under their conductor, founded the kingdom of Cochin-China. The continual wars they were engaged in with the Tunquinefe, induced them to build a wall on the southern extremity of the province of Dingnoi, to prevent their irruptions. Every communication by sea was strictly forbidden. In the year 1764 the country of Cochin-China was in a flourishing condition, and governed by a prince of abilities; soon after his son, whose misfortunes and fate has been briefly given in the foregoing narrative, succeeded to the throne, and anarchy and confusion ensued.

“ The Cochin-Chinese bear evident marks of their being derived from the same stock as the Chinese. They resemble them in their features and most of their manners and customs. Their religion is the same: their oral language, though different, seems formed upon the same principles, and they use the same characters in writing. They are a courteous, affable, inoffensive race, rather inclined to indolence. The ladies are by far the most active sex; they usually do all the business, while

their lazy lords sit upon their haunches, smoking, chewing beetle, or sipping tea. Contrary to the custom of China, the ladies are not shut up; and if unmarried, a temporary connection with strangers who arrive in the country is deemed no dishonour. Merchants often employ them as their factors and brokers, and 'tis said the firmest reliance may be placed on their fidelity.

“The habit of the men and women is cut after the same fashion. It is a loose robe, buttoning with a small knob round the neck, and folding over the breast like a banyan gown, with large long sleeves which cover the hands. People of rank, and especially the ladies, wear several of these gowns, one over the other; the undermost reaches to the ground, the succeeding ones are each shorter than the other, so that the display of the different colours makes a gawdy appearance as they walk along.

“Such are the few particulars relative to Cochin-China. It now remains to shew how a connection with Cochin-China may prove beneficial to this country. The drain of specie from the Company's settlements in India, is become a matter of such serious import, that any plan which may be offered to remedy so growing an evil, I have no doubt, will be deemed worthy of observation. I am sanguine in my expectations, that a settlement in Cochin-China would conduce to that desirable end, as well as be productive of many other advantages.

“Our two little vessels brought from Cochin-China to the amount of 60,000 rupees in gold and silver bullion. The Rumbold, the year before, also brought bullion to a considerable amount, on account of sales of Bengal, and Madras cloths, opium, iron, copper, lead, hardware, and glass.

“The situation of Cochin-China is excellently well adapted to commerce. Its vicinity to China, Tunquin, Japan, Cambodia, Siam, the Malay coast, the Philippines, Borneo, the Moluccas, &c. renders the intercourse with all these countries short and easy. The commodious harbours formed on the coast particularly that of Turon, affords a safe retreat for ships of any burthen during the most tempestuous seasons of the year.

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"The nations of Europe, having hitherto found it impossible to provide cargoes sufficiently valuable to barter for the commodities of China, are obliged to make up the deficiency by sending thither immense quantities of bullion; by which means it has, for a number of years past, drained the eastern and western worlds of their specie. The number of junks annually resorting to Cochin-China, plainly proves how much the productions of it are in demand amongst the Chinese. These productions, had we a settlement and a confirmed influence in the country, might with ease be brought to center with us; purchased with the staples of India and of Europe, Turon would become the emporium for them, where our ships bound to Canton, from whence it is only five days sail, might call and receive them. It would prove a saving of so much specie to Great Britain or India as the value of the commodities amounted to in China. In a few years, there is every reason to believe, a very considerable investment might be provided.

"Our trade to China has ever been burthened with enormous imposts and exactions. These, under various pretences, are annually increasing, and in process of time may become insupportable. It is an opinion lately grown current, that the Chinese are desirous of totally excluding all Europeans from their country. May we not hazard a conjecture, that the vexations they oblige them to suffer are the premeditated schemes of this politic people to effect it? Were such an event to happen, the want of a settlement to the eastward would be severely felt; the Chinese would export their own commodities, and Java, or the Philippines, as the nearest ports, would become the marts for them. As there is no reason to suppose that our inability to procure them from the first land would hinder their consumption, we must buy them either from the Dutch or from the Spaniards. A settlement in Cochin-China will give us a superior advantage to either, both as its situation is nearer, and the Chinese are more accustomed to resort thither: At all events there is reason to suppose it will enable us to procure the commodities of China at a much more reasonable rate, than now purchased by our factors at Canton, and certainly on less humiliating terms to the nation at large. Colonies of Chinese have, from time to time, emigrated from the parent country, and fixed their abode in different parts of Cochin-

China. These have their correspondence in every sea-port of the empire. Through their means teas, China-ware, and the various other articles, the objects of our commerce with China, might be imported in junks to our own settlements, equally good in quality, and cheaper, as the Chinese are exempted from the exorbitant duties levied on foreigners. Some of the best workmen might be encouraged to settle in Cochin-China, and under direction, manufactures carried to as great a degree of perfection as in China itself.

“ The intercourse between Japan and Cochin-China might be renewed, and we might participate in a trade for many years monopolized by the Dutch. An advantageous trade might be carried on with the Philippine islands, and Madras and Bengal goods introduced amongst them, by means of the junks, for the consumption of Spanish America. The Siamese and Cambodians would bring the produce of their respective countries, and barter or sell them for such articles as they wanted from Cochin-China. Amongst them it is probable a sale might be found for quantities of Bengal cloths. The lower class of people in Cochin-China are, for the most part, clothed in cangas, a coarse cotton cloth brought from China; but the preference which I had an opportunity of observing they gave to Bengal cloths, on account of their being wider and cheaper, would soon induce them to adopt the use of them. The demand for opium, already in some measure become a necessary of life to the Chinese, would increase in proportion to the facility of procuring it. The importation of it, no longer confined to Canton, but carried by the junks to every sea-port in the country, would spread the demand for this drug to the remotest parts of the empire.

“ But what inspires the most flattering hopes from an establishment in this country, is its rich gold mines, celebrated for ages as producing the richest ore, so pure, that the simple action of fire is said to be sufficient to refine it. I omitted no opportunity of making inquiries respecting this valuable article, and was told, that mines were formed in different parts of the northern provinces, and particularly in Huè, where the ore lay so near the surface of the earth, that it was dug up with little labour. Under the direction of a skilful metallurgist, what might not be expected from such a source?

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“Great as the commercial advantages are, the political ones resulting from a settlement in Cochin-China would be scarce inferior. Turon Bay would not only afford a secure retreat to our Indiamen, in case of losing their passage to China, but from thence we might also intercept the fleets of any hostile power, either going to, or returning from that country. We should become formidable neighbours to the Dutch and to the Spaniards, and in the event of a war with either or them, attack with advantage, their most valuable settlements.

“Should the company be induced to form a settlement in Cochin-China, it may be effected on principles strictly just, and at a small expence. Several of the royal family, besides the mandarins who were in Bengal, with many officers of the late government, urged me to use my endeavours with the government of Bengal to induce it to afford them assistance, promising a powerful support whenever we should heartily join in their cause. To restore their lawful sovereign to the throne, would be now a measure so popular that the sincerity of their offers cannot be doubted. To relieve an unhappy people, groaning under the weight of the most cruel oppression, would be an act worthy of the British nation. Fifty European infantry, half that number of artillery, and two hundred Sepoys, would be sufficient for this and every other purpose. The natives of Cochin-China are infinitely below the inhabitants of Hindostan in military knowledge. I have, however, no doubt that a body of them, well disciplined and regularly paid, would prove as faithful to us, and contribute as much to the security of any possessions which we might acquire to the eastward, as the sepoy do to our territories in India. In case of any distant expeditions, they would be found superior, being entirely free from all religious prejudices, and having no objection to the sea.

“While Cochin-China remains in its present distracted state, a favourable opening is presented to the first European nation that may attempt to obtain a footing in the country. Should the company, therefore, entertain a design of forming an establishment in Cochin-China, no time should be lost in carrying it into execution.”

The Paracels form a long chain of small islands with rocks and shoals, parallel to the coast of Cochin-China.

“Great

TUNQUIN.

THIS country was only divided from the former by a small river, and may at present be considered as incorporated with it by conquest. The inhabitants resemble their neighbours the Chinese, but their manners are not so civilized. The products are numerous, and seem to blend those of China with those of Hindostan. While the rivers in Cochin-China are of a short course, those of Tunquin spring from the mountains of Yunnan; and in the rainy season, from May to September, inundate the adjacent country. The chief is the Holi Kian, which, after receiving the Li-sien, passes by Kesho the capital. This city is described by Dampier, an observant voyager, as approaching the Chinese form, with a considerable population.

In the gulf of Tunquin, and adjacent Chinese sea, the tuffoons, or as they have been quaintly latinised, *typhons*, are tremendous. "They are preceded by very fine weather, a presaging cloud appears in the north-east, black near the horizon, edged with copper colour on the upper part, fading into a glaring white. It often exhibits a ghastly appearance twelve hours before the typhon bursts; its rage lasts many hours from the north-east, attended with dreadful claps of thunder, large and frequent flashes of lightning, and excessive hard rains. Then it sinks into a dead calm, after which it begins again with redoubled rage from the south-west, and continues an equal length of time."

No new information concerning this country had appeared for upwards of a century, when, in 1778, was published a description by the abbé Richard, compiled chiefly from the papers of the abbé Saint Phalle, who was a missionary in Tunquin for twelve years, and died at Paris 1766. From this work an extract shall here be presented, in the order followed by the author, the country not being of sufficient importance to demand a more formal delineation.

* Pennant, *Outlines*, iii. 76.

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The word Tunquin, or Tonquin, according to Richard, signifies the court of the east, because, during the greatest extent of the Chinese empire, this country, then a province, was regarded as an imperial residence. But certainly in this case Tunquin ought rather to have been styled the court of the west, from its position with regard to China. The natives call their country An-nam, which signifies the repose of the south.

On the east and north it is bounded by China; on the south by Cochin-China; on the west by the kingdoms of Laos and *Bowcs*, or Baos, the latter unknown in geography.

The climate is not extremely hot. It is healthy and temperate from the month of September till March: in January and February the weather is cold, but neither snow nor ice are seen, and hail is extremely rare. The temperature of the air becomes rather unhealthy in the months of April, May, and June, which is the season of fogs and heavy rains; and great heat is felt in July and August. These heavy rains produce great inundations, and boats are used in passing from village to village. In the flat country, and even in part of the mountains, the winds regularly blow six months from the north, and the like time from the south; the first beginning in October.

This kingdom is considered as divided into eleven provinces, that of the North being the largest, bounded by Laos on the west, China on the east and north, and the kingdom of Baos on the north-west.

A navigable river, called Songkoy, traverses the kingdom from north to south, receiving other streams which are partly navigable; and there are numerous canals for the cultivation of rice.

In the gulf of Tunquin is a small isle, which is said to produce the musk animal; and in the vicinity is a pearl fishery. The chief entrance of the river, called Domea by the Europeans, has a bar which embarrasses the navigation, so that a native pilot becomes necessary.

This country, in general, may be regarded as divided into two portions, the mountainous and the plain. Towards China, Cochin-China, and Laos, are extensive mountains, partly covered with forests, but neither rocky nor precipitous. Here are found mines of gold, silver, and iron; and our author adds, of yellow, red, and black copper, greatly esteemed

esteemed in the country; probably confounding the colour of the ores with that of the metal.

The lower part of Tunquin greatly resembles Holland, a country half land and half water, by the number of its canals and dykes, and by the numerous rivers and lakes. The province called of the West is watered by seven great rivers, which unite about fifteen leagues above the royal city, forming a kind of sea, or great lake, which again sends out various branches. The southern part of the kingdom, though in the torrid zone, super-abounds with waters, covered with boats.

The population is said to be very great. There are few towns, but many villages, so near each other as to form, as it were, a series of habitations; and some are said to contain not less than a hundred thousand inhabitants, which probably an actual enumeration would reduce to one-third.

The only city which deserves that name is Kacho, or Kecho, the capital of the kingdom, and the royal residence, situate upon the river San Koy, about forty leagues from the sea, and about 21° of north latitude. In size it may be compared with the most celebrated cities of Asia, and may at least equal that of Paris. On the first and fifteenth day of every moon are held great markets, which attract most of the inhabitants of the surrounding towns and villages to a considerable distance. The crowd is then so immense that, though the streets be very wide, it becomes difficult to advance a hundred paces in half an hour. Yet great order prevails, each merchandize and village having distinct streets for the exposition of their articles. The streets are partly paved with brick, except some parts which are left for the passage of horses, elephants, and the king's carriages. Two-thirds of the houses are of wood, others of brick, among which are the factories of foreign merchants, distinguished amidst a multitude of huts constructed of bamboos and clay.

The palaces of the Mandarins, and the public buildings, which occupy great spaces of ground, are chiefly built with wood; but in a more neat and solid manner than the common houses, the materials being choice, strong, well wrought, and decorated with sculptures and paintings. The chambers are neatly disposed; and the roof consists of tiles of different colours.

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The common houses are composed of a roof, placed on wooden columns, commonly covered with straw, reeds, or large leaves of trees, which will last thirty or forty years, if no accident happen. These houses, without ceilings or stories, are merely divided by partitions, and have only a ground floor; for it would be a crime against the state to build a house of a certain height: the numerous windows are covered with gauze, or fine matting, glass being almost unknown. This light construction being very liable to fire, the police only permits it to be lighted during certain hours of the day.

The trade is very considerable; and the great river is crowded with barks and boats, bringing the merchandize of the provinces to the capital. Each boat pays about two-pence for the right of anchorage, and this small tax forms a considerable revenue.

The royal palace occupies a considerable space in the fairest quarter of the city; but is little superior in architecture to the residences of the Mandarins. Access is difficult, but it appears to be constructed on the Chinese plan of detached houses and pavilions, situate amidst groves, gardens, and canals. The women and eunuchs never quit its precincts. Before the recent revolution, the triple walls of the ancient city and palace, the courts paved with marble, and other features of grandeur, displayed one of the most beautiful and vast edifices of Asia; for, according to our author, the circumference of the palace and gardens was from six to seven French miles.*

At present the capital is only defended by a quick hedge of bamboos. In the neighbourhood is quartered a body of soldiery; the arsenal and other magazines of ammunition being on the banks of the river. On the other side is the Chinese town, established by precaution: nor are other strangers allowed to enter the city without a special permission.

After the capital, Hean is the most considerable town, containing more than two thousand houses, and situated on the right bank of the river, four or five days journey from its entrance into the sea. Formerly the French had a factory here, and the trade was considerable, as Hean is only at the distance of two days sail from the royal city.

* Richard I. 37.

At five or six leagues from the mouth of the river is another town, called Domea, a great deal less than Hean, but well known to strangers, who are not now permitted to proceed further up the river.

These towns, as well as most of the villages, are surrounded with live hedges of bamboo. Individuals of easy fortune inclose their house and garden in like manner; which, with the alleys of areca trees, present an agreeable prospect, like that of a park with mingled houses and gardens.

The high roads are maintained at the public expence; but, though raised as in Holland, are scarcely passable in the wet season. The rich use horses, or litters carried by men. Bridges are rare, chiefly from precaution in time of war.

In the mountains, the houses are irregularly disposed, according to the convenience of the ground; and the people almost savage.

Rice is the chief product of agriculture; and in the low country yields two harvests yearly, but in the high lands only one, as the rainy season must be awaited. The rice is of different colours, yellow, red, white, and black; there is even one kind which has an agreeable smell, and which is used, in preference, for the offerings to the idols. All these sorts are eaten; but the kind used to make arrack, being difficult of digestion, is a resource of necessity.

The rivers and canals abound with fish of various kinds, contributing largely to the support of the inhabitants; but wheat and wine are unknown, though the vine would probably thrive on the sunny side of the mountains. The mulberry tree is common, and silk in general use, even among the poorest people. The sugar cane is indigenous, but the art of refining the juice is unknown.

The agriculture is of the simplest kind, the plough being composed of three pieces of wood, a pole, a handle, and a third, almost at right angles with the last, to open the ground, all simply fixed with straps of leather. This plough is drawn by oxen or buffalos. The horses are small, but lively and robust; yet the inhabitants rarely use them, as they prefer travelling by water. Asses and sheep are unknown, and the goats are few; but there is an abundance of swine, and their flesh is well flavoured

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flavoured and wholesome. The people seem little delicate, as they eat dogs, cats, and rats. Poultry, ducks, geese, abound, and are even found wild in the forests. Here, as in China, the eggs of ducks, by being heated in ovens, produce the young, which swarm in the numerous canals and ponds.

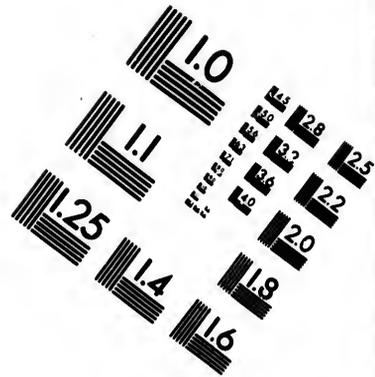
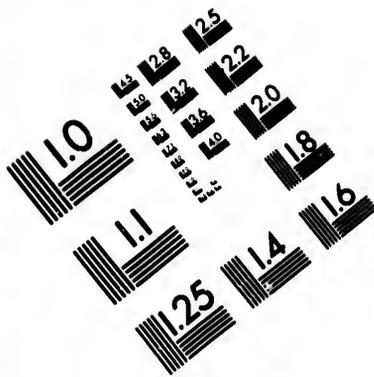
The forests of the mountainous provinces contain deer, boars, peacocks, a peculiar kind of partridge, quails. The tigers are very dangerous, some being from eight to ten feet in length; and of such strength as to carry off the largest buffalo. When they have long wanted food, their ferocity becomes terrible; one has been known to enter a town, destroy eighty-five people, and retire from mere fatigue, as, by a singular law, the use of fire-arms was forbidden, except in war.

The wild elephants are also very dangerous, as they sometimes overturn houses, and destroy the inhabitants; ~~apes~~ of every rank, condition, and quality, may also be found in these forests; and some, according to popular report, are from six to seven feet in height. These animals, and the parrots, are not a little destructive to the rice and fruits.

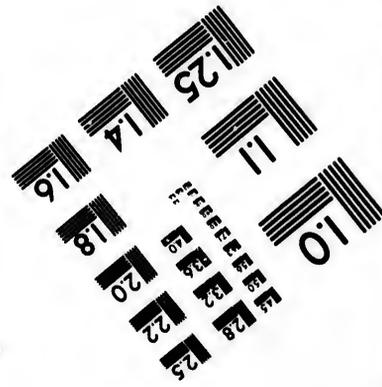
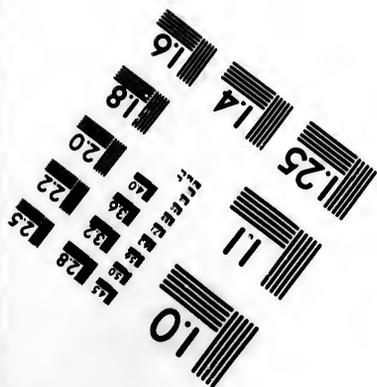
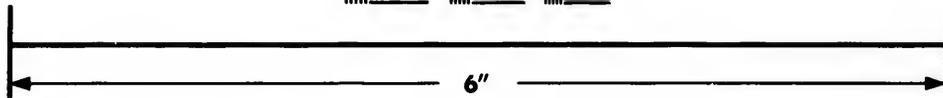
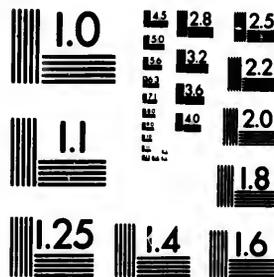
The manners of the people, in general, are less civilized than those of the Chinese; and the frequent revolts and conspiracies are rather occasioned by credulity and superstition, than by any hopes of improving their situation by a change. The Tunquinese, in general, are of a middle stature, with broad faces, but not so flat as those of the Chinese; the eyes and nose small, and long black hair. The men have little beard, and do not shave. There are few deformed people; and the women are rather handsome. The complexion of people of rank nearly approaches that of the Portuguese and Spaniards. At the age of seventeen or eighteen they begin to blacken their teeth, regarding white teeth as the praise of dogs: like the Chinese they suffer their nails to grow, but this fashion is confined to the Mandarins, the men of letters, and other distinguished persons. The ladies tinge their nails with red; and, upon select occasions of love or enticement, the hands and feet are slightly dyed with that colour, as usual as among other eastern nations.

The dress of the men consists in a piece of silk, several yards in length, wrapped about the loins, and a long robe with loose sleeves, which is thrown off in travelling, or during labour. The women of the





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lower orders are modestly clothed in a long petticoat, and one or more robes of the same form as those of the men, but shorter. They cover their bosoms with a piece of linen or silk, in the form of a heart, which serves them as an ornament, having no necklaces, though they wear ear-rings, and bracelets of gold or silver. They commonly appear with naked legs and feet, like the men; but rich and dignified persons wear long drawers. The most general colour is white, that is to say, the natural tint of the silk or of the linen. Black is only worn by people of distinction, and in the palace approaches to an obscure violet. The men and women fasten their hair in a knot behind the head; but in the presence of any superior they let it fall as a mark of respect.

The people are not only indolent, but loaded with heavy taxes, among which is a capitation from three to six rix dollar a-year. They are also obliged to perform public services, which, with the artificers, occupy about six months in the year.

The learned language is that of China, but in the popular mouth it degenerates into a kind of dialect, which cannot be understood by a Chinese. The words are all in single syllables; and the same word expresses different things, according to different accents and enunciations.

The right of primogeniture predominates, and daughters share little in the estate of their father. Marriage is contracted without priest or magistrate, the consent of the parents forming the sole ceremony. The husband may repudiate or sell his wife, which last circumstance is not rare when a good price is offered; but the wife cannot quit the husband without his consent. Polygamy is common, and favoured by the women themselves, who look upon the support of a man as indispensable. Divorces, though free, are very rare. Children are not exposed as in China, there being, for the most part, rich people to adopt or nourish them. The accumulation of usury renders the state of debtors very perilous; and the inhumanity of creditors sanctioned by laws, enacted by the rich for their own benefit, often equals that of ancient Rome, or modern England.

Though the Tunquinese manners be in a great degree formed upon the Chinese model, yet the women in general have more freedom and choose their own husbands. Strangers for a very small reward ob-

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tain temporary marriages. As in China the greatest use is made of day light: and the ceremonies of the court commence at a very early hour. A custom of abominable singularity prevails among this people, that is of putting, if possible, some person to death at the beginning of a new year: with this view they then poison the fowls and fruit which they bring to market: and while the examples are frequent, the punishment is rare. They have an idea that this atrocity will bring them good fortune; and it probably indicates the ancient use of human sacrifices. Plays, dances, and cock-fighting, form the chief amusement.

The general food is rice, seasoned with a kind of sauce called Bala-ghan; but pork is also in request. But the food in general is so various as to include the horse and the elephant, certain worms and bees, and the eggs of a kind of ants; but butter, milk, and cheese, are held in detestation. The nest of a species of swallow, commonly eaten in China, are here also held in great esteem. They are formed of some gelatinous substance, which the birds find in the sea, and are common in many of the Asiatic islands and Cochin-China. The chief drink is derived from a kind of coarse tea, but arrack is also in great request.

Among the maladies of this country there is a dreadful kind of leprosy, which devours the extremities of the hands and feet. In other respects the climate is healthy, and the few diseases easily cured. The funeral ceremonies bear a great resemblance to those of China; pieces of gold or silver, or sometimes small pearls, are put into the mouth of the dead, that they may not enter poor into another world. The place of sepulture is carefully chosen, but not upon the mountains as in China.

Their religion resembles that of the Chinese, but the sect of Foo is in the greatest favour. Every town or village has a tutelary genius, or peculiar patron. Sometimes as in ancient Egypt the supposed genii are vile animals, as serpents, dogs, cats, oxen, fish; but more frequently men who have deserved well of their country. The natives are also not a little addicted to magic.

The

The sciences, as in China, are chiefly sought in the writings of Confucius and his commentators; the principal branches being morality, mathematics, physics, and astronomy, with the laws and history of the country. Knowledge is in great consideration in Tunquin, because it is the only way of procuring honours; and the men of letters are regarded as the sole nobility of the kingdom. They must pass by different degrees to arrive at their proposed object, the offices and dignities of the state, which are all recompences of literary merit. There are, as with us, three degrees, the highest being that of doctor, and the skill estimated by a short composition, in which the elegance of the thoughts and expressions is carefully examined, as well as the solidity of the reasoning. Hence though the candidates may amount to thousands there are rarely more than eight or ten admitted. Amidst this attention to the choice of people, capable of filling the first dignities of the state, and who are regarded as its chief support, it is difficult not to select the most worthy. Any corruption or intrigue is, when detected, punished with death.

Foreign languages are not studied; but the king has some interpreters for the languages of the neighbouring states, and the Portuguese, a corrupted dialect of which latter forms the commercial speech of the Asiatic shores. Printing is known, as in China; but painting and sculpture are in a very low condition. The tools of the workmen are few and simple, yet they labour well and expeditiously.

The chief trade is with China, which supplies Tunquin with fine teas, porcelain, various silks and painted linens, prepared sugars; with wheat and barley, flour, kitchen utensils, iron, spices, flax and linc, wax, cotton, glass, and toys. The Chinese workmen are also highly esteemed in this country, and maintain their ascendancy not less by their cunning than by their abilities. The Chinese vessels have many privileges, which the English also enjoyed until the year 1730, when the captain of a vessel attempting to smuggle some copper, their privileges were restricted. Strangers export from Tunquin varnish, silk raw or wrought, chiefly strong stuffs, beautiful cloth, resembling linen, made of the bark of trees, different works of mother of pearl, which the

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workmen of the country know how to employ to the most advantage, ebony, ivory, tortoise shell, cinnamon, copper, cotton, and several other articles. Calamine is also exported from Tunquin by the Dutch and carried to Japan, where it is used to convert copper into brass.

The interior commerce of Tunquin is very considerable, consisting chiefly of fruits of different kinds, silk and cotton cloths, with those made of the inner bark of the paper bearing mulberry. The cinnamon of Tunquin would be a profitable article, if duly cultivated. The forests are full of it, but it is only cultivated in the king's gardens, and those of the temples, as it is an article of royal monopoly. The colour is rather grey than red, that of the finest cinnamon of Ceylon; it is also thicker and rougher, and possesses less odour. The tree which produces the varnish is from twelve to fifteen feet high at the most, eighteen and twenty inches in circumference; the bark is white, and the leaves resemble those of the wild cherry. It distils a juice resembling turpentine, and the produce is increased by incisions. Precaution is required in gathering the varnish, as it is rather of a poisonous quality something resembling the Toxicodendron of America. The varnished goods are only thought to yield to those of Japan, and that solely in the superior quality of the Japanese wood. Sugar, as already observed, might likewise form a considerable article in commerce, if the natives knew the various preparations. Paper is also a considerable article being chiefly made of the bamboo reduced to a liquid paste, and afterwards treated as in our paper manufactories, allum water being used to render it more firm and smooth. Paper is also drawn from the mulberry, the elm, the trunk of the cotton tree, and in general from all kinds of white and sappy woods. Salt procured from the sea water also forms a great article of interior commerce.

Although Tunquin was anciently a part of China, and though there remain vestiges of towns and forts built by the Chinese, yet the natives have always been regarded as a distinct people. The connection with China is still maintained by solemn embassies, which are received with great pomp by the artful Chinese, merely to impart a higher idea of their own ascendancy. The power, as in Japan, was divided between two princes, ecclesiastic and secular; the former being here styled the Dova and the

the latter, who possesses the real authority, the Chova. As usual an able general seized on the royal authority, for a prince who does not lead his own forces to the field can very seldom long retain a throne. The court of the Chova was very pompous and brilliant, assembling commonly about six o'clock in the morning. But the number of eunuchs rather proclaimed the weakness than the power of the monarchy; and the court was often distracted with the intrigues of these animals and of the women. The Harem contains about four hundred concubines: the one who produces the first boy receives the most distinguished honours. On the death of a Chova his successor commonly neglects his younger brothers to such a degree, that some have been known to serve as porters in the markets. A rebellion in 1748 had nearly restored to the Dova his ancient authority.

It is said that the troops amount to about a hundred and forty thousand, of which about eight or ten thousand are cavalry. There were formerly counted three hundred and fifty elephants; but the use of fire arms seems to have diminished the consideration of these animals in war. Since the revolution in Cochin-China, where the Chova rendered himself independent of Tunquin, and assumed the royal title, a body of ten thousand men has been stationed on that frontier. Every governor of a province has at his disposal seven hundred men, and one elephant. The remainder of the forces, amounting perhaps to a hundred thousand, is placed in the royal city, or in an adjacent camp. Though the kingdom be open on all sides, yet it has no cause to fear its neighbours, Laos being a tributary realm, and China preferring an advantageous trade to an evanescent conquest.

The arms of the Tunquinese are the ancient musquet fired with a match, the modern firelock being there unknown, bows, sabres, pikes, and half pikes, and a defensive buckler. There is no regular uniform except in those of the king's household, who are clothed in blue or red. They are however esteemed among the best troops of the east. The navy amounts to about two or three hundred galleys only navigated with oars, and more adapted to the rivers of the country than to the open sea.

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The king of Tunquin is reckoned among the rich sovereigns of the east, having valuable treasures and an ample revenue. A considerable part consists in rice, sometimes preserved in the magazines for thirty or forty years, rice being capable of longer conservation than any other grain. In the last century a tax was laid upon land, which was almost ruinous to the people. The capitation tax is far more ancient, and is paid by all the males from the age of twenty to that of sixty, excepting only the soldiers, the keepers of the temples, and the Bonzes. A considerable revenue is also derived from the sale of dignities; and from the duties of merchant vessels amounting to about a tenth of the merchandize.

The laws, like those of China, are founded on the single principle of paternal authority, and filial obedience; the monarch, and the various magistrates, being respected as fathers, while, on their part, they are taught to cherish the people as their children. The various magistrates of Tunquin, like those of China, are by the Europeans denominated Mandarins from the Portuguese word *Mandar*, signifying to command. But this word has never passed into the native languages, in both of which the word is *Quan*. The importance of the situation decides the dignity of the *Quan*, as with us the mayor of London is superior to the mayor of a village. This title is also constituted into a mere personal dignity, at the caprice of the sovereign, but there is no hereditary nobility. The tenure of lands, and the right of inheritance, are important objects, left in too much obscurity even by the authors who describe the Chinese empire; but it is believed, that the estates being divided, property is never permitted to accumulate or to assume any dangerous influence. It is however in general respected even by the sovereign, if he be not of a despotic disposition; and among the tribunals established in the capital, there is one which pronounces on the difficulties with regard to successions in land, as there is another who judges of those regarding houses and personal property. The judges are, however, very corrupt, and think justice too valuable an article to be gratuitously distributed. The military and civil offices are generally venal, though, to obtain the latter, a man of letters must have passed the necessary degree. Executions are rare, and do not exceed twenty or thirty,

thirty, in the course of a year, throughout the whole extent of the kingdom. Decapitation is regarded as ignominious; princes and great persons have the privilege of strangulation. Female criminals are trampled to death by elephants. The dignity of public executioner is hereditary. Other punishments are exile, perpetual imprisonment, and personal chastisement, sometimes with the mutilation of a finger or an ear. The prisons are in a shocking state, and require the interposition of some oriental Howard.

On a general view of Tunquin, the country and the despot are extremely rich; and the people very poor.

Soon after the commencement of the seventeenth century, the jesuits attempted to establish the Christian faith. The chief obstacle here, as in all oriental countries, was and is the dogma of monogamy, totally repugnant to the feelings and customs of these nations; and if this doctrine cannot be modified by a general council, the laws of Mahomet will always extend their influence in the east, while Christianity suffers a constant and palpable decline. The interference of the missionaries in political affairs also contributed, as usual, to their want of success. In 1712, an edict was published against the Christians, who began to be persecuted with great rigour. Another persecution arose in 1737, which lasted with intervals until 1751, when the monarch happening to see some cannons, (not those of the church,) adopted an idea that the jesuits might be useful officers of artillery; and four were accordingly invited from Macao. Yet, in 1773, two Christians were executed, on account of their religion, in the capital city; and Christianity holds a most uncertain tenure in this despotic country. In the adjacent kingdom of Cochin-China the Christian faith appears to gain more protection, as appears from a royal edict of 1775, in the following terms.

“Bo-siuh, secretary of the king, and of the supreme council of the kingdom, announces by royal order to all the inhabitants, the following edict:”

“The king orders all the commanders, and other chiefs of his kingdom, to set at liberty the Christians who have been employed in keeping elephants, and other mean offices in his armies, because they have not abjured their religion, nor trampled under foot the idols permitted by their

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their faith. Wherefore he enjoins the supreme council to publish this edict, in all his provinces, and to send it to all the governors and commanders, that it may be known by all the inhabitants of the cities, towns, and villages. It is besides his will, that the governors of provinces, or others there in authority, shall each in his department, and as soon as possible, make an exact enumeration of these captives, and take care to send a list to the king, who desires to have personal knowledge that his orders have been executed. Finally commanding, that the Christians above designed, after having been set at liberty, shall appear before the supreme council itself, as well to testify their gratitude to the king, as to prove that the governors have executed his orders."*

The description of the various kingdoms of exterior India being thus completed, as far as the present design and the imperfect materials would admit, the geographical progress must return to the westward, and discuss the wide regions of Hindostan, a difficult but interesting theme.

* Richard II. 346.

HINDOSTAN.

INTRODUCTION.

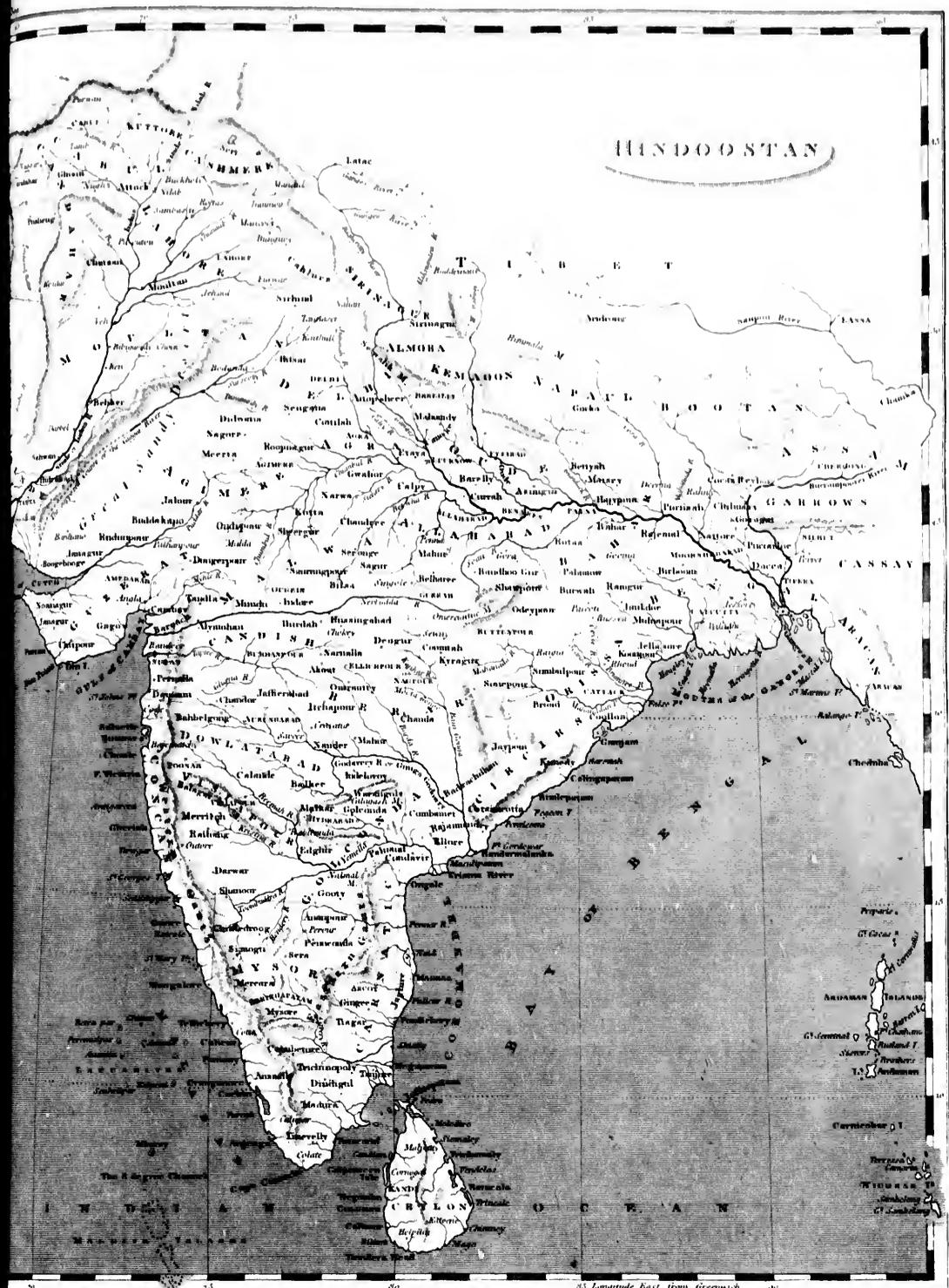
General Observations.—Arrangement.—Natural and Political Divisions.—Plan of the present Description.

GENERAL
GEOGRAPHY.

THE description of this interesting portion of Asia is not a little difficult, from its vast and irregular extent, from the want of grand subdivisions, from the diversity of nations and powers, large foreign settlements, and other causes, so that the first object must be to determine a clear and natural arrangement. Far from being impressed with this circumstance, geographers seem desirous to increase the embarrassment, by including the regions called India beyond the Ganges, whence the confusion becomes more confounded.

Mr. Pennant, who often excels in geographical delineation, has, in his *View of Hindostan*, been contented with the vague divisions of Western, Eastern, and Gangetic, or that part which is pervaded by the Ganges and its tributary streams. His description is also in the form of an itinerary, of all others perhaps the least adapted to general geography. Major Rennell, to whom we are indebted for an excellent map and memoir, which have thrown great light on Indian geography, first considers the sea coasts and islands; as, in the construction of a map, the outline of the coast is the earliest object. He then describes Hindostan in four other sections: 1. That part occupied by the Ganges and its principal branches: 2. That occupied by the course of the Sindé, Sindeh, or river Indus: 3. The track situated between the river Kistna and the two former divisions: 4. The countries to the south of the Kistna, or what is perhaps improperly called the southern peninsula, as

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From Arrowsmith's Map of Asia

Published March 1st 1864 by Colver and Davies, Strand; and Leighton and Rice, Paternoster Row.

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no part of Hindostan can be styled a peninsula, in the modern acceptation of being nearly surrounded by the sea, and if we introduce proximity of rivers, the number of chersoneses might appear infinite.

GENERAL
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It might seem that an easy arrangement would arise from dividing Hindostan into the four points of Eastern, Northern, Western, and Southern: but in this process the northern could not well be separated from the Western, as both are connected by the course of the Indus, and the deficiency of natural boundaries must be supplied by arbitrary and imaginary lines.

After long consideration, the general plan adopted by Major Rennell seems the best, not only in itself, as was to have been expected from his profound acquaintance with the subject, but as having the advantage of being familiar to the public, from the widely diffused reputation of his work. Amidst the want of important ranges of mountains, rivers alone can be assigned as natural divisions; and as in Hindostan they do not form limits, the countries pervaded by their courses and tributary streams may be considered as detached by the hand of nature. Hence the Gangetic part of Hindostan, to use Mr. Pennant's term, includes the space from the confines of Tibet to the sources of the Chumbul and Sippra, and from the mountains near Agimere and Abugur hills, to the most eastern boundary of Hindostan.

General Di-
vision.

That portion watered by the Sindé or Indus, and its subsidiary streams, may in like manner be termed Sindetic Hindostan; as a supplement to this division may be considered the country of Sirhind, and other tracts to the west of Gangetic Hindostan.

The southern part is encompassed by the sea, except on the north, where the river Kistna and its subsidiary streams form the boundary. In ancient times this portion was styled Deccan, a native term, implying the south. But the Deccan of the Hindoos extended twice as far in a northerly direction, even to the river Nerbudda; so that it would in fact, with the Gangetic and Sindetic divisions, nearly complete the whole of Hindostan. The term Deccan is therefore here used for the portion to the south of the Kistna.

That portion on the north of the Kistna, reaching to Gangetic Hindostan on the north and east, and the Sindetic with its supplementary provinces.

GENERAL
DIVISION.

provinces on the north and west, may be styled Interior or Central Hindostan.*

In this arrangement the Gangetic part will include Bengal, Bahar, Allahabad, Oude, Agra, and a part of Delhi and Agimere. The Sindetic contains Kuttore, Cashmir, Cabul, Gandahar, Lahore, Moulton, and Sindé.

The Central division represents Guzerat in the west, with Candeish, Berar, Orissa, the Sircars, the chief part of Golconda, Vissapour, Dowlatabad, and Concan.

The southern division includes a small portion of Golconda, Mysore, the extensive region called in modern times the Carnatic, with Madura, and other smaller districts, the western coast being called that of Malabar, and the eastern that of Coromandel. In this part is naturally included the island of Ceylon.

Political
Division.

The next topic to be considered, in a general view of Hindostan, is its political situation as divided among various powers. Of these the English is at present preponderant, not only from European tactics, but from an actual extent of territory at least equal to that of any native power. To our former wide possessions in Gangetic Hindostan, with a large portion of the eastern coast from below the estuary of the Kistna to the lake of Chilka, and the detached government of Madras, have been recently added extensive regions in the south and west of Mysore, with Srirangapatam the capital, not to mention Bombay, and other detached establishments. And the large and important island of Ceylon has been wrested from the Dutch. The province of Cuttac, acquired in the late war against the Maratta chiefs, almost unites the S. W. of Bengal with the northern Sircars.

Next in consequence are the Maratta states, chiefly contained in the central division of Hindostan.

The Nizam, or Soubah of the Deccan, our firm ally, has considerably enlarged his territory in the south at the expence of Tippoo; the cen-

* If scientific geographers had the privilege, usurped by travellers and mariners, of imposing new names and divisions, the above partitions might be styled in native terms Gangesan, Sindetan, while Deccan might be confined to the southern part, and some native word applied to the middle or central division. Major Gore Ouseley informs me, that the countries bordering on the Sindh, or Indus, are actually called by the natives *Sindbawari*, meaning literally the borders or banks of the river Sindh.

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tral part of whose dominions, except Seringapatam, is subject to the Raja of Myfore, a descendant of the race dethroned by Hyder, an usurper.

POLITICAL
DIVISION.

The British, the Marattas, and the Nizam, may be regarded as the three leading powers, to which may be added on the west, or on the Sindetic division, the Seiks, and Zemaun Shah, or whatever prince holds the eastern division of Persia.

The following table, extracted, with a few alterations, from Major Rennell's memoir, will convey a more complete and satisfactory idea of this important topic.

I. BRITISH POSSESSIONS.

1. Bengal and Bahar, with the Z-mindary of Benares.
2. Northern Circars, including Guntoor.
- *3. Bar a Mahal, and Dindigul.
4. Jaghire in the Carnatic.
- *5. The Calicut, Palicaud, and Coorga countries.

II. BRITISH ALLIES.

1. Azoph Dowlah. Oude.
2. Mahomed Alli. Carnatic.
3. Travancore, and Cochin.

III. MARATTA STATES.

POONA MARATTAS.

1. Malwa.
2. Candeish.
3. Part of Amednagar, or Dowlatabad.
4. Vissapour.
5. Part of Guzerat.
6. ——— Agra.
7. ——— Agimere.
8. Allahabad.
9. Shanoor or Sanore, Bancapour, Darwar, &c. situated in the Doob, or country between the Kistna and Toombudra rivers.

TRIBUTARIES.

1. Rajah of Jyenagur.
2. ——— Joodpour.
3. ——— Oudipour.
4. ——— Narwah.
5. ——— Gohud.
6. Part of Bundelcund.
7. Mahomed Hyat. Bopaltol.
8. Fatty Sing. Amedabad.
9. Gurry Mundella, &c. &c.

BERAR MARATTAS.

1. Berar.
2. Orissa.

TRIBUTARY.

Bemb-jec.

* The countries thus marked, are acquisitions from Tippoo Sultan under the late treaty of Seringapatam. To which must now be added Coimbatore, Canara, and other districts acquired in 1799. See Rennell's Supplementary Map, dated the 5th April 1800.

IV. NIZAM

POLITICAL
DIVISION.

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|------------------------------------|---|
| 1. Golconda. | 6. Cuddapali, Cummum (or Comban) and
Gand-coota (or Ganjecotta). |
| 2. Aurungabad. | 7. Part of Gooty, Adoni, and Canoul. |
| 3. Beder. | 8. Part of the Dooab. |
| 4. Part of Berar, | 9. Other districts acquired in 1799] |
| 5. ——— Adoni, Rachore, and Canoul. | |

V. SEIKS.

Lahore, Moulton, and the western parts of Delhi.

As the other great power chiefly extends over Persia, and may be regarded as foreign, it only remains to mention the small states.

1. Successors of Zabeda Cawn. Schaurunpour.
2. Jats.
3. Pattan Rohillas. Furruckabad. Rohilcund.
4. Adjig Sing. Rewah, &c.
5. Bundelcund, or Bundela.
6. Little Ballogistan.

To which may now be added the Raja of Myfore.

The British possessions prior to the fall of Tippoo, 1799, were supposed to contain 197,496 square British miles, being about 60,000 more than are comprized in the united kingdoms of Great Britain and Ireland: the number of inhabitants was computed at ten millions. The acquisition in 1799 probably adds 15,000 square miles, and the population subject to Great Britain is supposed to be 12 or 14,000,000. The net revenue exceeded three millions before the cessions by Tippoo in 1792, computed at 400,000l.; while those in 1799 do not appear much to exceed half that sum. This great power and revenue of so distant a country, maintained in the midst of a highly civilized foreign nation, is perhaps unexampled in ancient or modern times.

The Marattas are divided into two states or empires, that of Poona or the western, and Berar, or the eastern; each ruled by a number of chiefs, or princes, who pay a nominal obedience to the Paishwa, or Sovereign. An account of the Marattas belongs to the central division of Hindostan. The Seiks, a new religious sect, first appeared in the middle of the seventeenth century, and have gradually become for-

? Sir William Jones says 30,000,000. Is not this an orientalism?

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midable to the neighbouring states. The Jats, or Jets, were a tribe of Hindoos, who about a century ago erected a state around the capital Agra. The Afghans, another peculiar people, originated from the mountains between Persia and India.

Before closing these general considerations with regard to this extensive country, it may be proper to observe that the name of Hindostan has been considered as synonymous with the empire of the Great Mogul. But the power of the Monguls, which commenced under Baher, 1518, was most eminent in the northern parts, the Deccan, or south remaining unsubdued till the time of Aurunzeb, 1678, when that region, with what is called the peninsula,* a few mountainous and inaccessible tracts only excepted, were either vanquished or rendered tributary to the throne of Delhi.† When Aurunzeb died in 1707, in his 90th year, the Mongul empire had obtained its utmost extent from the 10th to the 35th degree of latitude, (about 1750 British miles;) and about as much in length: the revenue exceeding thirty-two millions sterling, in a country where provisions are about four times as cheap as in England. The number of his subjects may be computed at about sixty millions. But this great power declined so rapidly that, within fifty years after his death, it may be said to have been annihilated, and the empire of the Great Mogul has vanished from modern geography.

The plan to be pursued, in the subsequent brief account of Hindostan, has been above indicated as divided into four parts; the regions on the Ganges, those on the Indus; the central and the southern. In three of these divisions the British possessions are powerful, if not predominant; and it is difficult to connect the political with the natural geography. Doubts may justly arise whether the British territories ought not to form a separate and distinct portion in a perspicuous arrangement, this being another of the peculiar difficulties which attend the geography of Hindostan. But as the grand mass of the population in these settlements consists of native Hindoos, and the natural geogra-

* Is not this absurd term of peninsula, which Major Rennel justly blames, derived from Guthrie, or De la Croix?

† Rennel's Memoir, page lxi.

PLAN.

phy of the country must not be sacrificed to any extraneous consideration, it still seems preferable to abide by the division already laid down. If indeed the political geography were preferred, in describing this vast portion of Asia, any such arrangement would prove of a most fleeting and temporary complexion, as the revolutions and variations are so frequent and rapid. Hence that form of description must be chosen, which, resting on the perpetual foundations of nature, cannot be injured or obliterated by the destinies of man.

These considerations being premised a similar arrangement shall here be followed in describing Hindostan, a labyrinth of eastern geography, with that used in delineating Germany, that labyrinth of European geography. A general view of the whole region shall be followed by successive chapters on each of the above divisions; in which the several states, chief cities, and other geographical topics, shall be briefly illustrated.

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CHAPTER I.

GENERAL VIEW OF HINDOSTAN.

Name. — Boundaries. — Original Population. — Progressive Geography. — History. — Chronology. — Historical Epochs. — Ancient Monuments. — Mythology. — Religion. — Government. — Laws. — Population. — General Revenues. — Political Importance. — Manners and Customs. — Languages. — Literature. — Ancient Civilization — Universities. — Inland Navigation. — Manufactures. — Native Products. — Climate and Seasons. — General Face of the Country. — Soil. — Rivers. — Lakes. — Mountains. — Desert. — Forests. — Botany. — Zoology. — Mineralogy. — Mineral Waters. — Natural Curiosities.

THE native name of this celebrated country is said to be in the NAME. ancient Sanscrit language Bharata.¹ That of Hindostan seems to have been imposed by the Persians, and derived, like the classical name India, from the great western river, with the Persian termination *Tan*, or *Stan* which signifies a country.* It was long known, as already mentioned, by the name of the Empire of the Great Mogul, because it was then subject to Mongul emperors, successors of Timur.

This portion of Asia extends from cape Comari, called by navigators Boundaries. Comorin, in the south, to the mountains which form the northern boundary of Cashmir; that is, according to the most recent maps, from about the eighth to about the thirty-fifth degree of northern latitude, being twenty-seven degrees, or 1620 g. miles, nearly equal to 1890 British. The northern boundary may be yet further extended to the Hindoo Koh, and mountains running E and W on the north of the province of Kuttore.

From the river Araba, on the west of the province of Sindi, to the mountains which divide Bengal from Cassay and the Birman dominions, that is from about the sixty-sixth to the ninety-second degree of east

¹ Rennel, xx. from Wilkins: but the proper native term seems to be Medhyama, and Bharat was the first king. *As. Res.* i. 419.

* As the word is *Hindustán*, I rather incline to think it from *Hindu* and *Stan*, or the country of Hindoos, as Afghanistan, Curdistán, Parístan, &c. Ouseley.

BOUNDARIES.

longitude from Greenwich, there are 26°, which in the latitude of 25° constitute a breadth of more than 1400 g. miles, or 1600 British. Comparatively, if we exclude Scandinavia, the former kingdom of Poland, and the Russian empire, the extent may be considered as equal to that of the remainder of Europe.

The boundaries are marked on the north by the mountains above-mentioned. On the west, towards Persia, other ranges and deserts constitute the frontier till the southern separation end in the river of Araba. The other boundaries are supplied by the Indian ocean, and Bay of Bengal, where the eastern extremity is limited by the little river Naaf, and those mountains which divide the British possessions from Aracan, Cassay, and Casnar. The northern boundary generally consists of the southern ridges of the Tibetan Alps. On the N. E. of Bengal a similar ridge divides Hindostan from the small territory of Asam, which seems an independent state, never having formed a portion of Hindostan, of dubious connection with Tibet, and as yet unsubdued by the Birmans.*

Original Population.

The original population may be generally considered as indigenous, or in other words peculiar to the country. Yet in so extensive a region, and amidst the great diversity of climate and situation, the native race presents considerable varieties, especially as being fairer in the northern parts, and in the southern almost or wholly black, but without the negro wool or features.† Still the tinge of the women and superior classes is deep olive, with sometimes a slight and agreeable mixture of the ruddy, and the Hindoo form and features may be said to approach the Persian or European standard. The sole ancient conquests of Hindostan having proceeded from the N. W. and West, there may be some slight admixture of the Persians, of the Greeks of Bactriana, of the ancient Scythians, who appear to have proceeded from Imaus, and to have held a considerable country on the Indus, being the Indo-Scythæ of antiquity. More recently Mahmud of Ghizni, in-

* A description of Asam may be found in the second volume of the Asiatic Researches, page 171 octavo edit. and some idea of this country will be given in the account of the river Burrampootee, which will follow that of the Ganges.

† Yet even in speaking of Bengal Sir William Jones terms the natives *blacks*. He says *As. Ref. IV. xxiii.* that in Hindostan there are not less than thirty millions of *black* British subjects.

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roduced a group of Mahometans of various origins. The Patans, or Afghans proceeded from the mountains towards Persia, being asserted to be a tribe of Albanians who emigrated to the eastward.* The Monguls are well known to have included many Tatars, and Mahometan tribes from the east of the Caspian. These, with the Arabs and Persians, are generally called Moors.

ORIGINAL
POPULA-
TION.

The progressive geography of Hindostan may be said to begin with the victories of Alexander the Great, for the fables concerning Sesostris and Bacchus deserve no attention; and though the Persians appear to have made early conquests, and to have possessed no small knowledge of India, yet their science was lost to civilized Europe. After the age of Alexander many Greek and Roman authors, particularly Strabo, Arrian, and Pliny, have left information concerning the state of India. One of the most important ancient records is the description and map of Ptolemy, but they are so much distorted as to embarrass the most learned enquirer. Far from representing India in its just form, as stretching far to the south, he supposes the ocean to flow from the gulph of Cambay, almost in a line to the lake of Chilka, thus immersing under the waves a third part of Hindostan. At the same time he assigns to the island of Taprobana, or Ceylon, an enormous and fabulous extent. This, the most singular error of his whole system, has been attempted to be explained by M. Gossellin,[†] who supposes that the Taprobana of Ptolemy is the Deccan, or southern part of Hindostan; from Surat to cape Comorin, a strait being supposed to pass from the gulph of Cambay to the eastern shore of Orissa; and he infers that some of the ancients believed in this strait. The idea is ingenious, and ably illustrated, yet is far from being satisfactory. 1. Ptolemy's map of Taprobana is a tolerably just representation of Ceylon; and the

Progressive
Geography.

* The Avghans, or Afghans, pretend that their founder removed from the mountains of Armenia to those of Candahar. Colonel *Garber* takes it for granted that the Affghans whom he found near Derbent, were descendants of the Albani; and *Dr. Reinegg* contends that the names of the two people are in fact the same. The Armenians (*says he*) cannot pronounce the Letter L in the middle of a word, but call the Albans Agyhans, as they call Kalaki, Kaghaki, &c. *Ellis's Memoir*, page 6. Sir William Jones, *As. Res.* ii. 76, warmly recommended an enquiry into the history of the Afghans, and says that their language resembles the Chaldaic. It should be compared with that of the other Caucasian tribes.

† *Geographie des Grecs Analysee*, page 133.

PROGRES-
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numerous islands which he places near it are the Maldives; which, in a fair acceptation of his sense, must have been much further to the north, to have corresponded with Gosselin's opinion. The Ganges of Taprobana is the Mowil Ganga of Ceylon: the Soana, in the west, may also have a corresponding modern name, but cannot be the Soan which runs to the east into the great Ganges. 2. Taprobana is thinly peopled with a few tribes, unknown in ancient descriptions of India; and the whole form, and central ridge of mountains bear no resemblance whatever to the Deccan, but on the contrary approximate nearly to those of Ceylon. 3. The long strait mentioned by Gosselin is unknown in the map of Ptolemy, which on the contrary rather justly represents the sea between the coast of Coromandel and Ceylon, and his isle of *Cory* seems to be that now corruptly called *Cow* island: on the contrary a long strait must have been necessary, if Ptolemy had intended the Deccan, which is far wider in the north, than in the south; whereas Taprobana is represented narrower, like Ceylon. 4. The *Commara* of Ptolemy seems palpably to represent Cape Comari, or Comorin, and that geographer justly adds that it is an *extreme* promontory: in like manner other rivers, regions, towns, &c. may be traced in Ptolemy's India, which really belonged to the Deccan, though the latitudes be very erroneous.

Upon the whole it seems evident that Ptolemy has been misled in his delineation of India, by information so grossly fallacious as cannot be easily accounted for; but the candid apology of an able judge ought not to be omitted, especially as it relates to the greatest error of the father of geographical precision. "We ought to reflect that Ptolemy's ideas were collected from the people who sailed along the coast, and who described what they had seen and heard without regard to what lay beyond it: and moreover made use of too wide a scale; as commonly happens when the sphere of knowledge is confined, and the geographer works *ad libitum*, from the coast towards the interior of an unknown continent. Whoever consults Ptolemy's map of India should carry these ideas in his mind: that the construction of it is founded on three lines; one of which is that of the whole coast, from the gulph of

³ Rennell, 241.

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Cambay round to the Ganges; a second, the course of the Indus, and the gulphs of Cutch and Cambay; and the third, the common road from the Panjab to the mouths of the Ganges. The objects within these lines have a relative dependance on each line respectively; and are invariably placed at too great a distance within them: it therefore happens that an object which should have occupied a place near one of the lines is thrust towards the middle of the map; and this being a general case, places on opposite sides of India are crowded together, as Arcot and Sagur (*Sagbeda*) are. At the same time the central parts are wholly omitted; as being in reality unknown." Our learned geographer does not however explain how Ptolemy's map of Ceylon happened to represent that island five times too large. A similar instance indeed occurs in Bishop Leslie's map of Scotland, in which the isle of Hirta, or St. Kilda, is represented as three times as large as Mull; and perhaps the extent of Taprobana was in like manner swelled from its celebrity; or drawn by some mariner, and followed by Ptolemy in his description without observing the size of the scale.

However this be, there can be no doubt that D'Anville, in his large map of the world as known to the ancients, 1763, has in general assigned the names given by Ptolemy to their just positions, though Gossellin correct with great justice that able geographer's delineation of India beyond the Ganges. It would be foreign to the present purpose to enter into any detail; but a few names of rivers may be indicated.

After the Indus the rivers delineated by Ptolemy on the western coast are the Mophides, the Namadus, followed by a large river with a Delta called the Nanaguna, which is succeeded by two small streams, the Pseudastomus and the Baris. It is well known that no river of any length flows to the west, after passing the Taptee of Surat, but navigators unacquainted with the interior may easily have mistaken creeks for estuaries; and D'Anville supposes that Baris, the most southern, is in the neighbourhood of Goa. It is however to be wished that a map of ancient India were constructed from Ptolemy, and other authorities, applied to the recent information contained in Major Rennell's excellent map. Nor is it easy to conceive how D'Anville came to delineate

PROGRESSIVE GEOGRAPHY.

PROGRES-
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GRAPHY.

lineate a false Ganges, in the centre of the eastern coast, instead of the Manda, or the Tyndis of Ptolemy.

This celebrated country received little further illustration till the sixth century, when the intelligence of Cosmas is of no consequence, except as it elucidates the Persian traffic with India. Some materials may also be derived from the accounts of the Mahometan travellers, in the ninth century; and the oriental works of geography; nor was the great English king, Alfred, incurious concerning this celebrated region.* Marco Polo, the father of eastern geography, as known to Europeans, was followed by other travellers; and at length the Portuguese discovery of the Cape of Good Hope gradually led the way to the precision of modern knowledge; to which a recent geographer, Major-Rennell, has contributed with great success, and deserved celebrity.

History.

The history of Hindostan is a most obscure and embroiled subject, as either no native chronicles were written, or they were destroyed by the Bramins, anxious to obliterate the memory of former and happier ages, when their inordinate power was not established. Sir William Jones, and Anquetil du Perron, have bestowed some attention on this subject; but their investigations are more interesting to the antiquary than to the general reader.† The native traditions seem to describe the northern part of Hindostan as subject to one Raja, or Sovereign; which is little probable, as the most ancient extraneous accounts represent this wide country divided, as was to be expected, into many monarchies. By all accounts however the Deccan, or southern part, was subject to a distinct emperor, even to modern times. Major Rennell observes that Ferishta's history of the Deccan opens to our view the knowledge of an empire that has scarcely been heard of in Europe. "Its emperors of the Bahmineah dynasty, (which commenced with Hassan Caco, A. D. 1347,) appear to have exceeded in power and splen-

* The Saxon chronicle, and other English writers mention that Swithelm Bishop of Shireburn carried a present from Alfred to the shrine of St. Thomas in India, and returned in safety with some curiosities from the country. This Thomas was not the Apostle but some Nestorian missionary; and his shrine is at Melapour, near Madras, on the coast of Coromandel. Alfred little foresaw that an English settlement was to include this holy ground.

† Asiatic Researches, vol. ii. and Bernoulli's collection concerning India, Berlin, 1786, 4to tome ii. (not Bernoulli, as Dr. Robertson always spells the name.)

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History. dour those of Delhi, even at the most flourishing periods of their history. The seat of government was at Calberga, which was central to the great body of the empire, and is at this day a considerable city. Like other overgrown empires it fell to pieces with its own weight: and out of it were formed four potent kingdoms, under the names of Vishapour, (properly Bejapour), Golconda, Berar, and Amednagur; of whose particular limits and inferior members we are not well informed. Each of these subsisted with a considerable degree of power until the Mogul conquest; and the two first, as we have seen above, preserved their independency until the time of Aurunzebe.*

Chronology. The Hindoo chronology, published by Anquetil du Perron, is that of the Ragias, Rajas, or sovereigns of Bengal; and the most remarkable facts are repeated invasions by the Persians, one of them supposed to be fourteen centuries before the christian era. This kingdom of Bengal seems to have included almost the whole of Gangetic Hindostan, being perhaps that of the Prasii, or Gangaridæ of classical authors. But the names and extent of the early kingdoms of Hindostan are little known or investigated, and no credit can be lent to the fabulous poems, tales, and traditions, which represent this immense country as subject to one sovereign, an event which probably never occurred, till the reign of Aurunzeb, and may probably never again happen.*

Historical Epochs. The Hindoo epochs consisting of millions of years, and other fabulous circumstances, have hitherto attracted more attention than

* Rennell, lxxi.

* Alexander found two or three kingdoms in the Panjab, and the great Porus had only an army of 34,000. The Arabic travellers in the 9th century mention the *Balhara*, the most powerful prince in India by all the oriental accounts, in Guzerat. He is the *Beibar* of Abulfeda, who extends his dominions to Chanbalic, or China.

In the tenth century Massoudi describes Hindostan as divided into four kingdoms: 1. On the Indus, capital Moultan: 2. Canoge on the Ganges, perhaps including Bengal on the east: 3. Cashmir: 4. Guzerat, the sovereign of which he calls the *Balhara*. He had himself visited the country. Roberts. 225.

It seems clear that Hindostan, like other countries, became gradually reduced to fewer sovereignties: and the tales of the Bramins, or Ferishtas, a modern author, can never overturn these facts.

Add the recent discovery of the kingdom of Carnada, in the south; of which the capital was Bijanagar (View of the Deccan 1791, and Rennell's last memoir.) Scaliger de Subtil. mentions that the diamond was found fifteen days journey beyond this city, in the mountain of Ahingar: this implies Golconda.

HISTORICAL
EPOCHS.

a clear arrangement of the Hindoo sovereignties, and an account of the most authentic facts that can be recovered concerning them. While these chronologies differ by one or two thousand years concerning the incarnation of Buddha, we may judge of their exactness in less important events. Nor is it necessary to dwell on the children of the sun and moon, who reigned at Audh and Vitora; or the new dynasty of Magadha, or Bahar. The seventy-six princes, who are said to have reigned one thousand three hundred and ninety-nine years in Avabhriti, a town of the Dacshin, or south, which we commonly call Deccan, are slightly mentioned by Sir William Jones, who, with all his learning and talents, appears to be bewildered in the mist of Sanscrit mythological history.

Suffice it to observe that the Hindoos never seem to have boasted of one native historian, and the best materials are derived from Persian memoirs; from which Ferishta, himself a Persian, compiled his histories of Hindostan towards the beginning of the seventeenth century. Indeed in the whole complex maze of Hindoo literature there is a striking deficiency of good sense.* The more we are acquainted with Indian philosophy, the less veneration we entertain; and are led to infer that the admiration of the ancients was rather excited by the singularity than by the wisdom of the Brahmans. The heat, and other peculiar circumstances, of the climate have confessedly a degrading influence on the mind, which instead of bearing solid fruits here shoots into fantastic flowers. The political institutions must have been originally bad, as the great mass of the people was oppressed by one or two privileged casts, whence the dispirited natives were conquered by every invader. And the absurd philosophy of the Brahmans, for that philosophy must be absurd which delights in mythological dreams, the most fanatical practices, and common suicide; which may be said to crush all genius or exertion by the oppressive chains of cast, unknown to nature and pro-

* Mr. Bentley observes, *As. Ref.* v. 315. that the Hindoo aeras and dates are all blended together into one mass of absurdity and contradiction. A curious instance of this appears with regard to the celebrated temples of Ellora, and the singular fortress of Deoghiri, or Dowlatabad, formed on a high conic rock; for the Mahometans, whom we Europeans regard as rather extravagant in chronology, say that they were erected 900 years ago; while the Bramins affirm that they have stood not less than 7894 years! *As. Ref.* vi. 335.

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vidence; which has never in peace or war produced one man distinguished by supereminent talents; such philosophy must be considered as far inferior to the pl in good sense even of some other Asiatic nations. In short the history of Hindostan has only to be contrasted with that of China, to evince the superiority of practical good sense over theoretic wisdom and philosophy, which are often mere hotheads of new eccentricities and follies. And though mankind have in all ages wondered at the singularities of the Indian sophists, yet not one general precept of wisdom, not one rule for the conduct of life, not one discovery generally useful to mankind, can be traced to that celebrated and miserable country, where passive millions drag a feeble existence under the iron rod of a few crafty casta, amidst a climate and a soil almost paradisaical, and where it seemed impossible for human malignity to have introduced general degradation and distress.*

As there is thus no native history, and we know little more from their traditions, than that the empire of Hindostan proper in the north was distinct from that of Deccan in the south, we must be contented with the epochs derived from foreign records.

1. The invasion by Alexander the Great, who found western India divided among numerous potentates, though he advanced little further than Lahore. If even the northern half of Hindostan had been subject to one sovereign, as fabled in the native tales, the circumstance would have been clear and apparent.

2. At a long interval appears the conquest of the north western part by Mahmoud of Ghizni, A. D. 1000.

3. The dynasty of the Patan, or Affghan emperors begins with Cuttub, A. D. 1205, and ends with Mahmoud III, 1393.

* A writer in the Asiatic Researches (vi. 163.), after observing that the worship of Boodha extended over all Hindostan, and was not rooted out in the Deccan till about the twelfth century by the Bramins, who are the real heretics, and far from introducing any reformation have increased all the absurdities and puerilities a thousand fold, proceeds to give the following just character of those visionary sophists. "No useful science have the Brahmens diffused among their followers; history they have totally abolished; morality they have depressed to the utmost; and the dignity and power of the altar they have erected on the ruins of the state, and the rights of the subject. Even the laws attributed to Menu, which, under the form in use among the Burmas, are not ill suited for the purpose of an absolute monarchy, under the hands of the Brahmens have become the most abominable and degrading system of oppression, ever invented by the craft of designing men."

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HISTORICAL
EPOCHS.

4. The Great Moguls, or Mongul Emperors begin with Baber, 1525; and continued, with a short interruption, by the Patans to Shah Aulum, 1760.

The invasion by Timur, and at a distant interval that by Nadir, also form remarkable epochs in the history of this passive country. The latter may be said to have virtually dissolved the Mogul empire. The Portuguese settlements were followed by those of the Dutch. The French power began to predominate in 1749, but speedily closed in 1761, with the loss of their principal settlement, Pondicherry. As merchants the English had long held small settlements in Hindostan, but the expedition into Tanjore, 1749, was the first enterprize against a native prince. Other contests followed concerning Arcot in the kingdom of Carnada, or what we call the Carnatic. In 1756 the fort of Calcutta, our chief settlement in Bengal, was taken by the Nabob, and many of our brave countrymen perished in a shocking manner from being confined in a small chamber. The battle of Plassey, fought in June 1757, laid the foundation of the subsequent power of Britain. Lord Clive, Governor of Bengal, 1765, obtained a grant from the nominal Mogul, of Bengal, Bahar, and part of Orissa, on condition of an annual tribute. Soon after the English were engaged in a contest with Hyder Alli, a soldier of fortune who had dethroned the lineal sovereign of Mayssur, or Mysore, and extended his conquests to the adjacent territories. Some conflicts followed on the confines of Carnada and Mysore; but the event was little advantageous to either party. Hyder dying in 1782, was succeeded by his son Tippoo, who seems to have been a prince of inferior abilities, and expiated his ill arranged plans by his death, and the partition of his territories, in 1799.

The Bengal provinces have been in our possession since 1765; and Benares was added in 1775. This portion might constitute a considerable kingdom, and is sufficiently compact, and secure by natural advantages, independent of a formidable force. The Sircars, or detached provinces, partly belong to Golconda, and partly to Orissa, forming a long narrow slip of country from twenty to seventy-five miles wide, but about three hundred and fifty in length. The word Sircar is almost synonymous with an English county, implying a division of a Souba,

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a Souba, or great province; and these detached Sircars, or countries, being to the north of Madras, on which they are dependant, are commonly styled the Northern Sircars.³ In 1754 they were acquired by the French; and conquered by the English under Colonel Clive in 1759.

HISTORICAL
EPOCHS.

The English settled at Madras about the year 1640; and their territory here extends about a hundred and eight British miles along the shore, and forty-seven in breadth, in the centre of the ancient kingdom of Carnada. The recent and extensive acquisitions in the south have been already mentioned.

Nor among the modern historical epochs of Hindostan must the celebrated battle of Panniput, not far to the N. W. of Delhi, be omitted, which was fought in 1761, between the Mahometans under Abdalla King of Candahar, and the Marattas, in which the latter were defeated: the Mahometans were computed at 150,000, and the Marattas at 200,000.

The ancient monuments of Hindostan are very numerous, and of various descriptions, exclusive of the tombs and other edifices of the mahometan conquerors. Some of the most remarkable are excavated temples, statues, relievos, &c. in an island near Bombay; but the most magnificent and extensive are near the town of Ellora, about two hundred miles to the east of Bombay.⁴ The latter are minutely described and illustrated with plates in the sixth volume of the Asiatic Researches, to which the reader is referred. The idols represented seem clearly to belong to the present mythology of Hindostan; but at what period these edifices were modelled, whether three hundred, or three thousand years ago, must be left in the darkness of Hindoo chronology. Several ancient grants of land, some coins, and seals, have also been found. Yet all these remains little correspond with the exaggerated ideas entertained concerning the early civilization of this renowned country; while the Egyptian pyramids, temples, and obelisks, strongly confirm the accounts preserved by the ancient historians.

Ancient Mo-
numents.

Though the mythology of the Hindoos may pretend to great antiquity, yet their present form of religion is supposed to vary consider-

Mythology.

³ Rennell, cxxxiv.

⁴ As. Res. vol. i. and vi

MYTHOLOGY.

ably from the ancient. It is inferred that while the religion of Boodha, still retained by the Birmans and other adjacent nations, was the real ancient system of Hindostan, the artful Bramins have introduced many innovations, in order to increase their own power and influence. Sir William Jones, and other intelligent authors on the subject are decidedly of this opinion, and caution us not to confound the ancient Brahmans with the modern Bramins. The chief modern deities are Brahma, Vishna, and Shiva, or the creator, preserver, and destroyer; while Boodha seems to have been the chief object of veneration in former periods. The mythology of Hindostan has been ably illustrated by Monsieur Roger, chaplain of the Dutch factory at Poolicat on the coast of Coromandel, in his curious book intitled *La Porte ouverte*; and in more recent times by Sir William Jones, and other able enquirers. In a system so full of imagination it is no wonder that the analyses are sometimes discordant, but it appears that the fabric rests on that almost universal system of the east, the belief in a Supreme Creator too ineffable and sublime for human adoration, which is therefore addressed to inferior, but great and powerful divinities. The names and attributes of the gods and goddesses, for the voluptuous Hindoos delight in female divinities, are very numerous, and as human wants and ideas are almost universally the same, correspond in many instances with the Greek and Roman polytheism.*

Religion.

The religion of the Hindoos is artfully interwoven with the common offices of life; and the different casts are supposed to originate from Brahma, the immediate agent of creation under the supreme power, in the following manner.

The *Brabmin*, from the mouth (wisdom): To pray, to read, to instruct.

The *Chebteree*, from the arms (strength): To draw the bow, to fight, to govern.

The *Bice*, from the belly, or thighs (nourishment): To provide the necessaries of life by agriculture and traffic.

The *Sooder*, from the feet (subjection): To labour, to serve.

* In Sonnerat's decorated publication good representations will be found of the chief Hindoo divinities.

? Robertson's Disquisition, p. 338.

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The ancients sometimes enlarged the number of these casts, or perpetual orders of men, by an erroneous subdivision of two or more, yet it is impossible to read their accounts without perceiving that the casts themselves existed from time immemorial, but with one important variation. For it would appear that in ancient times the Brahmans, like the Priests, or Monks of Ava, Siam, and other states which still follow the worship of Boodh, were not hereditary, or a distinct levitical tribe, but that any member of the other casts might enter into this order, which was of course deemed inferior to the chief secular, or military cast. At present the meanest Bramin will not condescend to eat with his sovereign. Setting the ridiculous and fanciful tales of this interested tribe wholly out of the question, it would appear that, in the usual circle of human affairs, a contest had arisen between the regal and ecclesiastical powers. The latter, instead of being subdued as in China, and Japan, acquired the superiority as in Tibet. But in Hindostan, from a most refined and cunning policy, the priesthood asserted the divine institution of the several casts, and, as was natural, pronounced their own to be the supreme, and possessed of innate and hereditary sanctity. It seems to be allowed that Boodh was a deified philosopher: and it is probable that Brahma was the sophist who invented the new casts, and was not only deified, but placed in the first rank of the gods, by the grateful priesthood, the sole directors of the national mythology.

However this be, the religious tenets of the Hindoos are so artfully and closely interwoven with their existence, that they are as distinct and peculiar a people as the Jews, and their conversion to christianity seems even more hopeless. If the Zingari, or Gipseys be, as is now credited, Pariars of the meanest Hindoo class, who fled from the cruelties of Timur, we may judge from the state of that singular tribe, in the various countries of Europe, for these four centuries, that if the Hindoos themselves should be scattered they would remain, like the Jews, a marked and peculiar people.

Hindostan is now divided into many governments, the form of Government, which must be considered in describing the several states. Suffice it here to observe, that though the Bramins be the most dignified cast, yet there do not seem to have been one or more high priests, as in the surrounding

RELIGION.

Government.

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- GOVERNMENT.** surrounding countries. This singularity remains to be explained by learned enquirers. The sovereignty was abandoned to the military cast, and the monarch was presumed to be proprietor of all the lands, except those belonging to the church. The Ryots held their possessions by a lease at a fixed rate, and considered as perpetual. The Zemindars were in the opinion of some only collectors of the royal rents from the Ryots, or farmers: but according to others the Zemindars were landed gentlemen, who had an hereditary right to these rents, upon paying a settled proportion to the crown. It is to be wished that the most liberal European forms were introduced into our own establishments, which might serve as a beneficent model to the surrounding nations.
- Laws.** The laws of the Hindoos are intimately blended with their religion, and the curious reader may consult the code, translated and published by the direction of Mr. Hastings.
- Population.** The population of this extensive part of Asia is supposed to amount to sixty millions, of which the British possessions may now perhaps contain a quarter, especially as frequent recent conflicts have thinned the population in many other parts of Hindostan. When it is considered that China is about one quarter less than Hindostan, and yet is said to contain two hundred and thirty millions, we may judge of the boasted effects of Hindoo philosophy, more fit for the visionary cell of the recluse, than to promote universal spirit and industry.
- General Revenues.** The general revenues of Hindostan were computed, in the time of Aurunzeb, as already mentioned, by a precise calculation of those of the several provinces, at thirty-two millions sterling; equal perhaps, considering the comparative price of products, to one hundred and sixty millions sterling in modern England.
- Political Importance.** The political importance and relations of Hindostan are now divided among many powers. So miserable was the intestine constitution that this wide and populous country, defended on all sides by ranges of mountains, has in all ages fallen a prey to every invader. The fantastic institutions, like those of the ancient Persians, prevent the Hindoos from forming a maritime power; and even the small fleets of Siam

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Siam and Pegu, which follow the more liberal doctrines of Boodh, seem unrivalled in the history of Hindostan.

The manners and customs of the Hindoos are intimately blended with their religion, and are universally similar; with a few exceptions in mountainous and other peculiar districts. One of the most singular begins to expire, that of giving the living widow to the same flames with her husband's corpse. The ancients represent the Bramins as accustomed to terminate their own lives on funeral piles lighted by themselves. But by what refinement of cruelty this custom was extended to involuntary and helpless females has not appeared: perhaps the cause was to enforce the preservation of their husband's health by making their life depend on his.* But this and other monstrous institutions of the Bramins are treated with lenity, and even respect by many authors, who seem to inherit the Greek astonishment at these fanatics:

" And wonder with a foolish face of praise."

The other manners and customs of the Hindoos have been illustrated by many travellers. As soon as a child is born it is carefully registered in its proper cast, and astrologers are consulted concerning its destiny; for the Hindoos, like the Turks, are strict predestinarians. A Bramin imposes the name. The infant thrives by what we would call neglect; and no where are seen more vigour and elegance of form. The boys are generally taught reading and writing by Bramins, but the girls are confined at home till their twelfth year.† Polygamy is practised; but one wife is acknowledged as supreme: the ceremony is accompanied with many strange idolatrous forms, minutely described by the author last quoted. It is well known that the Hindoos are extremely abstemious, and wholly abstain from animal food † and intoxicating liquors; yet if we judge from the fanatic penances, suicides, and other superstitious frenzies, no where on earth is the mind so much disordered. The houses and dresses are of the most simple kind; and nudity is no reproach to a Bramin. The houses are built of earth or bricks, covered

* This custom was chiefly enforced on the wives of Bramins.

† See a voyage to the East Indies by Fra. Paolino da San Bartolomeo, 1800, 8vo: the author's name was Weisig, an Austrian.

‡ This only implies to the Bahun or Bania cast. The Bruhmans, Chetries, and various subdivisions of Sudors eat animal food, though they abstain from the flesh of oxen. *Quisley.*

MANNERS
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with mortar, and sometimes with excellent cement; with no windows, or only small apertures. There is generally only a ground floor, inclosing a court, with a small gallery supported by slight wooden pillars. The amusements consist of religious processions; but though dancing girls abound, yet theatrical exhibitions do not seem so common as in the countries further to the east.

Languages.

The general ancient language of Hindostan is believed to have been the Sanscret, an original and refined speech, compared by Sir William Jones with the Greek and Latin. The more common dialects are chiefly the following:⁹

1. That of Kandi in the interior of Ceylon, which is said nearly to resemble the Sanscret.

2. The Tamulac, used in the Deccan, or southern part, in Madura, Mysore, and some parts of the Malabar coast. Wefdin, who was conversant in it, pronounces it harmonious and easily acquired.

3. The Malabar language, extending from cape Comari to the mountain Illi, which divides Malabar from Canara. One of its alphabets is called the *Maleyam Tamul*. Perhaps this may be the primitive Malay language; but *Mala* in general implies a mountain, as *Gaut* does a pass.

4. That of Canara, which extends as far as Goa.

5. The Marashda language. It is prevalent throughout the whole country of the *Marashdi*, who are very improperly called *Marattas*.

6. The Talenga, an harmonious, nervous, masculine, copious, and learned language, which, like the Sanscret, has fifty-two characters; and these are sufficient to write the latter. It is spoken on the coast of Orisa, in Golconda, on the river Kishna, and as far as the mountains of Balangat. All these languages have their own alphabets: so that in every province you must make yourself acquainted with a distinct kind of characters, if you wish to express your thoughts in the dialect common in each.

7. The common Bengal language: a wretched dialect, corrupted in the utmost degree. It has no V, and instead of it employs the B; so that instead of *Ved* you must write *Beda*. It is spoken at Calcutta; and in Bengal on the banks of the Ganges.

⁹ Wefdin, 317.

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" 8. The Devangaric, or Hindostan language; called by some Nagru, LANGUAGE. Nagari, and also Devanagari.* It is spoken at Benares, or Venares, and consists of fifty-two characters, with which you can write the Sanscrit. Its mode of writing has been introduced into all the northern part of India. A specimen of it may be seen in the first volume of the Asiatic Researches.

" 9. The Guzaratic, which has been introduced not only into the kingdom of Guzarat, but also at Baroche, Surat, Tatta, and the neighbourhood of the Balangat mountains. Its characters are little different from those of the Devanagari.

" 10. The Nepalic, which is spoken in the kingdom of Nepal, and has a great similarity to the *Devanagari*."

So far Waddin; who adds his opinion, that all these languages proceed from the Sanscrit, which Sir William Jones imagines was transplanted from Persia. Hindostan is in truth an excellent field for the investigation of antiquaries, who may here confound hundreds of years with thousands; and may dispute for ever without arriving at any decision.

The literature of Hindostan doubtless contains several valuable and curious monuments; but the want of history and chronology renders their epochs extremely uncertain. A language may be antiquated in the course of a few centuries, as well as in the lapse of some thousands of years. But while the Hindoo literati compute by millions of ages, they forget that little division called a century. There seems no chronology of authors who successively quote or mention each other; and there is not even any great land mark, like the age of Confucius among the Chinese. Hence little else than confusion and contradiction are to be found in the numerous accounts published of Hindoo literature.

The most important books are the Vedas; one of which has nine sections, and another one thousand. It is to be hoped that these forgeries are more ancient than the Puranas, which have been demon-

* Nagari is the name of a character, not of a language. The common Nagari is used in Benares to write the Hindustani tongue. The Devanagari (or character of the god-) is employed to write the Sanscrit. There are other Nagaris as the Mahageni Nagari, used exclusively by native bankers or Mahajans throughout Hindostan. *Ouseley*.

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frated by Mr. Bentley not to exceed seven centuries in antiquity." There are some epic poems which pretend to contain fragments of genuine history." The most ancient, called Ramayana, was written by Valmici; and next in celebrity is the Mahabarat of Vyasa, who is said to have been the author of some Puranas, and of course could not have flourished above seven hundred years ago: and it is probable that the more ancient poem cannot aspire to a much higher date. It is a great singularity that the old Hindoo grants of land, many of which have been translated and published, are extremely long, and in a strange poetical or inflated style, some of the compound words consisting of not less than one hundred and fifty syllables! When we compare these singularities with the brevity and clearness of the Greek and Roman inscriptions, and the unbiaffed dictates of plain good sense, we are led to conclude that the Hindoos are the puerile slaves of a capricious imagination. And though some translations of their best works have already appeared, they have not acquired the smallest degree of European reputation; and have very little interested a few curious enquirers, though eager to be pleased. To compare such tedious trifles, alike destitute of good sense, vigorous genius, or brilliant fancy, with the immortal productions of Greece or Rome, would only confirm the idea, that the climate itself impairs judgment while it inflames imagination.

The Hindoos are ignorant of the Chinese art of printing, and the materials used in their manuscripts seem very perishable; nor have we any rules for determining the antiquity of these manuscripts. To an exact enquirer this would have been the first topic of investigation; but it has on the contrary been completely neglected. We have merely the bold assertions of Bramins, eagerly imbibed by European credulity, instead of successive arguments and proofs.

Ancient Civilization.

Dr. Robertson considers the ancient and high civilization of the Hindoos, as established by their division into casts; by their civil policy;

¹⁰ *Af. Ref. vi.* According to Gior, i. Alph. Tib. 127. Veda or Bed is the first principle; as the Bedu of Macedon is air, spirit, but of Orpheus water. May not the term have passed from the Macedonian kingdom of Bactria?

¹¹ *Af. Ref. i. 340,* a poet called Somadeva begins with the history of Nanda, King of Patna. *Ib. iv. xviii.*

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by their laws; their useful and elegant arts; their sciences and religious institutions." But the arguments of that able author seem liable to some objections. 1. The distinction into casts is doubtless ancient and peculiar; but seems to have proceeded from a crafty priesthood in order to fix their own superiority and preponderance. The error of the Doctor's argument consists in his confounding casts with trades, while they are in truth totally distinct, as neither a priest, a soldier, a farmer, nor a labourer is a tradesman. Separation of trades argues refinement; but from the Hindoo casts nothing can be concluded, except that agriculture existed at their institution. When our author adds, "what now is in India, always was there," he evinces rather a singular love of hypothesis. All we know from antiquity is, that the casts existed in the time of Strabo, Arrian, and Pliny, and perhaps were not known even in the time of Alexander. Suppose that they even existed three centuries before the christian æra, we have only a proof that agriculture and merchandize were then known in Hindostan; and yet the first tribe that passed from the center of Asia might, even in that case, have only begun to people the north of Hindostan a few centuries, or say a thousand years before the christian æra. 2. The civil policy is considered as proving early civilization, not indeed because the Hindoo fables represent the whole country as subject to one monarch, but because Alexander found kingdoms of some magnitude. But these kingdoms were no larger in proportion, than those which Cæsar found in barbaric Gaul and Britain. The magnitude of the country is forgotten, inhabited by an indigenious people, and remarkably destitute of natural barriers. That some old institutions remain is no wonder, when the identity of oriental customs is considered. 3. The laws are sufficiently numerous and complex; but so are those of England at present, though they were in a very different predicament six centuries ago; but our ingenious author speaks familiarly of the Hindoo millions of years, and forgets our little centuries. The Hindoo code may be extremely ancient; and yet perhaps was written about the plain christian year 1200. 4. The useful and elegant arts likewise require the illustration of chronology, and as there are no inscriptions with clear authentic dates

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" Disquisition, 257.

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in the famous excavations in the isle of Elephanta, in that of Salfett, or at Elora, it is impossible to pronounce concerning their antiquity, especially as the mythology continues the same. These, and other monuments, may perhaps be of great antiquity, but it is as probable that they were the works of the famous Balharas, as of any imaginary Hindoo emperors, who only exist in the wild imaginations of the Bramins. The ruins of Persepolis evince that the edifice could not have been erected since the Mahometans conquered that country in the seventh century. But where the religion continued pagan, and a splendid native monarchy existed till the sixteenth century, to any sober enquirer it will appear more rational to conclude that these monuments belong to the fifteenth century after Christ, rather than to the fifteenth century before. And this opinion will remain equally firm, if all the Bramins computed their duration by millions or billions of years. In like manner the detached temples in the south may present magnificent proofs of Hindoo architecture in the *seventeenth* century. That the Hindoos could both make and dye linen and cotton is no proof of great social progress. The ancients traded to India for spices, precious stones, and silk, but manufactured goods are scarcely mentioned. The uncertain antiquity of Hindoo literature has been already discussed. 5. As to the sciences, the want of chronology is equally felt; and it is probable that the Hindoos might derive some knowledge from the Greeks of Bactria. The absurd study of astrology, still in the highest repute among the Bramins, has of course occasioned a particular attention to be paid to astronomy; but the Chinese, and perhaps even the Siamese, rival the Hindoos in this science, in which it is easy to calculate tables backward to any epoch;* and the Bramins perhaps have sufficient patience to compute eclipses, &c. which must have happened, if this planet had existed ten millions of years.† 6. In the last place, our most learned and respectable

* The Cali Yug was, like the Julian period, fixed by retrospective computation. It begins about 3000 years before the christian æra. *As. Res.* iii. 224.

† The whole arguments of M. Bailly and others for the antiquity of the Hindoo astronomy seem at length to be completely overturned by a learned dissertation of Mr. Bentley, published in the *Asiatic Researches* 1799, (vi. 540, 8vo edit.) to which the curious reader is referred. The result is, that the system so eagerly applauded, and supposed by M. Bailly, Dr. Robertson, and

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speckable author considers the religious institutions of the Hindoos as a proof of early and high civilization. Yet it is not a little singular that all his arguments concerning the regularity of the system, the magnificent temples, &c. might have been applied to the Roman catholic system in Scandinavia, in the year 1300; at which time it had not there existed above two centuries. The mythology of Hindostan is probably as ancient as its first population, and has been gradually expanded and refined like classical paganism. But the recent discovery, that the worship of Boodh preceded that of Brahma, could not have been foreseen; and it is probable that in many respects the ancient system differed most essentially from the modern.

So much for the ancient civilization of the Hindoos, who are nevertheless at present in general highly civilized, and of the most gentle and amiable manners. But perhaps in no art nor science are they equal to the Chinese or Japanese; and in most are confessedly greatly inferior.

The chief university in the north is that of Benares, a most celebrated and ancient school, now included in the English possessions. In the Deccan the academy of Tricium, on the Malabar coast, is also in great repute, and according to our author: "At *Cangiburam*, in *Carnate*, there is still a celebrated Brahman school, which, according to the testimony of Ptolemy, existed in the first century of the christian æra; and its members are certainly equal in celebrity to the Brahmans of *Vanares*, or *Banares*."¹³ It is to be hoped that our recent acquisitions

and others, to be of such remote antiquity, cannot be of a greater age than *seven hundred and thirty-one* years. In other words, it was composed about A. D. 1668. "Therefore any Hindu work in which the name of Varaha or his system is mentioned, must evidently be modern; and this circumstance alone totally destroys the pretended antiquity of many of the Purans, and other books, which through the artifices of the Brahminical tribe have been hitherto deemed the most ancient in existence." Thus the chief pillar of the antiquity of Hindoo science has been torn down by this modern Sampson, and many antiquaries have perished in the ruins. Perhaps the Vedas may be found to have been composed by the artful Bramins, in imitation of the Koran, or of the books ascribed to Confucius, for the ancients do not mention any sacred Hindoo code. Menu may have been an honest lawyer of the 13th century; and the whole Hindoo arts and sciences, except weaving, he found to be derived from their neighbours. We may then exclaim as the Egyptian priests did to Solon, "Ye Hindoos, and even ye Bramins, ye always were, and remain children."

¹³Weldin, 283.

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in the south will lead to the discovery of new literary treasures in that quarter, where it is to be expected that native knowledge is more pure and perfect than in the north, where it was so long trampled under foot by the Mahometan conquerors.

Inland Na-
vigation.

With respect to inland navigation Hindostan forms a striking contrast with China. In the fourteenth century Feroz III, of the Patan dynasty, ordered some short canals to be dug in the neighbourhood of Delhi; and had an intention as is said of uniting the Ganges with the Indus, or Setlege. This intended canal, which would not have been above one quarter the length of the great canal of China, has been praised as a grand and wonderful design; a sufficient proof of the great inferiority of the Hindoos, and their Mahometan victors, in the solid and useful arts.

Manufac-
ture.

The manufactures of Hindostan have been celebrated from early antiquity, particularly the muslins and other fabrics from cotton. Piece goods, as we call them, are mentioned by the author of the Periplus, and other ancient writers, who praise the manufacture and the beautiful colours with which it was dyed. The Hindoos, in the time of Strabo, were also noted for elegant works in metals and ivory. These circumstances however afford no proof of such early civilization as is inferred; for the Romans, with the same materials, could at that period have equalled if not exceeded the Hindoos; and yet the Romans were barbarians till three or four centuries before the christian æra. The fine linen of Egypt seems to have been of far more remote antiquity. Nor is Hindostan celebrated at this day for any manufacture, except those of muslins and calicoes, the other exports consisting of diamonds, raw silks, with a few wrought silks, spices, drugs, &c. The shawls of Cashmir are also deservedly esteemed; being there woven from a material chiefly supplied by Tibet. Sonnerat* has illustrated with some care the arts and trades of the Hindoos. Painting is in its infancy; and they are strangers to shade and perspective. In the painted muslins and calicoes the brightness of the tints is owing to nature rather than art. Sculpture is as little advanced as painting, the design and execution being alike

* Tome i. page 99.

bad; yet the temples are sometimes majestic and solemn. In most trades very few tools are employed. The simple loom is reared in the morning under a tree, and carried home in the evening.

MANUFACTURES.

But it is the abundance of native products, which has in all ages rendered Hindostan the centre of great trade. Diamonds, and some other precious stones, are products almost peculiar; as well as many spices, aromatics, and drugs. In modern times the tea and porcelain of China, and other oriental articles, have been vaguely included among those of the East Indies. But rice, sugar, and many articles of luxury are products of Hindostan.

Native Products.

The climate and seasons are considerably diversified by difference of latitude, and local situation. Yet in general, though the northern Alps of Tibet be covered with perpetual snow, there is some similarity of climate through the wide regions of Hindostan. In Bengal the hot, or dry season begins with March, and continues to the end of May, the thermometer sometimes rising to 110°: this intense heat is sometimes interrupted by violent thunder storms from the north-west, the seat of the grand Alps of Asia. The fogs are not only common, but horribly thick and unhealthy. Various meteorological journals, kept in Bengal, are published in the Asiatic Researches, whence a complete idea may be formed of the seasons. The rainy season continues from June to September: the three last months of the year are generally pleasant; but excessive fogs often prevail in January and February.

Climate and Seasons.

The periodical rains are also felt in Sindetic Hindostan, except in Cashmir, where they seem to be excluded by the surrounding mountains. In the rest of Hindostan they almost deluge the country, descending like cataracts from the clouds, and the Ganges and other rivers spread to a wide extent, the inundation ceasing in September. By the latter end of June the Ganges has risen fifteen feet and a half out of thirty-two, which is the total of its overflow.¹⁵ In the mountains the rainy season begins early in April; but rarely in the plains till the latter end of June. "By the latter end of July all the lower parts of Bengal, contiguous to the Ganges and Burrampooter, are over-

¹⁵ Rennell, 349.

CLIMATE
AND SEA-
SONS.

flowed, and form an inundation of more than a hundred miles in width; nothing appearing but villages and trees, excepting very rarely the top of an elevated spot (the artificial mound of some deserted village) appearing like an island."

In the southern division the chains of the Gauts, or mountains of Malabar and Coromandel, supporting the high table land in the centre, intercept the great mass of clouds; and the alternate S. W. and N. E. winds, called the Monsoons, occasion a rainy season on one side of the mountains only, that is on the windward side.* Yet it appears that during the first part of the rainy monsoon, in May and June, on the coast of Malabar, a considerable quantity of rain falls in the upper region or table land of Myfore, &c. Major Rennell observes, that at Nagpour, in the very centre of Hindostan, the seasons differ but little from their usual course in Bengal, and on the western side; that is the S. W. monsoon occasions a rainy season, though not so violent. In the parallel of Surat, from the mountains declining in height, and other causes, there is no longer that singularity which occasions rain on one side of the Deccan while the opposite season prevails on the other. The monsoon is from the N. E. from October to April; and from May to September in the opposite direction. The rainy season on the coast of Coromandel is with the N. E. monsoon; and on that of Malabar with the S. W.: in general March, April, May, and June are the dry months.

Hence while in Tibet the winter nearly corresponds with that of Switzerland, and the rest of Europe, in the whole extent of Hindostan, except in Cashmir, there can hardly be said to be a vestige of winter,

* Rennell, 293. Through the whole of this account of Hindostan there has been occasion to regret the want of a geography of that country, regularly digested from the numerous detached accounts. Mr. Pennant's work yields infinitely to the geography of his Arctic Zoology; and independantly of its want of plan and sub-divisions, is defective even in his own province, that of natural history, as connected with climate and soil.

In his last memoir, page 15, Rennell informs us that in southern Hindostan the S. W. monsoon prevails, May, June, and July, on the W. coast, and the N. E. monsoon on the opposite during a part of October, and all November and December: but the rain of the former is the heaviest, being 72 inches a year. In Coromandel summer begins in June; in Malabar in October, when it is winter in the other. Wefdin, p. 4.

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except the thick fogs of our November : and excessive rains, or excessive heats, form the chief varieties of the year.

CLIMATE
AND
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General Face
of the Coun-
try.

The aspect of this wide country is extremely diversified; but in general there are no mountains of any considerable height, the highest Gauts in the south not being estimated at above three thousand feet. The frontier mountains of Tibet are of small elevation, compared with those of the interior of that country; and the wonderful extent of Hindostan consists chiefly of extensive plains, fertilized by numerous rivers and streams, and interspersed with a few ranges of hills. The periodical rains and intense heats produce a luxuriance of vegetation, almost unknown to any other country on the globe: and the variety and richness of the vegetable creation delight the eye of every spectator.

The soil is sometimes so excellent as to consist of black vegetable mould to the depth of six feet. Rice is the chief grain; and on the dry sandy lands of the coast of Coromandel great industry is displayed in watering it.* Maiz and the sugar canes are also favourite products. Extreme attention to manure seems far from being so general as in China or Japan: nor perhaps is it necessary. The cultivation of cotton may also be conceived to be widely diffused; and this plant particularly thrives on the dry coast of Coromandel. There must of course be a considerable diversity in the modes of agriculture, as well as in the products, through so wide a country; but in general the implements are of the most simple description, though the fertility of the land amply compensate for any defect in practice or industry.*

In describing the large and numerous rivers of Hindostan, the Ganges and Indus shall first be considered, with their chief tributary streams; and a short account of the principal rivers in the central part shall be followed by those in the southern division. This arrangement naturally arises from the four grand divisions formerly mentioned.

The Ganges must still be considered as the sacred sovereign of the Hindoo rivers, an attribute not infringed by the recent discovery of the

* Sonnerat, i. 106.

* The harvest is divided into two periods, the Khereef and Rubbee; the former being in September, and October; and the latter in March and April. *As. Res.* vi. 45.

RIVERS.

Burrampooter. It receives such a number of important tributary streams, that its magnitude exceeds what might have been expected from the comparative length of its course; which may however be estimated at about fourteen hundred British miles, while the Hoan-ho of China has been computed at two thousand, and the Kian-ku at two thousand two hundred. The source of the Ganges remains a curious object of investigation; nor can much reliance be placed on its delineation in the map of Tibet by the Chinese Lamas, published by Du Halde, and followed by all succeeding geographers. For, independantly of the doubts which accompany the relation of these Lamas, the reader has only to compare Mr. Turner's map of his route in the south of Tibet, with the same country in Du Halde's map, to see that the latter is erroneous in almost every respect, as the courses of the rivers, names of places, &c. &c. Such being the case, there is little room to expect more accuracy in the other parts. Anquetil du Perron considers the source of the Ganges as still unexplored; and says that the Chinese missionaries only discovered that of the Gogra, or Gagra, a large river running parallel with the Ganges on the east, and joining that noble stream above Chupra. The labours of the jesuit Tieffenthaler have little illustrated this subject, though they seem to evince that the Gagra springs from a lake called Lancken, to the west of the lake of Manfaror, whence one source of the Ganges is supposed to flow.* Tieffenthaler has laid down the latitude of the noted Gangoutra, or Cow's mouth in lat. 33°, being a celebrated cataract where the Ganges is said to pass through a vast cavern in a mountain falling into a large basin which it has worn in the rock. At Hurdwar, about two hundred and eighty miles to the south of the Cow's mouth, (if this last be not a dream of the fabling Hindoos,) the Ganges enters the wide plains of Hindostan; and pursues a south east direction by the ancient city of Canoge, once the capital of a kingdom, by Allahabad, Benares, Patna, &c. till dividing into many grand and capacious mouths it forms an extensive Delta at its egress into the gulf of Bengal. The extreme mouths of the Ganges are intersected with isles, called the Sunderbunds,

* See Tome ii. of Bernoulli's Collection, page 351, &c. Rennell, 313: the jesuit's mountains of Kelaich, i. 150, seem the Kentais of the Lamas.

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overgrown with tall bamboos and other luxuriant vegetation, the pro-^{RIVERS.} found haunts of the royal tiger and other beasts of prey. On the western-most outlet of the Ganges, called the Hoogley, or Ugli, stands Calcutta, the capital of British Hindostan. This, and the most eastern which receives the Burrampooter, are the widest and most important branches.

The noblest tributary stream of the Ganges is the Burrampooter, or ^{Burrampoot.} as styled by the people of Asam the Burrampoot, being the Sâmpoo of the Tibetans. The course of this river, and its junction with the Ganges, were first ascertained by Major Rennell of the Engineers, and Surveyor General in Bengal, in 1765. This noble river runs for four hundred miles through the British territory; and for the last sixty miles before its junction with the Ganges is from four to five miles wide. On their union below Luckipour, they form a body of running fresh water, resembling a gulph of the sea, interspersed with islands, some of which rival in size and fertility our Isle of Wight. In the mouths of the Ganges, and the Megna, or Burrampoot, the Bore or sudden influx of the tide will rise instantaneously to the height of from five to twelve feet.¹⁸ Between Bengal and Tibet the Burrampoot passes through the country of Asam, a region hitherto little known, and ^{Asam.} which may be here briefly described. It is divided into two parts by the river; the northern being called Uttarcul, and the southern Dacshincul. The mountains of Duleh, and Landa divide Asam from Tibet.¹⁹ Asam is intersected by several streams which run into the Burrampoot; among which is the Donec in the south, the environs of which present fields, groves, and gardens. Among the products are many kinds of valuable fruits, with pepper, cocoa nuts, sugar, and ginger. The silk is said to equal that of China; nor are musk deer unknown. The northern province, Uttarcul, surpasses the southern in tillage and population; gold and silver are said to be found in the sand of the rivers, and to furnish employment to many of the natives. The Hindoo tenets are not known by the generality, though there be some Bramins, and the vulgar dialect somewhat resemble that of Bengal. The Raja or king resides at Ghargon, the capital, which, by this account, stands on the

¹⁸ Rennell, 338.¹⁹ As. Res. ii. 171.

RIVERS.

South of the great river: it is fenced with bamboos, and has four gates constructed of stone and earth. The palace, public school, &c. seem rudely to resemble those of the Birman. The natives are a stout and brave race; and repeatedly foiled the invasions of the Moguls.*

The course of the Burrampoot is supposed to be nearly equal in length to that of the Ganges. The sources of these great rivers are stated to be very near, yet they separate to the distance of more than a thousand miles, and afterwards join in their termination.

Gagra, &c.

The most important tributary streams which swell the Ganges are the Gagra, also called Sarjoo, (a great part of whose course, like those of the Coza and Teesta, belong to Tibet;) the Jumna or Yumena, which receives many considerable rivers from the south, particularly the Chumbul and the Betwa; and lastly the Soan.

The Gagra, after pursuing a long course from the mountains of Tibet, pervades the province of Oude. It is singular that this river is wholly unknown by any name whatever in the map of Tibet by the Lamas; another cogent proof that it deserves very little credit. The comparative course of the Gagra is about seven hundred miles.

Jumna.

The Jumna rises from the mountains of Sirinagur, pursuing nearly a parallel course to the Ganges on the west, as the Gagra does on

* Turpin, in his account of Siam, Paris 1771, has given some interesting details concerning this country, probably derived from the recent materials of the Bishop of Tabraca, and other missionaries in Siam. He says it is the only country of Asia, where humanity is not crushed under the weight of despotism. No taxes are paid by the people, the expences of government being defrayed from the royal mines of gold, silver, lead, and iron. The silk is not the produce of the worm, but of another animal; and is of inferior quality. It is more probably a vegetable production. The men and women, who are well made, are only girt round the loins, their heads being covered with blue bonnets, decorated with swine's teeth. Their bracelets, a favourite ornament, are of coral or amber. Taxes and poverty are little known. Each individual marries several wives, who have all their separate occupations in the house. The flesh of the dog is preferred to that of other quadrupeds, though they abound. Vines are common; but brandy and rum are drawn from the grape. From the green substance that covers their pools they contrive to draw salt, which they also extract from the leaves of the tree called Adam's fig, which are burnt and afterwards boiled. Gunpowder is here of the best quality; and it is to this people that the eastern nations impute the invention, remarking at the same time the singularity that this country has not known war for five hundred years. This secret is said to have passed to the Peguans, who communicated it to the Chinese, the first people who made use of it in war.

the east; but its comparative course has not exceeded five hundred RIVERS. miles when it flows into the Ganges at Allahabad. By receiving numerous and extensive streams from the south the Jumna contributes greatly to increase the breadth of Gangetic Hindostan; and the Chumbul, which joins the Jumna, is itself swelled with many tributary streams.

The Soan is said to spring from the same lake, or other source, with Soan. the Nerbudda, (which flows in an opposite direction to the gulf of Cambay,) and joins the Ganges not far below its union with the Gagra.* Several streams of smaller account fall into the Hoogley, or western branch of the Ganges.

The Indus, and its confluent streams, form the next object. This Indus. celebrated river is by the natives called Sindé, or Sindeh, and in the original Sanscrit Seendho. It is also called Nilab, or the Blue River. The source, like that of the Ganges, remains unknown; for the ideas expressed even by Major Rennell on the subject are vague and unsatisfactory. His Plain of Pamer is derived from a misinterpreted passage of Marco Polo; and the whole of this region is as yet only ingenious conjecture. The mountains of Mus Tag, from which Rennell derives the Indus, as well as the Plain of Pamer in its new acceptation, are borrowed from the Map of Strahlenberg, which is indeed excellent for the time, 1737, and laid the first foundation of an exact knowledge of central Asia. But the proper mountains of Mus Tag, which are also laid down by Strahlenberg, run from W. to E. being the chain to the south of Little Bucharía; and from the map of Islenieff, 1777, it appears that the chain of mountains which gives source to the Amu or Gihon on

* See in the Asiatic Register, vol. ii. for 1800, a curious account of the sources of the Soan and Nerbudda. These rivers rise in the table land of Omercutuc, at a noted place of pilgrimage. The Nerbudda springs from a small well; and after a short course falls abruptly from a most stupendous height; and being joined by many streams, soon becomes a considerable river. The Soan rises from the east side of Omercutuc, and proceeds N. to Burdy, whence it proceeds E. to the Ganges. The Hindoo temple here is magnificent; and is in the territory, or under the protection of the Goands. Rochette's map gives a more just idea of the sources of these rivers than Rennell's, in which they are confounded. The journey above quoted, by Mr. Blunt, an engineer, from Chunargur by Ruttunpour to Rajamundry in the Sircar of Ellore (which must not be confounded with the celebrated Ellora), is very interesting, as it discloses some parts of Hindostan little visited. It is to be regretted that the ingenious author has not accompanied it with a map.

RIVERS.

one side, and on the other to the rivers of Little Bucharía, is that of the Belur Tag, or Cloudy Mountains; from the eastern side of which chain the Indus seems to arise. Its comparative course may be about a thousand British miles, when it forms a delta in the province of Sindi, entering by many mouths into the Indian sea.

Penjab.

The tributary rivers of the Sindé chiefly join it in the northern half of its course, where they form the Panjab, or country of Five Rivers. From the west run into the Indus the Kameh, with its tributary streams and the Comul: from the east the Behut or Hydaspes: the Chunab or Acesinas; the Rauvec or Hydraotes; and the Setlege or Hefudrus with a tributary stream on the west, the Hyphasis: the Panjab country being on the east of the Sindé. The whole of this part of Hindostan is little known to the moderns; and it is uncertain whether the Caggar, a considerable and distant river to the East, join the Sindé, or fall into the gulf of Cutch.*

Having thus briefly described the most important rivers in the two first grand divisions of Hindostan, those of the central part must next be considered, being chiefly the Pudda, Nerbudda, and Taptee, on the west; and on the east the Subanreeka, or Subunreka, which joins the sea about thirty miles to the west of that mouth of the Ganges called the Hoogley, or more properly, from a city on its shore, the Ugli. The Subunreka being here considered as the N. E. boundary of Central Hindostan, is followed by the Bramnee, the Mahanada; and after passing the little streams of the Sircars by the Godaveri, the last and most important stream of Central Hindostan.

Godaveri.

The Godaveri rises at Trimbuck Nassor, in the western Gauts, more properly called the Sukhien mountains, from several sources, about seventy miles to the N. E. of Bombay." This great river was little known in Europe till recent times; and is also called the Ganga, a Hindoo term for a river in general, though applied by pre-eminence to the Ganges." About ninety miles above its egress into the sea, the

* Major Rennell's excellent map may here be compared with that of de la Rechette, published by Faclen 17 8, which is well executed and compiled with great care.

" Af. Ref. v. 1. 5.

" Rennell, 244.

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Godaveri receives a large river, the Bain Gonga, which pervades immense teak forests in a singular wild country, inhabited by savages in the centre of Hindostan, and as yet little known or explored.* The Bain Gonga was first discovered to Europeans by the late Colonel Camac, its course being about four hundred miles, while that of the Godaveri may be seven hundred. This last great river, like another Nile or Ganges, fertilizes the country; and from the benefits which it confers is esteemed sacred. Besides the Bain or Baun Gonga, it receives many tributary streams, as the Burda and others from the north; and from the south a circuitous large river, the Manzora, which passes by Beder.

RIVERS.
Bain Gonga.

The next in consequence, in the central division of Hindostan, is the Nerbudda, which may be called a solitary stream, as it receives so few contributions. Its course is almost due west, and about equal to that of the Godaveri. The Taptee, which passes by Surat, is also a considerable river, about four hundred miles in length. To the south of this river the superior elevation of the Sukhien mountains, or western Gauts, diffuses all the rivers towards the east.

Nerbudda.

In the arrangement here followed the Deccan, or most southern part of Hindostan, is considered as bounded and enriched by the Kistna and its tributary streams. The Kistna, a sacred river, rises at Balisur in the chain of Sukhien, not far to the south of Poona, and forms a delta near Masulipatam, after a comparative course of about five hundred British miles. This river rivals any Indian stream in the fertility diffused by its inundations; and the richest diamond mines in the world are in the neighbouring hills to the north. The chief tributary streams in that quarter are the Beema, passing near the Diamond mines of Visapour; and the Muzi or Mouffi by those of Golconda. But the most considerable river joins the Kistna from the south, being the Toombuddra of Rennell's last map, the Tunge-badra of D'Anville; on the banks of which have been recently disclosed many populous provinces and flourishing towns.

Kistna.

To the south of the Kistna appear the Pennar, the Paliar, and above all the Caveri, another large and sacred stream, which passes by Serin-

* D'Anville's map, 1751, supposes that the Gonga and Godaveri fall into the Bay of Bengal close to the western branch of the Ganges! The ideas of Ptolemy are more just.

RIVERS. gapatam the capital of Mysore, and forms a wider delta than any other southern river, when it enters the sea after a course of about three hundred miles. The Caveri in general pervades a country in which public monuments, unequivocal marks of civilization and opulence, are more common than in the northern parts of Hindostan." As the course of the Caveri is comparatively short, its tributary streams are unimportant.

Lakes. Such are the principal rivers in this extensive portion of Asia. The lakes seem to be few. Rennell mentions that of Colair, during the inundations about forty or fifty miles in extent, and a considerable piece of water in all seasons, lying about midway between the Godavari and Kistna, in the new soil gradually formed by the inundations of these rivers, about twelve British miles to the north of Masulipatam. That of Chilka bounds the British Sircars on the north, resembling the German Haffs described in the first volume of this work, being a kind of salt creek communicating with the sea. The lake of Pullicat is of a similar kind. One or two lakes may also be traced in the vicinity of the Ganges and the Indus. The country of Cashmir is supposed to have been originally a large lake, as reported in the native traditions and a considerable expanse of water still remains in the northern part of this delightful country, called the lake of Ouller or Tal, being about fifty-three British miles in circuit.

Mountains. The mountains chiefly celebrated by the Hindoos may be said to be only visible from their country, being the northern chain of the Tibetan Alps, covered with perpetual snow. Hence they are called Himmala, from a word denoting snow; and are celebrated in the conflicts of the gods, and other mythologic fables. This name of Himmala may perhaps be the source of the Imaus of the ancients. Ptolemy not only describes an Imaus as running north and south, or the Belur Tag of the Russians and Tatars, with its ridges to the west, now called Argun, Ak Tau, &c., but another Imaus passing E. and W. to the N. of Hindostan. Justly extending the Caucasian chain to the south of the Caspian, he has given it several local appellations, as Coronus, Sariphus,

Ancient Names.

" Rennell, 275.

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&c. His Paropamisus, on the north and west of the province so called ^{MOUNTAINS.} is to the south of Balk or Bactriana, terminating in the west in the sandy desert called that of Margiana. The highest summits of his Imaus he mentions as those that give source to the Indus, and which ought indeed to form one chain with his Imaus from the north which he has here transferred from longitude 127° to 142° , an error of fifteen degrees, even supposing his general longitude just. His Emodus and Otorocoras, ridges to the south of his Scythia beyond the Imaus, are the Mus Tag of Russian geography to the south of little Bucharia, and must not be confounded with the Kantel, the northern boundary of Cashmir and Tibet. But the last mountainous region, being still less explored in ancient than in modern times, has totally escaped the knowledge and geography of Ptolemy; who having thus lost a space of about ten degrees in breadth, or 700 miles, it becomes doubtful whether his Imaus proceeded on the north of Tibet or of Hindostan. On the east side of the Ganges he delineates the ridges which pass from north to south, in the Birman empire, the boundary of ancient discovery: but as in Europe he was a stranger to the central parts of Germany, and in Hindostan to those of the Deccan, so by his obliteration of Tibet, great confusion arises in his geography of northern Hindostan; nor has D'Anville, who places the Brahmaui in Tibet, been sufficiently aware of the difficulty. This discussion of a curious and neglected part of Hindoo geography must be dismissed with the remark, that the Emodus of Ptolemy, being by him ascribed to Serica, must be considered as the southern ridge of Little Bucharia; while his Imaus, which he supposes a continuation of the chain abovementioned, must be removed no less than seven hundred miles to the south, where it forms the southern ridge of the Tibetan Alps. On this plan his map of eastern Asia might be cut asunder at his 35° of N. latitude, as far W. as the sources of the Indus; the upper part being Little Bucharia, whose southern frontier may extend to 35° , while the under part must be transferred to the south, where our 26° correspond with Ptolemy's 35° .

As the northern Imaus of Ptolemy is clearly the Belur Tag, so his southern Imaus may be safely regarded as the Himmala of the Hindoos;

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doos; which may be admitted to have been known to the ancients, who were no strangers to the rich Gangetic regions of Hindostan. Nor was it absurd to consider the Himmala as a S. E. prolongation of the northern Imaus. The ridge to the east of Bengal is the Bepyrus or Sepyrus of Ptolemy: his Meandrus being the ridge which divides Aracan from Ava: his Damafus that near the river of Martaban; and his Semanthinus, seemingly connected with Thinæ, is the chain to the east of Tanaferim, this last ridge being the utmost limit of ancient knowledge in the S. E., as Little Bucharua was in the N. E.

Modern
Names.

To return to a more special consideration of the present topic, it must be observed that there is no small confusion, even in the most recent delineations, of the Indian ranges of mountains, or rather hills, and their exact denominations. The eastern ridge, called by Ptolemy Sepyrus might in modern times be called Tipera. Those on the south of Afam might be styled the Garro mountains, being inhabited by a people so called. The ridges to the south of Nipal and Bootan are far inferior in height to the Himmala, or snowy ridge; nor can we much depend on the Tibetan names given by Du Halde. This ridge is the *Bindachul* of the natives, or chain of Vinda, which must not be confounded with the Vindius of Ptolemy. An equal defect attends the mountains from Sirinagur to Cashmir, though there be no objection to Rennell's name of Himmala. The ridge of Kuttore is properly on the north of that province, running east and west: and is followed by the Hindoo Koh of oriental geographers.

The mountains to the west of the Indus, or on the Persian frontier seem to be the Becius and Parvetius of Ptolemy; but the modern names are little known; nor that of the ridge running parallel with the Indus on the east, called by Ptolemy Apocopus. The same author mentions mount Vindius, whence he derives the source of the Swan; now, it is believed, called Vindian, and often mentioned in the Hindoo tales, though they seem to describe these hills as far to the west. Ptolemy's mountain of Sardonyx it not far to the east of Baroach, if that place be the Barigaza of antiquity. His Bettigus, near the royal seat of Arcat, seems a part of the eastern Gauts, as were his Adifathrus, Orudius, and Uxentus, which close the list of mountains known to Ptolemy in this extensive region.

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Submand
277, quo
the Vind
Bengal.

In Major Rennell's excellent map of Hindostan the ridges are rather inserted in the minute and antiquated manner of D'Anville, than treated with a bold and scientific discrimination. The following list contains most of the names there to be found:

The Chaliscuteli hills, between the western desert and the Setlege.

The Alideck mountains, above Gujurat.

The mountains of Gomaun, or Kemaon, called also those of Sewalic. This extensive ridge seems to form the exterior barrier of the Tibetan Alps in Sirinagur, &c.

The mountains of Himmaleh, N. of Tassifudon. The other Tibetan mountains seem to be from Du Halde.

In Bengal are several ridges of hills without names, which is the case even with the chain on the N. W. of the Sircars.

The Lucknow, hills at the source of the Mahanada.

Those of Gondwanah, running parallel with the Nerbudda for a space, and then turning south to Narnalla.

The ridges near the Chumbul are also without name.

The Grenier mountains in Guzerat.

The Shatpoorta hills, between the Nerbudda and the Taptee.

On the other side of the Nerbudda there are also remarkable parallel ridges, giving source to many rivers, but nameless.

Even the Gauts are laid down with little care; and the important diamond mountains of Golconda and Vissipour are not mentioned.

A ridge called the Bundeh mountains runs parallel to the Godavari on the south, but at a considerable distance from that river.*

Hence it will be perceived that the Hindoo-ology is singularly imperfect: but what is to be expected from a people who confound terms so far as to call a mountain a Gaut or a Pafs? The Gauts, peculiarly so called, are ranges which run along the western and eastern coasts of the Deccan. The former is by the natives called the mountains of Sukhien, a name which should supplant the absurd appellation of the

* The small maps in the Memoir present the snowy mountains of Busteh in Cabul, those of Submandrog, and Wulli in Candahar, the Panchals in the south of Cashmir. The *As. Res.* i. 277, quote Rennell for the chain of Caramsha, fourteen miles north from Guya; and page 283, the Vindya chain is said to begin at Chunar in Bahar. These references are from his Atlas of Bengal.

Gauts.

MOUN-
TAINS.

Gauts." In the language of the country *Mali* or *Muli* implies a mountain, and *Purbet* a hill. Whether the eastern Gauts be also called Sukhien we are not informed; but it is probable that another native name may be discovered for this distinct range of mountains. From an interesting journey to Sirinagur, published in the sixth volume of the Asiatic Researches, it appears that the same name of Ghat or Ghaut is extended to the high ranges of mountains in the north: and D'Anville, wholly at a loss for distinct appellations of the numerous ranges in Hindostan, has in his general map of Asia introduced the mountains of Balagat near Vissapour, and has repeated them in his large map of Hindostan; though this name, Balagat, imply nothing but the high Gauts or superior passes.

The Gauts peculiarly so called rise abruptly on each side, but particularly the west, forming as it were enormous walls, supporting a high terrace or table land in the middle. This elevated track, passing through a great part of the Maratta territories to the north of Mysore, is termed in general the Balla-Gaut, through its whole extent, while low passes are called Payen-Gaut." Opposite to Paniany, on the western coast, there is a break or interruption of the mountains, about sixteen miles in breadth, chiefly occupied by a forest; exclusive of this gap the mountains of Sukhien extend from Cape Comorin to Surat, at the distance of from forty to seventy miles from the shore." Their effect on the seasons has been already mentioned; and it ceases at Surat, where the S. W. wind carries uninterrupted moisture over Hindostan. The high terrace in the middle of the Deccan receives little rain; and the coast of Coromandel, which receives its rain from the N. E. monsoon, is also of a dry soil as already described.*

Desert.

The sandy desert on the east of the Indus must not be omitted, extending in length between four and five hundred British miles, and in

* Af. Res. v. 1. 5.

** Rennell, cxxvii.

* Rennell, 276, and his Map of the Deccan 1800, in which the southern mountains are well expressed. Among the animals are numerous elephants; and if we believe Wefdin, 214, wild oxen ten feet high, with fine ash grey hair. The Arni of the north are black cattle, said to be fourteen feet high! Ib. note.

* The composition of the mountains has been little explained. Col. Hardwick presented to me the geologic specimens of his journey to Sirinagur. They are chiefly argillaceous schistus, with quartz and granite rolled by the Aliknundra.

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breadth from sixty to a hundred and fifty. Of this great desert the accounts are imperfect; but it is styled that of Agimere, and seems to have been known to Herodotus. Such wide expanses of barren sand form features peculiar to Asia and Africa. DESERT.

Of this extensive portion of Asia a great part remaining in primitive wildness, there are large forests in various quarters, particularly near the mouth of the Ganges, and in the wide unexplored regions on the west of the Sircars. These forests surpass in exuberance of vegetation any idea which Europeans can imagine; creeping plants of prodigious size and length, extended from tree to tree, forming an impenetrable gloom, and a barrier, as it were, sacred to the first mysteries of nature. Forests.

The general observations which were made on India beyond the Ganges, apply with still greater propriety to the botany of Hindostan. Botany. A more fertile soil, and a climate better adapted to the most profuse luxuriance of vegetation than the well watered tracts in this vast peninsula, cannot possibly be found in any part of the known world. The liberality with which nature has scattered over this favoured country the choicest of those plants that contribute to the sustenance, the convenience, and elegance of human life, is boundless, and almost without competition: double harvests, two crops of fruit from many of the trees, and from most of the rest a copious and regular supply during the greater part of the year, are the great bases that support its swarming population, while its timber of every quality, its plants of medicinal virtue, its numerous and exquisite dying drugs, and its cottons and other vegetable articles of cloathing, offer to its inhabitants the materials of enjoyment and civilization.*

The most distinguishing feature in tropical landscapes is the multitude of lofty trees of the palm kind; all these rise with a simple trunk to a considerable height, terminated by a tuft of large leaves, and wholly destitute of branches except while they are in fruit: of these many species are natives of India. The cocoa-nut tree, perhaps the most widely diffused of any, is found in abundance on the coasts of Malabar and Coromandel: its fruit supplies an agreeable nutriment, and the fibrous covering of the nut is manufactured into the most elastic

* Hortus Malabaricus. Roxburgh's Plants of the Coast of Coromandel.

cables

BOTANY. cables that are known. The areca palm is another of this family, of rare occurrence in a truly wild state, but cultivated over all India for its nuts, which, mixed with the leaves of the betel pepper and a little quicklime, are in general request for chewing as tobacco is used in Europe. The smaller fan-palm is distinguished for its broad fan-shaped leaves, which are used for writing on and for thatching: its wood is in high esteem for rafters; and of its juice the best palm toddy, the common distilled spirit of the country, is made. This, although a large tree, is far inferior to the great fan-palm which abounds on the lower mountains of the Carnatic; each leaf of this vast tree is capable of covering ten or a dozen men, and two or three of them are sufficient to roof a cottage. The most beautiful of all, the sago palm, is also found here, though not so plentifully as in some of the Indian islands. Besides these may be mentioned the elate sylvestris, whose sweet farinaceous fruit is the favourite repast of the elephant; the caryota urens, a handsome lofty tree; and the plantain, distinguished by its tuft of broad simple light green leaves, and its wholesome farinaceous fruit.

Of the other fruit-bearing trees the number is so great, and they are for the most part so little known, even by name, to Europeans, that only a few of the principal need be here mentioned: these are two species of the genus known to botanists by the name eugenia, and remarkable for the sweetness and rose flavour of their fruit; and the spondias dulcis, whose sweetness, pleasantly tempered with acid, renders it peculiarly agreeable in this hot climate. The pillaw is a tree of equal singularity and use: from its trunk and larger branches are produced large fibrous bags, sometimes of the weight of twenty-five pounds, which are filled with nuts like the chestnut, and resembling the almond in flavour. The dillenia indica is remarkable for its beauty, and valuable for its large pomaceous fruit of a pure acid, and equal to the white lily in fragrance. The averrhoa carambola produces three crops of fruit in the year, and another of the same genus, the a. bilimbi, is in a manner covered with large juicy berries of the size of a hen's egg, and resembling the grape. The mango however is reckoned the most exquisite of the Indian fruits, and is found in considerable abundance, both wild and cultivated, through the whole peninsula: nor ought the carissa

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caranda to be omitted, or the elephant apple, almost equally a favourite BOTANY. with the animal whose name it bears, and with the native Hindoos.

Of the trees whose produce is used in medicine or the arts, the most worthy of notice are the cassia fistula; the tamarind; the gambogia, from whose bark exudes the gum of the same name; the strychnos nuxvomica; the laurus cassia, whose bark is a common substitute for cinnamon; cæsalpina sappan, a red wood used in dying; strychnos potatorum, the fruit of which, called the *clearing nut*, is in general use for clearing muddy water; semecarpus anacardium, or *marking nut*, used for giving a durable black stain to cotton; and gossypium arboreum, the tree cotton. The chief timber trees are the teak, used specially for ship-building; a large tree called by botanists gyrocarpus, whose strong light wood is in great request for rafts, or catamarans; the ebony; the ferreola, the hardest of all the Indian woods; the nauclea cordifolia, of a close compact grain like boxwood; and the dalbergia, a dark grey wood with light coloured veins, very heavy, and capable of a most exquisite polish; it is much used for furniture.

A few other trees require notice from their size or beauty, such as the banyan tree and Indian fig; the hibiscus ficulneus is remarkable by its magnitude, and the profusion of its elegant blossoms, and is of peculiar value in a tropical climate, as hardly any insects are found under its shade. The bombax ceiba rises with a thorny trunk eighteen feet in circumference to the height of fifty feet without a branch; it then throws out numerous boughs, which are adorned in the rainy season with purple blossoms as large as the open hand, and these are succeeded by capsules filled with cotton. The shrubs and herbaceous plants are innumerable, and multitudes would be well worth recording for their beauty or use, if the nature of this work allowed an opportunity; we cannot omit however the indigo and Indian madder whence the beautiful colours of the Indian chintzes are procured; nor the datura metal, a shrub adorned all the year with large trumpet-shaped blossoms of the purest white. The nyctanthes hirsuta, and the jasminum grandiflorum, boast the most fragrant blossoms of the whole east, the former perfuming the night, and the latter scenting the day. The gloriosa superba, cecropegia candelabrum, and Indian vine, form by their union bowers worthy

BOTANY.

of Paradise; and the *butea superba*, a small tree, by the striking contrast of its green leaves, its black flowerstalks, and its large scarlet papilionaceous blossoms, attracts with its ostentatious charms the notice and admiration of the most incurious.

ZOOLOGY.

For an ample account of the zoology of Hindostan the curious reader may consult Mr. Pennant's View of this country, this being the peculiar province of that great naturalist. The numerous cavalry, which form the armies of the Hindoo princes, imply great numbers of horses; and the breeds most celebrated are those of Lahore and Turkistan, but the grandees are supplied from Persia and Arabia. The inferior breeds, though ugly, are active; and in some regions there are ponies not exceeding thirty inches in height.* The horses of Tibet, generally pyed, are often used in Gangetic Hindostan. The animal called the wild mule, and the wild ass, sometimes pass in herds to the northern mountains, from the centre of Asia, and the desert of Cobi.

The cattle of Hindostan are numerous, and often of a large size, with a hunch on the shoulders. The sheep are covered with hair instead of wool, except in the most northern parts.

Antelopes abound of various beautiful kinds, particularly that called the Nilgau, which is of a considerable size. Bernier, the most intelligent of travellers in India, gives an account of the chase of the antelopes by means of the hunting leopard, trained as in Persia to this sport.*

The Arabian camel, or that with a single hunch, is not unfrequent about Patna. The elephant has been frequently described; the usual height of this intelligent animal is about ten feet, and one of fifteen is esteemed a gigantic prodigy. Apes and monkies abound in various regions of Hindostan; and the orang outang is said to be found in the vast forests on the W. of the Sircars. The dogs are generally of the cur kind, with sharp erect ears, and pointed noses: the smallest size is that kept by the Pariars, or degraded poor, rendered doubly miserable by the fanatic prejudices of the abominable system of the Bramins. The other animals are wild boars, bears, wolves, foxes, jackalls, hyenas,

* Pennant, vol. ii. 239.

* Those of Tippoo are in the Tower of London; their legs are much higher than those of any other feline animal.

leopards,

leopards, panthers, lynxes; in the north musk weasels, and many other Zoology.
quadrapeds of inferior size.

The lion seems to have been always unknown in Hindostan, where the ancient sculptors have attempted in vain to represent an animal which they never saw; but Mr. Pennant assures us that they are found near the celebrated fort of Gwalior, about Marwah, and near Cashmir. The royal tiger of Bengal is however a far more terrible animal than the stoutest lion; and was known in classical times, as Seneca the poet calls it *Gangetica tigris*, or the Gangetic tiger. Such is their size and strength that they are said to carry off bullocks the height of some being said to be five or six feet, and the feline length in proportion. Parties of pleasure, on the isles at the mouth of the Ganges, have often been shockingly interrupted by the sudden appearance of the tiger, prepared for his fatal spring, which is said to extend a hundred feet, not improbable when compared with that of the cat. Such is the nature of the animal, that if disappointed in this first and sole leap, he couches his tail and retreats. The rhinoceros with one horn, an animal of the swamps, also abounds in the Gangetic isles.

To enumerate the various birds, fishes, and insects of Hindostan, would be a vain and idle attempt in a work of this nature. While the turkey is certainly a native of America, wild peacocks abound in Tibet and Ceylon; our common fowl are also found wild in the jungles, whence they are called jungle fowl. Hence, it seems reasonable to conclude that as these animals have been diffused over the civilized world from time immemorial, they must have passed from Hindostan to Persia, whence they were conveyed to the western countries.

The mineralogy of Hindostan may be opened by its most distinguished and peculiar product, celebrated in all ages of the world, that of diamonds, which are indeed also found in Brazil, but of far inferior Mineralogy.
Diamond.
quality. It is now well known that Sir Isaac Newton predicted, in his Optics, from its rich and peculiar effusion of light, that the diamond would be found to be an inflammable substance. This prediction has been recently fulfilled by numerous experiments; and it is now universally admitted by chymists that the diamond is only a very pure species of coal. This substance is however the most hard, transparent, and

MINERALOGY.

and brilliant of all minerals; and is commonly colourless, but is found occasionally of a citron yellow, grey, brown, or black, but very rarely green or blue. The more common form is round, or flatted as it were by attrition; but its chrysalization is the octahedron, or double quadrangular pyramid, and the dodecahedron, with their varieties; and sometimes it occurs in cubes. When examined with a microscope of great power, the texture sometimes consists of irregular fibres, but is generally laminated, or composed of minute layers, like the other genuine gems. It is found in beds of torrents, or in yellow ferruginous earth, under rocks of quartz or sand stone. That of the Brazils is found in a kind of pudding stone impregnated with iron ochre.

The chief and most celebrated diamond mines are those near Visiapour and Golconda, both near streams that flow into the Kistna in the southern division of Hindostan; Golconda being in the territory of the Nizam, while Visiapour belongs to the Marattas.*

Raolconda, a famous diamond mine in the territory of Visiapour, about forty British miles N. W. from the junction of the Beema and Kistna, seems to be the most noted of those in that quarter." A district on the river Mahanada, to the S. of Sumboulpour, is also noted for this rich product; as is Gandicotta, on the southern bank of the river Pennar."

The mine near the Mahanada is not the sole example of the diamond being found to the north of the Leccan; for this mineral unexpectedly occurs so far north as Penna, in the territory of Bundelcund, about sixty B. miles to the south of the river Jumna, which flows into the Ganges." Bundelcund is a mountainous track, about a hundred miles square, subject to its Raja.

Next in value to the diamond are the sapphire and the ruby, which are chiefly found in the Birman territories; but the ruby also occurs in Ceylon, which likewise produces an inferior kind of sapphire, the

* Colore, another diamond mine, is on the southern bank of the Kistna, not far from Condavir. Rennell, 290.

" Rennell, 253.

" Ib. 240, where it is not unreasonably inferred that Ptolemy's Adar is this river.

" Ib. 233.

topaz,

topaz, many curious tourmalins, and other precious stones, minutely described by Thunberg, among which one of the most peculiar is the cat's eye, which, like the Italian girasol, has a peculiar reflection, partaking of the nature of felspar.²²

Among the metals gold is found in the rivers which flow from Tibet into the Ganges and Indus; but no gold mines seem ever to have been known in Hindostan, which has rather been celebrated for attracting this metal in commerce from other countries. On the other hand Tibet, a mountainous country, abounds in this precious metal. Silver seems rare in general throughout the oriental regions; and there is no indication of this mineral through all India. Thunberg mentions iron ore and a plumbago among the minerals of Ceylon; but says nothing of copper, which seems also little known in Hindostan. It is indeed to be regretted that more curiosity has not been excited by the mineralogy of our possessions in Bengal, and the other regions of this interesting country; but the attention of the English to this grand branch of science is very recent, and even the avarice of adventurers cannot be tempted to explore what is not known to exist.

The natives sometimes seek for the cure of diseases by bathing in the sacred streams, and their devotion to water in general seems to prevent their exploring any medicinal sources. Yet there are few exceptions, and several warm springs are reputed sacred.

Among the singular features of nature may be mentioned the appearance of the provinces on the rivers, during the season of inundation, when an access is opened by numerous channels to places before inland. The grand aspect of the northern mountains covered with snow, and the wide desert on the east of the Indus, are also grand features; as is the high table land of Mysore, supported by natural buttresses of mountains. The Sunderbunds, and prodigious forests, have been already mentioned. The detached ridges of rock, sometimes crowned with strong fortresses, may also be named among the natural curiosities. But one of the most noted in the Hindoo tradition is the Gangoutra or fall of the Ganges, sometimes called the Cow's Mouth. According to the report of a Bramin, who pretended to have visited the spot, the Ganges

²² Thunberg, iv. 220. See the account of Ceylon, ch. 5. of this article.

springs

MINERALOGY.

Mineral Waters.

Natural Curiosities.

NATURAL
CURIOSI-
TIES.

springs from the Peak of Cailasa, seven days journey to the south of Ladac or Latac, the capital of a small Tibetan principality." This peak is about two miles to the south of Manfaror; and the river thence flows, for about seven or eight miles, when it finds a subterranean passage, "until it again emerges in the country of Kedar Nauth, at the place called Gungowtry." This place is marked in Mr. Arrowsmith's Map as situated on that source of the Ganges called the Aliknundra; and it seems proved, by Mr. Hardwick's journey to Sirinagur, that the veneration of the natives, and the Braminical stations on its shores, confirm the Bramin's report, and proclaim the Aliknundra to be the real and genuine Ganges, being perhaps the furthest source erroneously laid down in the map of Tibet by the lamas, (if these supposed sources do not rather flow into the Indus;) as almost every name and position laid down by them will probably be found extremely inaccurate. It seems probable that the source of the Ganges is in a calcareous country, whence the river easily works itself a subterraneous passage, as several streams in the north of England, and other calcareous countries. Adam's bridge is also a noted fable of the Bramins, for in their strong imaginations and weak judgments every thing assumes a fabulous tinge. It is a kind of sand bank, with some isles stretching from a promontory to the opposite isle of Ceylon: but the name of Rama has been exchanged by the Mahometans for that of Adam.

" Af. Ref. v. 45. vi. 102.

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CHAPTER II.

GANGETIC HINDOSTAN, OR THE COUNTRIES ON THE GANGES.

Extent and Divisions.—British Possessions.—Revenue.—Government.—Army.—Navy.—Cities and Towns.—Surrounding States.—BOOTAN.—NIPAL.—SIRINAGUR.

THIS grand division of Hindostan extends from the eastern boundaries of Bengal to the country of Sirhind, a length of about a thousand B. miles. The greatest breadth, from the sources of the Chumbul to the mountains of Sewalik, may be about four hundred and fifty B. miles; and the least, on the west of the province of Bengal, about two hundred and thirty. It comprises the provinces of Bengal, Bahar, Allahabad, Oude, Agra; with part of Delhi and Agimere, and of Malwa in the south; most of them equal in celebrity to any in Hindostan, and the chosen seats of the power of the Monguls, as well as of mighty kingdoms even in classical times.

Bengal, Bahar, with Benares, and some other districts to the west, forming the chief basis and centre of English power in this country, it is proper first to consider them apart, and then proceed to some account of the other provinces. The British settlements here extend about five hundred and fifty miles in length by three hundred in breadth, in themselves a powerful kingdom. The native population is computed at ten or eleven millions of black subjects; exclusive of the English, whose number seems not authenticated. Yet Sir William Jones, from the actual enumeration of one province, concluded that not less than thirty millions of Hindoos were contained in all the British possessions in Hindostan. But Major Rennell estimates the entire population in the time of Aurunzeb at sixty millions; and it seems unreasonable to think that repeated wars have increased the population, or that one half is subject to the British sceptre.

EXTENT
AND
DIVISIONS.

British Possessions.

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Revenue. The revenue of these British provinces is computed at 4,210,000l. sterling the expence of collection, military and civil charges, &c. 2,510,000l; so that the clear revenue is 1,670,000l.* They are well situated in respect to security from foreign invasion: were obtained in 1765, under circumstances rather favourable, as the charge of usurpation might have been retorted against any adversary: and since they were in our possession, they have enjoyed more tranquillity than any part of Hindostan has known since the reign of Aurunzeb.

Government. The government of Bengal, and its wide dependencies, was first vested in a Governor General and a Supreme Council, consisting of a president and eleven counsellors; but in 1773 these were restricted to four with Warren Hastings the Governor General, who were to direct all affairs, civil and military, in the kingdoms of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa; and to controul the inferior governments of Madras on the E., and Bombay on the W., with Bencoolen in the island of Sumatra.† The Court of Judicature consists of a chief justice and three other judges, with civil, criminal, naval, and ecclesiastical jurisdiction. The Hindoos are governed by their own laws; but it is to be wished that in these and the other British possessions the abominable influence of the Bramins were extinguished, and these fanatics themselves degraded to the cast of Pariars; or rather that the casts were totally abolished, as the most shocking obstacle to all the best feelings and exertions of human nature that ever was imposed by crafty superstition upon consummate ignorance and simplicity. Christian charity, and the mutual benefits of society, with what our immortal poet styles the milk of human kindness, might then supplant a dreary superstition which estranges man from man, and is accompanied, even in its priests, by practices the most degrading to human nature.*

Army. The military establishment in Bengal is always respectable, but varies according to the situation of affairs. The British troops are supported

* Rennell, civ.

† Pennant, ii. 327.

• See in the Asiatic Researches, iv. 336. the matricides and infanticides of the pious, simple, and philosophic Bramins; and, v. 372. their institutions of human sacrifices! Yet their cruel mercy, p. 381. ordered that a woman should never be sacrificed—except on the funeral pile of her husband! Such are the objects of antiquarian veneration: and such are the favourite sages of Voltaire!

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by the Sepoys, a native militia, who are accustomed to have numerous ARMY. idle followers, so that the effective men seldom constitute more than a quarter of the nominal army. A force of twenty thousand British soldiers might probably encounter and vanquish two hundred thousand blacks or Hindoos. The decisive battle of Plassey, which secured to us the possession of these opulent provinces, was gained by the formidable array of nine hundred Europeans.¹ It would seemingly be no difficult acquisition, and might prove most salutary for the tranquillity and happiness of the Hindoos, if their whole extensive country were subjected to the British power. For these subjects of the wise Bramins are of all nations the most miserable; and political freedom is to them as unknown as real practical wisdom is to their teachers. In human affairs the smaller evil is commonly the sole object of preference.

A navy of considerable force might be equipped, and the ships con- NAVY. structed of teak wood, as it is supposed to surpass any others in duration.

The chief city of Bengal, and of all the British possessions in Hindostan, is Calcutta, which is said to contain not less than half a million of souls. The latitude is 22° 33' north; and the longitude 88° 28' east from Greenwich. Cities and Towns. Calcutta.

“Generally speaking, the description of one Indian city is a description of all; they being all built on one plan, with exceeding narrow, confined, and crooked streets; with an incredible number of reservoirs and ponds, and a great many gardens, interspersed. A few of the streets are paved with brick. The houses are variously built: some of brick, others with mud, and a still greater proportion with bamboos and mats: and these different kinds of fabrics standing intermixed with each other, form a motley appearance: those of the latter kind are invariably of one story, and covered with thatch. Those of brick seldom exceed two floors, and have flat, terraced roofs. The two former classes far outnumber the last, which are often so thinly scattered, that fires, which often happen, do not sometimes meet with the obstruction of a brick-house through a whole street.

¹ Rennell, xcv.

CITIES AND
TOWNS.

“ Calcutta is, in part, an exception to this rule of building; for there the quarter inhabited by the English is composed entirely of brick-buildings, many of which have more the appearance of palaces than of private houses: but the remainder of the city, and by much the greatest part, is built as I have described the cities in general to be. Within these twenty or twenty-five years Calcutta has been wonderfully improved, both in appearance and in the salubrity of its air: for the streets have been properly drained, and the ponds filled up; thereby removing a vast surface of stagnant water, the exhalations from which were particularly hurtful. Calcutta is well known to be the emporium of Bengal, and the seat of the Governor-General of India. It is a very extensive and populous city, being supposed at present to contain at least 500,000 inhabitants. Its local situation is not fortunate; for it has some extensive muddy lakes, and a vast forest, close to it. It is remarkable that the English have been more inattentive than other European nations* to the natural advantages of situation in their foreign settlements. Calcutta is situated on the western arm of the Ganges, at about one hundred miles from the sea; and the river is navigable up to the town, for the largest ships that visit India. It is a modern city, having risen on the site of the village of Govindpour, about ninety years ago. It has a citadel, superior in every point, as it regards strength and correctness of design, to any fortress in India: but on too extensive a scale to answer the useful purpose intended, that of holding a post in case of extremity; since the number of troops required for a proper garrison for it could keep the field. It was begun immediately after the victory at Plassey, which insured to the British an unlimited influence in Bengal: and the intention of Lord Clive was to render it as permanent as possible, by securing a tenable post at all times. Clive, however, had no foresight of the vast expence attending it, which perhaps may have been equal to two millions sterling.”

In this grand capital of British Asia the mixture of people and manners presents a picturesque and interesting scene. The black Hindoo, the olive coloured Moor or Mahometan, contrast with the fair and

* Surely not more than the Dutch. It arises from imitation of the sites in their own countries, while in hot countries the situations should be high. * Rennell, 58, 59.

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florid countenances of the English; and the charms of the European damsel receive a foil from the dark Hindoo beauties. To the luxuries of the Asiatic, are added the elegance and science of the English, life. Even the newspapers are drawn up with care, and printed with elegance: and the Asiatic society, instituted by the late admirable Sir William Jones, may perhaps rival the Academy of Inscriptions at Paris, if the papers of the latter were adopted as a model: and that unaccountable taste, or rather infatuation for visionary antiquities, attempted to be discussed by crude knowledge, and inaccurate ratiocination, were finally dismissed from British culture, to which it seems peculiar and indigenious. No human pursuit can be more useless, for it has not even the utility of amusement; and when founded on the monstrous tales, and traditions, and innumerable forged manuscripts of the Bramins, who pervert every science and institution to the purposes of their own influence, it is no wonder that this singular pursuit should diffuse darkness instead of light; that every dissertator should confute his predecessor by his own pundit, and his own manuscripts, always as ancient as Brahma, if they be not of the present century: so that the more we read the less we know; and science becomes another term for confusion. With such exceptions, and they are not numerous, the Asiatic Researches form a noble monument of British science in a distant country. The recent institution of a college or university at Calcutta, by the Marquis of Wellesley, deserves the greatest applause, for the extent and liberality of the plan. Besides Hindoo, Mahometan, and English law, and the local regulations, there are to be professors of civil jurisprudence, political economy, geography, history, &c.; but in the modern extent of science, natural history is far too wide for one or two professors, and it is scarcely possible for a good botanist to be at the same time deeply skilled in zoology, or in mineralogy, far less in chemistry.*

The commerce of Calcutta is very great in salt, sugar, opium, silks, and muslins, &c.: the poppy which yields the opium is particularly cultivated in the province of Bahar. Musk, borax, and other commo-

* Asiatic Register, vol. ii. p. 106. The languages to be taught are Arabic, Persian, Sanscrit, Hindostanee, Bengal, Telinga, Maratta, Tamula, and Canara.

CITIES AND
TOWNS.

dities, used to be imported from Tibet, in exchange for European cloths and hardware; but this trade is probably interrupted since Tibet became subject to the jealous Chinese. On the Ganges are transported to Afam cargoes of salt, in exchange for gold, silver, ivory, musk, and a particular kind of silky cotton. The cowry shells, used as a small coin, are imported from the Maldives in exchange for rice. The fine muslins are chiefly fabricated in the rainy season, from May to September, and with calicoes form a great part of the exports to Europe.

Dacca.

In the eastern part of the British possessions the most considerable town is Dacca, beyond the principal stream of the Ganges, but defended on the east by the Megna or Burrampoot. Dacca is celebrated for manufactures of the most delicate muslins, so much in request in the European market, and which are made from the cotton of the district. It was once the capital of Bengal, and was succeeded by Mushedabad, a modern city. Hoogley, or Ugly, is a small but ancient city, about twenty-six miles above Calcutta, on the grand western branch of the Ganges, which thence receives its name.

Patna.

Patna is the capital of the province of Bahar, situated about 400 miles N. W. from Calcutta, being tolerably fortified, and a place of considerable trade, most of the saltpetre in particular, exported to England, being made in the province of Bahar. Rennell argues that Patna is the ancient city of Palibothra. Dr. Robertson infers that it was Allahabad, which is also the opinion of D'Anville. Sir William Jones supposes that Palibothra stood at the junction of the Soan or Sona with the Ganges; that is, he nearly coincides with Major Rennell.* Yet upon the whole the unprejudiced inspector of Ptolemy may perhaps prefer Allahabad.

Benares.

Benares approaches to the western frontier of the British possessions, the district having been ceded to the East India Company in the year 1775. It is a rich, populous, and compact city, on the northern bank of the Ganges, about 460 miles from Calcutta. Benares, anciently called Kasi, was the most early seat of Braminical knowledge, or quackery, in the north. It was not till the tenth or eleventh century of the

* *Ac. R. iv. 26.* Mr. Wilford, with his usual imagination, argues for the mouth of the Cośa on the opposite side of the Ganges!

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Christian æra that this baleful sect overturned the worship of Boodh in the Deccan. The Bramins seem to be first mentioned by Strabo, who distinguishes them from another race of Indian philosophers called Germani; who were probably the Gymnosophisti of other authors, and worshippers of Boodh.*

On leaving the British possessions, and proceeding towards the west, first occurs Allahabad, in the province so called, at the confluence of the Jumna and the Ganges, a city belonging to the Navab or Nabob of Oude, but of little consequence.† Not far to the S. W. of Allahabad are the diamond mines of Penna, in the small detached province of Bundelcund.

Lucknow is the present capital of Oude, having superseded Fyzabad, a city on the Gogra, near the ancient city of Aiudh, which seems to have given name to the province. At a considerable distance to the N. W. is Berilli, a small but noted town near the northern frontier.

About 50 B. miles W. from Lucknow stands Canoge, anciently the capital of a kingdom. Before proceeding to Agra and Delhi, modern capitals of Hindostan, it may be proper to observe that the kingdoms celebrated by the Braminical, or northern traditions and fables were chiefly in this part of Hindostan. The reader is sometimes bewildered by the use of native terms, or uncommon orthography, without any explanation; but the learned Jones informs us that king Nanda, and the noted Chandragupta, the classical Sandracottus, reigned at Patna; and a kind of chronology of their successors may be found in the Asiatic Researches,* with tables of the kings of Audh, or Oude, and Vitora, or Delhi, both in the solar and lunar line, as they are divided by the wildness of Hindoo imagination; with another of the kings of Magada, or Bahar, the last of which contains Nanda and Chandragupta. These lists are

* The Brachman nations of Pliny are the Barmahs, or Birmans, of modern times, who had probably invaded and seized a great part of Eastern Hindostan. Perhaps even the *Brahmanas* of Strabo are the *Racbars* or Priests of the Birmans.

Where was Pliny's powerful kingdom of Andara in Gangetic Hindostan, and Automela on the Indos? That writer's geography is commonly neglected, though one of the best of antiquity.

† It was ceded to the English in 1798, by a treaty between the Navab Sundut Ali Khan and Sir John Shore, now Lord Teignmouth.

‡ v. 318.

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CITIES AND TOWNS.

inaccurate and confused, the Bramins being more conversant in quadrillions, trillions, and billions of years, than in discussing the little dates of European scholars.* The list of Rajas of Hindostan, from the time of the deluge, published by Anquetil du Perron, begins with Bhart who resided at Hastnapour on the Jumna, now Delhi; but the royal seat was afterwards transferred to Canuche, and the princes often passed the mountains of Sewalik to encounter the *Cbinese*, probably some wrong interpretation for Tiber. Benares is also mentioned as a capital; and it is boldly asserted that the eighty-fourth Raja, Andarjal, conquered all Hindostan with Ceylon; a conquest also effected by the hundred and ninth Raja. This list, which is certainly far superior to any of the kind, closes with the conquest by the Mahometans, A. D. 1192. Perhaps our possessions in the south may disclose some chronologies of the kings in that quarter, particularly the Balharas. If any thing can be done in arranging the fictions of the Bramins, and eliciting some shadow of truth, it must be begun by establishing grand land marks of chronology, established by various intelligence derived from remote quarters; and the safest course will be to trace it backward from modern to ancient times, and thus laying a solid foundation, instead of beginning with the fabulous in the vain hope of finding truth.

Agra.

These capitals of ancient kingdoms in this quarter were followed by Agra and Delhi. The great and good emperor Acbar constituted Agra the capital of the Mogul empire about A. D. 1566. It was then a small fortified town; but it soon became an extensive and magnificent city, and has as rapidly declined.

Delhi.

To the N. W. of Agra, near the confines of Sindetic Hindostan, stands the celebrated city of Delhi, the Mahometan capital of India, said to be of considerable antiquity by the name of Indarput. That intelligent traveller Bernier computes the extent of Delhi, in 1663, at three leagues, exclusive of the fortifications; and he represents Agra as of wider circuit. This metropolis may be said to be now in ruins; but there are many noble and splendid remains of palaces with baths of marble. The grand mosque is a magnificent edifice, of marble and red

* The words used for those high numbers are authorized by Sir William Jones, ii. 115; but they are unknown to Johnson.

† Af. Ref. iv. 447.

free stone, with high minarets, and domes richly gilt. One of the quarters of the city has been very thinly inhabited, since the dreadful massacre by Nadir Shah, in which one hundred thousand people are said to have perished. The royal gardens of Shalimar are said to have cost one million sterling, in canals, pavillions, &c. decorated with great profusion. When our author visited this city, in 1793; he was introduced to the last remnant of the Moguls, Shah Allum, then seventy years of age and blind, being here kept in a kind of captivity by Sindia the Maratta chief.

CITIES AND TOWNS.

The city of Agimere, or Ajimer, may be more properly allotted, with the greater part of that province, to Sindhic Hindostan: but Oujein may be considered as the furthest city in the south of that portion now under view. Oujein is about six miles in circumference, surrounded by a strong wall, with round towers. The houses partly brick, partly wood, covered with lime, straws, or tiles: the Bazar, or market is spacious, and paved with stone: there are four mosks, and several Hindoo temples, with a new palace built by Sindia. On the south runs the river Sippara, which here suddenly turns north, pursuing its course into the Chumbul, the last a large river, not less than three quarters of a mile in breadth at some distance from its egress into the Jumma.* About a mile to the north are ruins of old Oujein, brick walls, stone pillars, pieces of wood, and various utensils, with ancient coins. The superjacent soil is a black mould; and this catastrophe must have happened when the river changed its course to the westward, by some aqueous concussion of nature, 1800, or 800 years ago, as usual in Hindoo chronology.

Oujein.

Turning to the east, the river Nerbudda may for a part be considered as the most southern limit of Gangetic Hindostan; yet concerning Gurrah, a city or town of some note, there are no details; and the other names are too unimportant for general geography. But the noted fort of Gwalior must not be omitted, being a striking object in Hindoo topography. The insulated rock on which it stands is about four miles in length, but narrow: the sides are almost perpendicular, from two to

Gwalior.

* Af. Ref. vi. 40.

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CITIES AND TOWNS. three hundred feet, above the surrounding plain.⁹ On the top there is a town with wells and reservoirs, and some cultivated land. This celebrated fortress, which is about 80 miles to the south of Agra, was taken by surprize by a few English under Major Popham in 1779. Such isolated forts on rocks were not uncommon in ancient India; and that of Aornos is distinguished in the history of Alexander. A theorist might argue that these are the summits of ancient mountains, immersed in the rich vegetable soil of Hindostan, which has been swept by primeval waters from the mountains of Tibet, now barren rocks, and even from the elevated desert of Cobi, which in consequence was left a barren mass of sand.

Surrounding States.

Before closing this brief delineation of Gangetic Hindostan, the most large, celebrated, and best known quarter of that extensive region, it may be proper to offer some remarks on the surrounding states on the E. and N. The Rohawn of Rennell is the same with Aracan, being merely a Hindoo term for that country. His Cossay is only another name for Meckley, or the country of the Muggaloos, a people between Afam on the north, and Aracan on the south, whose chief town is Munnipura.¹⁰ These eastern tribes of rude mountaineers are little known; but approach to the savage state. Afam has been already briefly described in the account of the river Burrampoot; but to the west open the wide and obscure regions of Tibet. It would seem, from Mr.

Bootan.

Hardwick's journey to Sirinagur, that the name of Bootan includes most of the south of Tibet, particularly those regions which are omitted in the doubtful map of the Lamas, who, in their account of these frontiers, use Chinese or Tataric terms, or perhaps rather invented appellations at least equally useless, as they are alike unknown to the Hindoos and the natives. The names indeed throughout du Halde's maps of Tatory and Tibet are far too numerous, a circumstance usual in the old invented maps, in the first ages of European geography, in which even farms and huts were sometimes inserted. It is to be regretted that Turner, in his journey, has not indicated the western limits of Bootan, nor the native reports concerning the adjacent countries. Of Nipal there

Nipal.

⁹ Hodges, 139.

¹⁰ *At. Ref.* v. 223 and 230.

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is a short account by a Jesuit," whence the maps might be somewhat improved; that of Du Halde closing with Nialma, and some names not to be found in the genuine accounts, so that the Lamas appear to have been stopped in their progress by the snowy ridge of Himmala. The recent account by Bernini bears that, in passing the frontier mountains, suddenly appears the extensive plain of Nipal, about 200 miles in circumference, resembling a vast amphitheatre covered with populous towns and villages. To the north of the plain is the capital Catmandu, containing about eighteen thousand houses, which might yield a population of seventy or eighty thousand. To the S. W. is Lelit Pattan, where the author computes twenty-four thousand houses; this part of the country bordering to the south on the small state of Macwanpur between Nipal, and Hindostan. The third principal city stands to the east of the last mentioned, and is called Batgan. Timi and Cipoli are also large towns; and all these names being unknown to the Lamas it is evident that their progress was here impeded; and in the south and west of Tibet in particular deserves no credit. In Nipal there are two religious sects, one a schism of that of Tibet, the other Hindoo. The temples, by this account, are peculiarly elegant, seeming to resemble those of Ava or Siam. At Banga, a castle three miles distant from the city of Lelit Pattan, is a temple of surprising magnificence, the great court being paved with bluish marble, interspersed with large flowers of bronze. To the north of Catmandu is a hill called Simbi, upon which are some tombs of the Lamas of Tibet, with inscriptions.* By the Jesuit's account the kingdom of Nipal is ancient,

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ING STATES.

* Af. Res. ii. 307. Giuseppe Bernini, who died in 1753. His works were printed at Verona in 1767.

* Dr. Buchanan has been so obliging as to communicate to me his MS. account of Nipal, drawn up during his residence in that country in 1802. It abounds with important information, particularly concerning the various Hindu sects, and the state of agriculture. Nipal is an immense plain, which separates the large mountainous tract called BENDACHUL, from the still more extensive alpine region called HEMACHUL or HEMALICHUL. Hence it appears that the chain, which immediately bounds Hindostan on the north, is called BINDA or VINDA; while the superior grand chain is that of HIMALA. In Nipal there is a productive copper mine; and the mountains which surround the province are chiefly of grey granite. Rock crystal, which is found in the snowy mountains, is called *litor*, whence, perhaps, the name of Belur Tag. The Saligrams, or holy Stones,

SURROUND-
ING STATES.

ancient, and the language peculiar; but it has recently been injured by civil wars, fostered by the king of Gorca. To the west of Nipal are not less than twenty-four petty kingdoms, one of which is Lamgi; another to the south is called Tirhut. The king of Gorca has recently effected the conquest of Nipal, and of the Ciratas to the east; and other kingdoms as far as the borders of Coch Bihar. Amidst these multifarious names, there is not one known to the lamas; and it appears that the wide regions of Tibet, and its dependencies, may be pronounced, in this the beginning of the nineteenth century, to be almost utterly unknown.*

To the west of Nipal the states of Gorca, and Kemaon on the Go-gra, are arranged on the frontiers of Gangetic Hindostan. Of these countries little is known: but it is to be hoped that the Asiatic Society will send scientific men to examine them, with the remainder of Tibet and western Tatory. This attempt would merit the highest applause; and the jealousy of the Chinese might perhaps subside upon being informed of the merely scientific nature of the design, or be illuded by disguise, or pretensions to the Hindoo faith, for a Bramin might travel in any direction. In the whole circle of geography there does not remain a range of discovery so curious and important. The centre of Africa can present little of general interest; while that of Asia may be regarded as the cradle of nations which have been diffused over our whole hemisphere.

are ammonites enclosed in black schistus. The goitre or swelled throat is not uncommon in Nipal. The people are very black, though surrounded with mountains covered with perpetual snow, whence it is argued that climate alone cannot occasion this variety. Sheep with four horns seem to be the common beasts of burthen in the mountains of Tibet. The best fruits in Nipal are the oranges and pine apples; and there is a singular mixture of the European and Asiatic trees and plants. Catmandu, the residence of the court, is neatly built, the houses being often of three floors. There is a guard of females, armed with swords, who attend the princesses on horseback, riding astride like men. They are chosen for their beauty, and their licentiousness is equal to their charms. Tibet is here called Bhotca; and the river Gunduky rises far higher in the country than represented in our maps.

* The missionaries were confined to particular districts, but the curious reader may consult the materials of Cassiano in the *Alphabetum Tibetanum* of Giorgi, and the Let. Edif. tome 15., with Astley's Collection, vol. 4. and Phil. Trans. 68. See Rennell, 307. Du Halde, iv. 571. gives a slight account of his map of the country.

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Of Sirinagur, laid down in the maps as the most northern frontier country, an interesting account has recently appeared.¹² The mountains between Hurdwar and the higher region are often of argillaceous marl, though the rivulets roll down masses of opaque quartz and granite. Forests abound; and many curious vegetables delight the eye of the botanist. To the north is seen the lofty chain of snowy mountains, passing in an extensive line from east to west. This range, instead of being about fifteen miles, as supposed, to the N. of the town of Sirinagur, is said by our traveller to be not less than eighty English miles. One of the most conspicuous summits is that of Hem, rising in four or five conical peaks; and near its base is a place of Hindoo worship called Budrinaut. Upon approaching the town, the rocks were a coarse dull granite, with beds of argillaceous schistus. Several rivulets descend into the Aliknundra, here acknowledged by the Hindoos as the genuine and divine Ganges. The Raja is of the Hindoo faith; but the country, a mass of mountains, extremely poor. The channel of the river is here not less than two hundred and fifty yards in breadth; which if the Baghariti exceed, it must be a noble stream.* The sands are washed for gold; and about forty miles to the north of the town are two copper mines, with one of lead about fifty miles to the east. The natives follow the Hindoo faith; and Mr. Hardwick has published a curious list of the Rajas, in which the reigns are put ridiculously long; but as they are in number sixty-one, they cannot well ascend much above six hundred years. It is to be regretted that he did not proceed to the source of the Ganges, computed to be fourteen days distant, probably not above a hundred and forty miles, through a rocky and difficult country. From the information of the natives, the course is E. and W. for about three days from Sirinagur; then N. E. and S. W., receiving many mountain streams, and at Bissenprag, a river from the E. as large as itself, called Dood Ganga, or the Milk river. Bissenprag is near the base of a mountain, on which stands the famous temple of Bud-

¹² *At. Ref. vi. 309.*

* Rennell, 370, allows that the Aliknundra is the larger stream; yet he unaccountably supposes the other to be the true Ganges, in opposition to the Hindoos and Bramins themselves upon the spot.

SURROUNDING STATES. drinaut. All these circumstances unite with the worship and temples of the Hindoos to evince that this river is the genuine Ganges: but the most recent maps of this part of Tibet seem very defective in positions; and it would appear, among others, that Cashmir is far more near to Sirinagur than is commonly supposed.

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CHAPTER III.

SINDETIK HINDOSTAN; OR THE COUNTRIES ON THE RIVER
SINDEH OR INDUS.

Extent.—Western Boundary of Hindostan.—Chief Cities and Towns.

THIS part extends from the northern mountains of Cashmir, and the Hindoo Koh, in the north of Cabul, to the mouth of the Indus, a length of about nine hundred B. miles, and about three hundred and fifty in medial breadth. Besides part of the provinces of Delhi and Agimer, it contains the extensive province of Moulton, with Lahore, Cashmir, Cabul, the frontier region of Candahar, and that of Sindi at the mouth of the Indus. These provinces being the most remote from the seat of British power, and the greater part of modern travellers having visited Hindostan by sea, they are less accurately known than any other quarter.

The chief cities which occur in this extensive region are Lahore, Cashmir, Cabul, Ghizni or Gafna, Candahar, Moulton, and Tatta in the Sindean Delta. On the east of the Indus, or in Panjab, the Seiks, a new religious sect, form the leading power; while on the west, and even as far as Cashmir, the dominions of a Persian Shah, whose seat of empire is at Candahar, comprise all the provinces, with several in the east of Persia, and to him even Sindi is tributary. Yet by many geographers the river Indus is esteemed as the boundary between Persia and Hindostan, in which view the Persian Shah * possesses little in proper Hindostan, except the country of Cashmir. But D'Anville, in his large map of the world as known to the ancients, has justly arranged in ancient India some countries to the west of the Indus, including not only all the streams that join that river from the west, but even the river Tomerus,

EXTENT.
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* Or rather Afghan, of the sect of Duvani Saduzei.

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corresponding with the Haur of modern maps, which seems infallibly to have belonged to the Persian province of Gedrosia. Pliny considers the Indus as the extreme western boundary of India; which from Strabo appears to have been the received opinion, from the age of Alexander to his own time. Arrian also describes the river Indus as the western boundary of this country, but including the Delta, and on the N. W. bounded by the Hindoo Koh, so that even the Kameh and Comul were Indian streams, being the Gurcus and Cophenes of antiquity, the last specially mentioned by the accurate Arrian as Indian. Hence it is evident that when Major Rennell regards the Sindeh as the western boundary of Hindostan, he has not expressed the opinion either of ancient or modern geographers; the Hindoo Koh, or Indian Caucasus of the ancients, being the N. W. boundary; and even towards the south, where the limits of Persia do not seem to have been accurately defined, Ptolemy indicates a considerable space on the W. of the river as included in India, an opinion adopted by D'Anville not only in his ancient geography, but in his modern map of Asia; in which indeed, by a mistake in the chain of the mountains, he has included the city of Candahar in Persia, but seems on the other hand too far to have extended the limits on the south, when he has included even the town of Guadal in Hindostan.* As Major Rennell justly considers the city of Candahar as the gate of Hindostan towards Persia, while Cabul stands in the same view towards Tatory, it is evident that the Sindeh cannot be considered as a boundary.[†] The southern limit between Sindi and Mckran he does not define; but it may be regarded as extending to the river Araba, the Arabius of Ptolemy. The cause of this uncertainty in the S. E. of Persia is that the country is wild and desert, and has in all ages been thinly inhabited, having been so much neglected that it is chiefly possessed by Arabian fishers from the opposite shores.

[†] vi. 17.

* Chardin, and several other travellers in Persia, consider the Indus as its western boundary; but the idea is vague and objectionable. Dr. Vincent, an able enquirer into the voyage of Nearchus, observes, page 198, that the Arabiæ and Oritæ, on the west of the Indus, were Indian tribes.

[†] 153. 167. compared with page xix.

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This discussion became necessary to illustrate the provinces and boundaries of Sindetic Hindostan; and it will hence appear that when either ancient or modern geographers speak of the Indus as a western boundary, the expression is only to be taken in a loose sense, as when they speak of India beyond the Ganges, in which they include the Burrampooter, and several streams to the east of that majestic river.

This brief account of Sindetic Hindostan shall begin with the N. E. and end with the S. W., after mentioning that Agimer, which may be regarded as the most eastern city of this division, is little remarkable, except for a strong fortress on a hill.

The town of Sirhind is placed by modern maps on the river Caggar, which D'Anville bends west into the Indus, but Major Rennell supposes it to follow a detached course into the gulph of Cutch: perhaps it may be lost in the great sandy desert.

Lahore, now the capital of the Seiks, was the residence of the first Mahometan conquerors, before they advanced to the more central parts; and including the suburbs, was supposed to be three leagues in length. From Lahore to Agra, near 500 English miles, there was an avenue of shady trees.² The river Rauvee passes by Lahore, being the Reva of the Hindoos, said by them to derive its source from the mountain Vindhia, as the Sarjou from the Himar or Himala.³ Wefdin adds that the Vindhia mountains occur in no map; but are in long. 94° from Ferro, and lat. 34°. He asserts that the Reva is the chief tributary stream of the Sindeh; but as he only visited the Deccan, his distant intelligence seems erroneous, nor are his other Indian rivers easily explained.

Almost due north from Lahore, at the supposed distance of about 200 B. miles, stands Cashmir, the capital of the delightful province so called. This city is said to be also called Sirinagur, having been confounded with the town of the same name, already mentioned in the account of Gangetic Hindostan. To avoid the confusion arising from identity of names, it is better to follow the authorities of Bernier and Forster, who denominate the capital of Cashmir by the same term as the country. "The city, which in the ancient annals of India was known by the name of Siringnaghur, but now by that of the province at large,

² Rennell, 82; but others only extend it to Delhi.

³ Wefdin, 232.

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TOWNS.

extends about three miles on each side of the river Jalum, over which are four or five wooden bridges, and occupies, in some part of its breadth, which is irregular, about two miles. The houses, many of them two and three stories high, are slightly built of brick and mortar, with a large intermixture of timber. On a standing roof of wood is laid a covering of fine earth, which shelters the building from the great quantity of snow that falls in the winter season. This fence communicates an equal warmth in winter as a refreshing coolness in the summer season, when the tops of the houses, which are planted with a variety of flowers, exhibit at a distance the spacious view of a beautifully chequered parterre. The streets are narrow, and choaked with the filth of the inhabitants, who are proverbially unclean. No buildings are seen in this city worthy of remark; though the Kashmirians boast much of a wooden mosque called the Jumah Mussid, erected by one of the emperors of Hindostan; but its claim to distinction is very moderate." For a particular account of the country of Cashmir the reader is referred to the same traveller, who informs us that this delicious vale extends in an oval form, about 90 miles from S. E. to N. W. It was subject to the Zagathai princes (a Tataric race, who speak the same language with the Turks) till A. D. 1586, when it became subject to the Monguls, and afterwards to the Afgans. Rice is the common product of the plains; while the surrounding hills yield wheat, barley, and other crops. The celebrated shawls are only manufactured here: the material being from Tibet, especially those districts which lye at a month's journey to the north-east.* The price at the loom is from 20s. to 5l.: and the revenue is transmitted to the Afgan capital in this fabric. The Cashmirians are stout and well formed, but their features often coarse and broad, even those of the women, who in this northern part of India are of a deeper brown complexion than those of southern France or Spain. The dress is inelegant; but the people gay and lively, and fond of parties of pleasure on their delicious lake. The Afgan government has however somewhat crushed their spirit. The language is derived from the Sanscret,

* Forster, vol. ii.

• Forster's Travels, ii. 18: if this intelligence be genuine, it evinces very gross errors in modern maps, which suppose the northern boundaries of Tibet to be the same with those of Cashmir. The N. mountains of Tibet would thus give source to the rivers of Little Bucharra.

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but the Persian is chiefly used in elegant composition. During the summer heats, the great Moguls used to retire to Cashmir, where they enjoyed a cool and refreshing climate.

The wide space from Cashmir to Cabul is more remarkable for numerous streams and mountains than any other circumstance; and the conquerors of India preferred the south. Even in Cabul the mountains are said to be covered with perpetual snow; but the country is diversified with gentle hills, fertile vales, and stately forests. It is also intersected by many streams; and besides delicate fruits and flowers, is abundant in other productions. Ghizni was the ancient capital of the country, of which Candahar was then reckoned a part.⁶ The city of Cabul is the capital of the dominions of the Persian Shah, usually styled King of Candahar, whose dominions extend westward beyond the sea of Durrah, including a great part of Corasan, with the large Persian province of Segistan, being about 800 B. miles in length by about half that breadth. Cabul is esteemed a considerable city, in a romantic and healthy situation.

Ghizni or Gafna is remarkable as the seat of the first Mahometan conquerors of Hindostan, whose empire almost correspond with the modern kingdom of Candahar.

The city which gives name to this last is of small account, except as a noted pass from Persia into Hindostan.

Having thus reached the most western frontier, and nothing further worthy of commemoration arising on that side of the Sindeh, it will be proper to pursue the course of that grand stream towards the south. The small city and fortress of Attock were only built by Acbar, 1581; but the vicinity was inemorable in ancient times as the general passage from India to the west. Mr. Forster crossed the Indus about twenty miles above Attock, and found it a rough rapid stream, about a mile in breadth, where it was not interrupted by isles. This size indicates a remote source, and many tributary streams. The water was extremely cold in July, and discoloured with fine black sand.*

⁶ Rennell, 152.

* D'Anville places Ashnagur on the Indus about 80 B. miles above Attock. This place, noted in Hindoo history (Wesdin, 36.), is omitted by Rennell, whose map of Hindostan is in the N. W. singularly restricted.

CHIEF
CITIES AND
TOWNS.
Moultan.

Moultan, the capital of the province so called, is about 170 B. miles to the south of Attock, on the large river Chunab, not far from its junction with the Indus, along which there is an uninterrupted navigation for vessels of 200 tons, not only to this city but as far as Lahore.* Moultan is a small city, and of little consequence, except for its antiquity and cotton manufacture.

Tatta.

The last remarkable city on the Indus is Tatta, the capital of the province of Sindi, and situated within the Delta, the upper part of which is well cultivated, while the lower, instead of the lofty forests of the Gangetic Sunderbunds, presents only low brushwood, swamps, and lakes. In the months of July, August, and September, when the S. W. monsoon brings rain in most parts of India, the atmosphere is here often clouded, but no rain falls except near the sea. At Tatta the heats are so violent, and the winds from the sandy deserts on the E. and N. W. so pernicious, that many precautions are used. The manufactures of this city in silk wool from Kerman, and cotton, have greatly declined. The Mahometan prince of Sindi is tributary to Candahar.

* Rennell, 178 : yet, page 93, he mentions the river of Moultan as being choked up about 1665.

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CHAPTER. IV.

CENTRAL HINDOSTAN, OR THE MIDDLE PROVINCES.

Boundaries.—Chief Cities.—SIRCARS.—Ancient Trade.—Pirates.

THIS division is chiefly bounded by Gangetic Hindostan on the north; and on the west by the sandy desert, and the ocean. The southern limit is the river Kistna, with its tributary stream the Bema; while the east is washed by the bay of Bengal. The length E. to W. from Jigat Point to Cape Palmiras, is little less than 1200 B. miles; while the medial breadth is about 400. In it are comprehended the province of Orissa, with part of Golconda, Berar, Dowlatabad, Candeh, and Guzerat, and other districts of inferior name; and on the eastern shore are the British provinces of the Sircars.

In a natural transition from the division of India last described, the province of Guzerat first presents itself, like a large promontory; but the shores seem little adapted to commercial purposes. The chief city, Amedabad, is considerable, and well fortified, taken by the English under General Goddard in 1780, restored to the Marattas in 1783. Cambay, at the distance of more than fifty miles, may be called the sea port of this capital; itself a handsome city, formerly of great trade in spice, ivory, silk, and cotton cloths; but the harbour was impeded with sand and mud, and is now little frequented, the trade being chiefly transferred to Surat. The sovereigns of Guzerat were not a little powerful, and long withstood the power of the Monguls: and towards the east of this province appears to have been the seat of the great Bahara, or Hindoo emperor of the Arabian authors, whose capital was Nahalwanah, or Nehalwarah, lat. 22°. but the oriental longitudes, or indeed the numerals in general, in their geographical works, are of

CHIEF
CITIES.

noted inaccuracy.* Renaudot has however erred grossly when he confounds the Balhara of central Hindostan with the Zamorin, or Samoory, the king of an extensive territory around Calicut, whose name and diminished splendour exist to this day. Edrifi, in the twelfth century, mentions that the people here were worshippers of Boodh, the connection with the south of Hindostan being more intimate than that with the north; to which last the worship of Brahma, and the sect of the Bramins, appear to have been restricted at a late epoch. But the Arabian authors are certainly fabulous, when they suppose that the power of the Balhara extended even to China, when it probably only comprised the central parts of Hindostan: yet their opinion of his power is indicated, as the fourth grand sovereign in the world, with the emperors of China and Grece, and the Arabian chalifs.

Surat.

Surat was formerly more celebrated as the port whence the Mahometans of India embarked on their pilgrimage to Mecca, than for any other circumstance, though reported to have been an important city in ancient times. The Portuguese seized Surat soon after their arrival in Hindostan; and it was among the first places in this country frequented by the English, of whose factory here a view may be found in Mandelstø's Travels, who describes the harbour as small and incommodious; yet it was the only one on the western coast in which ships could be secure during the monsoon rains from May to September. †

Bombay.

Bombay, at a considerable distance to the south, is a well known English settlement, on a small island, about seven miles in length, containing a very strong capacious fortress, a large city, a dock yard, a marine arsenal. It was ceded to the English in 1662 by the Portuguese, as part of the dower of the queen of Charles II. In the same sound, or small bay, are the isles of Saliett and Elephanta, in which are subterra-

* The ancient Nerhwah is now Puttan, N. of Amenadab, and was formerly the capital of Guzerat Rennell, xlv. 228. See a list of the kings in Bernoulli, i. 413. where the race of Bagela are perhaps the Balharas of the Arabs.

† For a recent account of Surat see Siavorinus, vol. ii. p. 479. The inhabitants are said to be 500,000, a considerable part of whom are Moors, that is Arabs, Persians, Monguls, Turks, professing Mahometanism; but retaining some pagan rites, as the *salamma*, or salutation to the moon, &c.

‡ Rennell, 31.; the name is Portuguese *Buen bahia*, a good bay.

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near temples, which, as well as the grand monuments at Ellora, a considerable distance inland, are probably foundations of the great Balharas in the tenth or eleventh century; for the subjects are now known to belong to the common Hindoo system, and might thus have been works of the most recent erection.

CHIEF CITIES.

On leaving the shore, and proceeding towards the east of central Hindostan, first occurs the city of Burhampour, of small note. Ellichpour is of considerable importance, being the chief city of Berar. Nagpour is the capital of the eastern division of the Maratta empire, as Poona is of the western, being a modern city of small size. At Nagpour, which may be called the central city of Hindostan, the rainy season commences with the S. W. monsoon.

Other Cities.

Not far to the east of this city begins that extensive and unexplored wilderness, which is pervaded by the great river Bain or Baun Gonga, and terminates in the mountains bounding the English Sircars.* The acquisition of these provinces has been already mentioned in the first chapter. They present little memorable; for the famous temple of Jagernaut, which in reputation succeeded that of Sumnaut in Guzerat, destroyed by Mahmud of Ghizni in the eleventh century, stands to the north of the Chilka lake. Nor does there appear to be any capital city, or chief town, in the Delta of the Godaveri, or throughout the

Sircars.

* See Mr. Blunt's journey, above quoted, for minute details concerning this formerly obscure region. *Asiat. Reg.* ii. 128—200. This important journey appears to have been undertaken solely with geographical views; and it is said that the East India Company entertain the highly laudable intention of publishing an entirely new map of Hindostan. The hitherto unexplored region appears to consist almost entirely of high rocky mountains and forests, thinly inhabited by the GOANDS, a naked, savage, and ferocious race, who extend even to the north of Corair; which last province abounds in game and many kinds of deer, with wild buffaloes, black bears, leopards, and particularly the royal tiger, the latter common in the sylvan regions to the S., where they depopulate whole villages. Omercuntuc, which gives source to three rivers, the Nerbudda, the Soan, and the Jobala, (see Rochette's Map,) is a high table land; the rocks of red granite, and the soil of red clay. To the S. a great range of mountains proceeds between the Baun Gonga and Mahanada, giving source to streams that flow E. and W. into these rivers. This ridge passes from Omercuntuc through Zelingana and Buliar, to those of the northern Sircars.

The Baun Gonga is also called the Waini, and rises in the mountains of Choteesgur. The river Inderowti is likewise considerable. The journey was not accomplished in all its objects; but has nevertheless greatly served geography, and is accompanied with a journal of the route and bearings, and several astronomical observations.

Sircars,

SIRCARS. Sircars, the wide track of forest on the N. W. having prohibited inland trade or intercourse. Masulipatam is indeed a place of some account; but standing on the northern branch of the Kistna, may be arranged in the southern division of Hindostan.

Aurangabad. On turning towards the west few places of note arise, except Aurungabad, a modern city, deriving its name from Aurungzeb, in whose time it was the capital of the Deccan, or parts to the south of Hindostan proper. It was afterwards the metropolis of the Nizam's territory, till the preference was given to Hyderabad. Near this city is Dowlatabad, which gives name to the province, with a singular fortress on a peaked rock.²

Ancient
Trade.

This central part of Hindostan nearly corresponds with the Deccan, or southern countries of the Monguls, who did not pass the Kistna till a recent period; and instead of using the term in its just acceptation, applied it to the southern provinces of their empire. Though formerly the seat of great power, and the western coasts greatly frequented by foreign merchants of all nations, the harbours have since been impeded, and the commerce has declined, being now chiefly transferred to the Ganges, which presents such superior advantages as amply compensate for the greater distance of the voyage. The Roman and Arabian fame of the western shores has vanished; and silence prevails in the streets of Barygaza or Baroach, the port of the great inland city Tagara, whence the products of India, gems, ivory, myrrh, pepper, ginger, and cotton cloths, plain or ornamented with flowers, were in the time of Arrian exported to the western world.

In later times the southern part of this coast was remarkable upon another account, being the chosen residence of daring pirates. Yet these freebooters were known even to Pliny and Ptolemy, being stimulated in all ages by the richness of the commerce. They resembled on a small scale the piratical states of Barbary, and a succession of *Angriah* was continued till 1736, when we seized Gheriah, the principal fortress.

² See the print, Bernoulli, i. 480.

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CHAPTER V.

THE SOUTHERN DIVISION OF HINDOSTAN.

Boundaries.—British Possessions.—Chief Cities and Towns.

THIS part, which may also be called the Deccan or South, in the most proper acceptation of the term,* is bounded, as already explained, by the river Kistna, and its most northern subsidiary streams flowing into the Beema. Hence it will extend from the latitude of Bombay to the southern point of Cape Comorin, about 830 B. miles in length, and about 350 of medial breadth. It contains nearly the whole of the province of Visiapour, and the most important part of that of Golconda, with the central kingdom of Mysore, the long eastern province of Carnada, or the Carnatic, the principalities of Tanjore, Travancore, and the Samorins of Calicut, the pepper coast of Canara, and other districts, of which Concam is supposed to be the Kamkam, which the Arabian authors mention as adjoining to the territory of the Balhara. In this division of Hindostan may also be included the island of Ceylon, the coasts of which are now possessed by the English, who have supplanted the Dutch; while the native princes retain the extensive inland parts.

In addition to the district around Madras, the British power was, in 1792 and 1799, extended over wide provinces in the south and west of Mysore, and Seringapatam the capital is also in our possession, so that our territories in this portion of Hindostan only yield in extent and

* It was also called in general Carnada, or the Carnatic, (Rennell's last Memoir, page 20;) and was mostly subject to one king or raja, whose capital was Bijanagur, on the south bank of the river Toombudra, said to have been founded by Belaldea, A. D. 1344, being thus placed to guard the northern frontier of his empire. The ruins are extensive, several rugged hills and rocks being covered with temples still beautiful: the circumference appears to be about eight miles. (Ib. 10.) The empire of Bijanagur seems to have continued about eight hundred years.

BRITISH
POSSESSIONS.Chief Cities
and Towns,
Serlingapa-
tam.

consequence to those on the Ganges. Serlingapatam is not only detached, but is by its inland situation little adapted for a commercial capital; it may therefore be perhaps expected that Calicut, an ancient and celebrated emporium, or some other place on that coast, will be selected as a metropolitan town of the new acquisitions.

In recent times Serlingapatam may be regarded as the most important city in this portion of Hindostan. It is situated in an isle, surrounded by the river Caveri, which is even here about five feet deep, and runs over a rocky channel. The length of this isle is about four miles, and the breadth about a mile and a half; the western side being allotted to the fortress, distinguished by regular outworks, magnificent palaces, and lofty mosks; for Tippoo and his father were Mahometans, not averse to the prosecution of the Hindoos and Christians.* The environs were decorated with noble gardens; and among other means of defence was what is called the *bound hedge*, consisting of every thorny tree or caustic plant of the climate, planted to the breadth of from thirty to fifty feet. When the strength of the fortifications of all kinds, and the number of Tippoo's troops and artillery, are considered, our repeated successes must afford a convincing proof that no climate can overcome British courage, conduct, and perseverance.

Calicut.

In this central territory we also possess several considerable towns, Salem and Attole in the east; Dindigul, Coimbatore, Palicaud, on the south; and on the western coast Paniany, Ferokabad, Calicut, now nearly deserted, Tellicherry, Mangalore: and our northern possession of Carwar is within forty miles of the Portuguese settlement of Goa; while on the south we approach within a like distance of Cochin. Of these places Calicut is memorable as the first Indian port visited by the Portuguese under Vasco de Gama, and as the seat of the Zamorins, who at that period appear to have possessed the whole Malabar coast from Goa to Cochin; and perhaps by the interruption of the Gauts or mountains of Sukhien, at Palieaud, where the only river of consequence falls to the west, their power might extend inland; but at any rate it seems to have then rivalled any sovereignty on the south of the Kistna.

* Pennant's View of Hindostan, vol. ii. p. 82.

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The native rajas of Myfore, a part of whose dominions we have also shared, were princes of some eminence, supplanted by the Mahometan usurpation of Hyder. In the Carnatic we have long held Madras, where our ancestors settled about 1610; but the fortress, which is strong, and includes a regular well built city, is of modern date. Unhappily there is no port, nor is there indeed one haven for large vessels, from the mouth of the Ganges to Trincomali on the eastern side of Ceylon, which renders this last of singular benefit to our commerce. Through this wide extent of fifteen degrees, or more than 1000 B. miles, the coast forms nearly an uniform line, infested with a dangerous surf, and scarcely accessible, except in the flat-bottomed boats of the country called Mafula boats. But, if found necessary, European industry might certainly form a port at the wide but impeded mouths of the Godaveri, the Kistna, or the Caveri; and when our colonies shall have assumed a permanent and steady progress of population, it is probable that such designs may be executed.

Not far from the western frontier of our settlement at Madras stands Arcot, esteemed the capital of Carnada, or the Carnatic. The Navab* often resides at Madras. In his dominions there are several celebrated temples, visited by numerous pilgrims; and in general the southern parts of Hindostan display more numerous edifices, and other marks of civilization, than the northern. Yet the successive settlements of the Arabs, and latterly of many European nations, seem to indicate an inferiority of intellect and power in the natives. For neither in China, nor exterior India, have such foreign conquests been achieved; and in this respect the Hindoos seem rather to approach the rude tribes of Africa and America, or at most the slight civilization of Mexico or Peru, than the union, spirit, and discipline, to be found in states truly civilized.

Having thus briefly mentioned the British possessions in this quarter of Hindostan, and their nearest ally, it may be proper to indicate a few other remarkable places to the south of these possessions. Tranquebar is a noted Danish settlement in the kingdom of Tanjore, which em-

* This word, also written *Nabib*, implies lieutenant governor, or viceroy; but the title became hereditary.

CHIEF
CITIES AND
TOWNS.
Madras.

Arcot.

Tranquebar.

CHIEF
CITIES AND
TOWNS.

braces the wide Delta of the Caveri. This settlement was formed about 1617, and has been chiefly remarkable on account of the Lutheran missionaries, who resorted hither to convert the Hindoos, and have sometimes contributed to illustrate natural history. Pondicheri was the principal settlement of the French, founded in 1674, and before the war, 1756, was a large and beautiful city.

Cochin.

On the western coast, or that of Malabar, stands Cochin, on the northern point of a long tract of land, forming a kind of island, surrounded on the east by a creek of the sea, which receives several streams. But this seemingly ample harbour is obstructed by a dangerous bar. When the Portuguese first visited Hindostan, Cochin and the surrounding territory were possessed by a native raja; and the celebrated Vasco de Gama died here 1525. This city remained subject to the Portuguese till 1660, when it was taken by the Dutch, who seem still to be permitted to retain this settlement, or perhaps have resigned it to the French. The surrounding creeks and marshes of this low and unhealthy shore abound with fish and game.¹

Goa.

To the north of the British territories first occurs Goa, formerly a capital settlement of the Portuguese, and a noted seat of their Inquisition. This city, once magnificent, stands on a small isle, in the midst of a beautiful bay, which receives a rivulet called the Gongga, and two or three others from the Balagauts, or highest mountains of Sukhien, which form a grand distant prospect, while the intervening scene is variegated with hills, woods, convents, and villas. It was seized by the celebrated Albuquerque, the greatest of the Portuguese commanders in India, A. D. 1510. It afterwards became another Malacca, another centre of Portuguese trade.² The harbour is ranked among the first in India, and if in the hands of the English would probably resume its former consequence.

Poona

The other parts of the coast presenting few remarkable objects it will be proper to pass the mountainous ridge, and first visit Poona, the capital of the western empire of the Marattas, but a mean defenceless city; the arc hives of the government, and in all appearance the chief seat of power, being at Poorunder, a fortress about eighteen miles to the south-east.

¹ Weldie, 130, gives a good account of Cochin.² Pennant, i. 117.

Vijapur,

Vijapour, in the Maratta territory, also called Bejapour, is a considerable city, and was once the capital of a large kingdom of the same name. In the vicinity are celebrated diamond mines.

CHIEF
CITIES AND
TOWNS.
Vijapour.

Hydrabad is the metropolis of the Nizam's territory, and particularly of the celebrated kingdom or province of Golconda, but seems otherwise little remarkable. Betwixt these two last-named cities stands Calberga, formerly the capital of a powerful kingdom, that of the Deccan, under the Bamineah dynasty, as already mentioned in the general view of Hindostan. On passing the Kistna, few places of distinguished note occur. The regions on the great river Toombuddra, which rises nearly in the parallel of Seringapatam, and pursues a northern course of about 350 B. miles till it join the Kistna after passing Canoul, have been delineated with superior accuracy in Rennell's last map, April 1800; and it is to be wished that he would publish a general map of Hindostan on a larger scale than that of 1788, with all the most recent discoveries.

Hydrabad.

ISLAND OF CEYLON.

Extent and Name.—Religion.—Population.—Manners and Customs.—Towns.—Manufactures.—Climate.—Rivers.—Mountains.—Forests.—Zoology.—Mineralogy.—Pearl Fishery.—Other Isles.

EXTENT
AND NAME.

THOUGH this island be not above a fifth part of the size ascribed to it by the strange exaggeration of the ancients, it still approaches to that of Ireland, being generally supposed to be about 260 B. miles in length by about 150 in breadth: but in the wide continent of Asia territory is on to large a scale, that what in Europe would constitute a kingdom is here scarcely a province. This isle is the Taprobana, Salice, and Siedebea of the ancients, the Serendib of the Arabians: in the Hindoo language it is called Lanca; and the people are doubtless of Hindoo origin. Its history is little known. 'The Hindoos fable that it was conquered by the almighty Rama, who constructed a bridge over the shoals and islands, still called by his name; but the Mahometans style it Adam's Bridge; as, by another absurd alteration, they have called the supposed print of the foot of the god Boodh, on a high mountain, by the name of Adam's Foot. In the reign of Claudius embassadors were sent to Rome by a Singalese rajia, raja, or king, whom Pliny, mistaking his title for his name, has called Rachia.' In the trifling treatise on the Brahmans, written by one Palladius, and translated by St. Ambrose, we are told that four kings reigned in Taprobana, of whom one was styled Maharagia, or the great king. The succession and petty wars of these princes would be little important. When the Portuguese seized this island, 1506, the chief monarch was the king of Cotta; but the central province of Candea, or Kandi, afterwards appears as the leading principality. The Portuguese retained possession of the shores, (the inland parts rising to a high table land, bounded by forests, and difficult passes,) till about 1660, when they were expelled by the Dutch, between whom and the king of Kandi a war arose 1759,

* Pliny, vi. 22.

which

which terminated 1766, by the submission of the latter, who surrendered all the coasts, and agreed to deliver yearly a quantity of cinnamon at a low rate.¹ From the fordid domination of the Dutch it has recently passed under the more liberal banner of British power; and it is to be hoped that our ingenious countrymen will furnish us with more precise accounts of the formerly Dutch possessions in general, which mercantile jealousy concealed in profound obscurity.

EXTENT
AND NAME.

The religion of Ceylon is the ancient worship of Boodh, whose images appear with short and crisped hair, because it is fabled that he cut it with a golden sword, which produced that effect.² In the Asiatic Researches may be found prints of some antiquities and idols, discovered on the southern and western coasts of Ceylon, among which the image of Boodh is predominant; and an old king called Coutta Raja is sculptured in granite, and celebrated in the Singalese traditions. The worship of Boodh is supposed to have originated in Ceylon; and thence to have spread to ancient Hindostan, to exterior India, Tibet, and even to China and Japan. Such are the traditions in Siam, Pegu, &c. which suppose that Boodh, probably a kind of Confucius or deified philosopher, flourished about 540 years before the Christian æra; and as the Boodhis in general shew a prodigious superiority of good sense to the visionary Bramins, their accounts deserve more credit than the idle dreams and millenary chronology of the Pundits. Others however suppose that the worship of Boodh originated in exterior India.* However this be, there seems no ground to infer that the puerile mythology of the Hindoos was derived from Egypt, though the similarity of the countries in respect to annual inundations, and several natural products, occasioned a faint resemblance in some respects, merely because human fears and wishes are the same in similar situations. The great number and variety of heads and arms of the Hindoo idols seem unrivalled by the more sober Egyptians, who had very different modes of expressing

Religion.

¹ Waddin, 429.

² *As. Res.* vi. 453.

* There are three chief distinctions between the priests of Boodh and the Bramins; the former may lay down the priesthood; they eat flesh, but will not kill the animal; and they form no cast nor tribe, but are from the mass of the people.

power,

which

RELIGION. power, or beauty: and reason will find more cause to discriminate, than fancy to assimilate, the two systems.

Population. There does not yet appear to be any authentic intelligence concerning the population of Ceylon; but as it seems to remain almost in a state of nature the inhabitants cannot be inferred to be numerous. The hundreds of cities mentioned by ancient writers are now esteemed completely fabulous; nor does there seem to be one place deserving the name of a city, mentioned either in ancient or modern record. This island is only important in a commercial view, from its celebrated products of cinnamon and gems. The harbour of Trincomali, on the east, is to us of great consequence, because there is none on the eastern coast of Hindostan: and it has even been suggested that in case any revolution, to which all human affairs are subject, should expel us from the continent of Hindostan, this island might afford an extensive and grand asylum, where the British name and commerce might be perpetuated.

Manners and Customs. The natives of Ceylon, called Singalese, either from a native or Portuguese term, are not so black as those of Malabar, and have few manners and customs distinct from other Hindoos. It is said that several brothers may have one wife in common, as in Tibet; but the polygamy of males is also allowed.* In general chastity is little esteemed in the oriental countries; and the morality of many nations is so lax in this respect that the intercourse of the sexes is considered as far more indifferent than the use of certain foods. The language is rather peculiar; but some of the natives understand both the Tamulic and that of Malabar.

Towns. The native town Kandi, in the centre of the isle, seems to be of small size and consequence, and probably only distinguished by a palisade and a few temples.[†] It was taken by the Portuguese in 1590; but

* Wefdin, 435.

† Mandello, 279, who gives a list of the other towns. For an imperfect account of Kandi, see Percival's Ceylon, 1805. 410.

“The country round the city of Candy is described as being the most beautiful and fertile in nature; mountains cultivated to their summits, interspersed with villages, rivulets, and cattle; fruitful vallies with groves of areks, jaces, cocoa-nuts, limes, oranges, plantain, and pumplemose trees; with

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but no recent traveller appears to have visited this deep recess of Towns. sovereign power.

The chief town of the Portuguese, Dutch, and English possessions, Colombo, is Colombo, a handsome place, and well fortified; the residence of the governor is elegant, but only consists of one floor with a balcony to receive the cool air.^a Ceylon being exposed on all sides to the sea breezes the climate is not so hot as that of Hindostan; far less pestiferous, like the marshy exhalations of Batavia. At Colombo there is a printing press, where the Dutch published religious books in the Tamulic, Malabar, and Singalese languages. The name of Colombo seems indigenous, as well as that of Nigombo, a fortress a few miles to the N. of this capital.

The northern parts of Ceylon are chiefly left to the natives, but the town of Jafnapatam, or Jafna, was a Dutch settlement in a detached isle. The grand pearl fishery is conducted in the gulf of Manar, near Condatchey, a miserable place in a sandy district, to which water is brought from Aripoo, a village four miles to the south: the shoals near Rama's bridge supply inexhaustible stores of this valued production.⁷

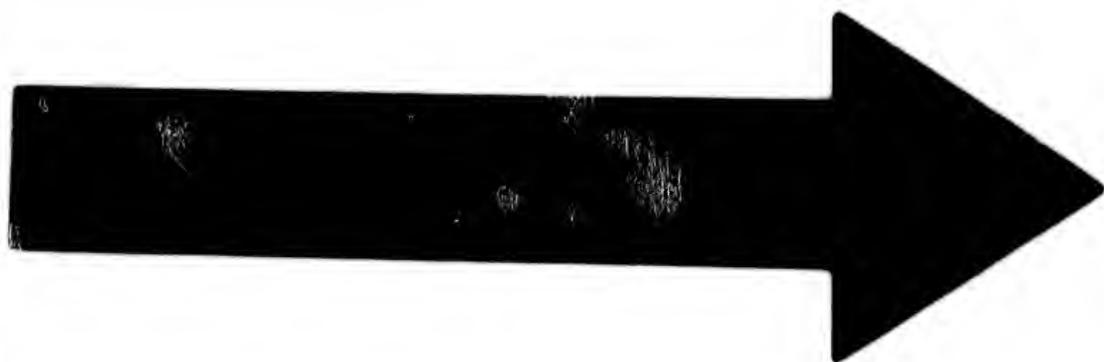
On pursuing the shore towards the east it is mostly guarded by sand-banks, or rocks; but the noble harbour of Trincomali opens at the mouth of the Mowil Ganga, the Ganges of Ptolemy's large map of Taprobana; and was defended by a strong fortress. Batacola is an inferior haven, on the same side of the island.

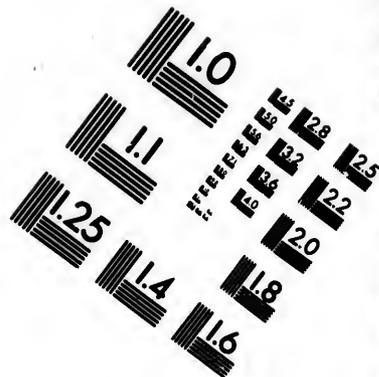
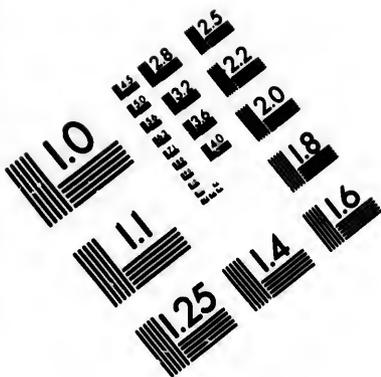
with fine vallages and fields of paddy and other grain, the latter well watered by streams from the mountains; the whole combining to form a scene singularly picturesque.

^a The palace is an immense pile of building. The town about two miles in length, consisting only of one broad street, terminated by the palace; there are lesser streets branching from it, but of no great length. The houses are mostly of mud, and raised on steps about five feet above the level of the earth. The palace is built of a kind of cheenam, or cement, perfectly white, with stone gateways: it is a square of immense extent, one fourth of which is not yet completed. In the centre is a small square inclosure, forming the cemetery of the kings of Candy. The palace contains a great number of rooms, the walls of which present a multitude of inscriptions, and are painted with the most grotesque figures. Many of the walls are covered with immense pier glasses. In one room is a gigantic brass figure of Buddha in a sitting posture, with two smaller ones at his feet. The river of Candy is a very noble one, swarming with fish, which the king never permitted to be disturbed." *Asiatic Register for 1804*, London, 1806, p. 13.

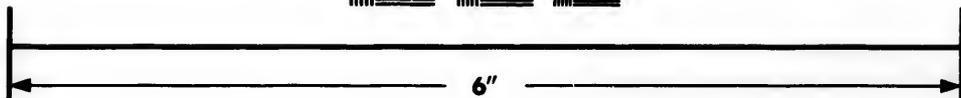
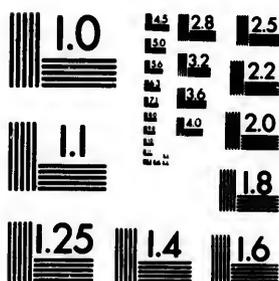
⁷ Thunberg, iv. 175.

⁷ Asi. Ref. v. 397.





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Towns.
Matura.

But the southern side of Ceylon has been chiefly visited, abounding with gems and other rich productions. Matura was a Dutch factory near the most southern promontory called Dondra, where excellent kinds of cinnamon were collected; and varieties of precious stones abound in the vicinity.* Not far to the W. of Matura is Gale, or Galle, near a point so called, a handsome town strongly fortified, on the projecting angle of a rock.†

Manufactures.

There is little mention of any manufactures conducted in this island; but the natives seem not unskilled in the common works in gold and iron. The Dutch ships used to sail from Galle, laden with cinnamon, pepper, and other spices; nor must pearls and precious stones be forgotten among the articles of export. The colombo wood, a bitter in recent use, receives its name from the capital; but its native country or district seems still unknown.

Climate.

The climate and seasons correspond in some degree with the adjacent continent; yet the exposure on all sides to the sea renders the air more cool and salubrious. The general aspect of the country somewhat resembles that of southern Hindostan; a high table land, in the centre, being surrounded with low shores, about six or eight leagues in breadth. High mountains, prodigious forests, full of aromatic trees and plants, and many pleasant rivers and streams diversify this country, which by the Hindoos is esteemed a second paradise. The vales are of a rich fat soil; and, when cleared, amazingly fertile in rice, and other useful vegetables.

Rivers.

There are five considerable rivers described by Ptolemy; of which the chief is the Mowil Ganga, on which stood Maagramum, the capital in his time, and modern Kandi stands on the same stream, one of the royal palaces being on an isle in that river, where the monarch keeps a treasure of gems; and his officers, like those of exterior India, are decorated with slight chains of gold.

The Phasis of Ptolemy running N. is perhaps the stream which passes to the N. W. by Ackpol. His western stream of Soana is perhaps that which enters the sea in that direction, near the centre of the isle. The Azanus S. W. seems that near the point of Galle; while his Baracus E. is the Barokan.

* Thunberg, iv. 195, 231.

† Ib. 194.

The chain, or chains of mountains run N. and S. the southern part being called Malca by the Greek geographer; a mere native term for a mountain, as Ganga for a river. The northern part is by Ptolemy called Galibe. These mountains seem granitic; and are peculiarly rich in precious stones imbedded in primitive quartz. What the Mahometans have termed Adam's Peak is esteemed the highest; and is in Sanscrit called Salmala, Boodh being fabled to have ascended from it to heaven.

MOUN-
TAINS.

The forests are numerous and large, the haunts of innumerable elephants, like the Gauts of southern Hindostan. An ample account of the botany of this island is given by the skilful Thunberg; one of the most peculiar and precious trees is that producing the best cinnamon, about the thickness of stout paper, of a brownish yellow, and a flavour inclining to sweetness.

Forests.

The elephants of Ceylon are supposed only to yield in beauty to those of Siam, and chiefly frequent the southern part of the island. Buffaloes are also found in a wild state, while the tame are used in rural œconomy. The wild boars are numerous and extremely fierce; nor is the tiger unknown, but probably not equal in size to those of Bengal. Bears, chacals, and many tribes of deer and monkees, are also natives of Ceylon. The alligator, frequent in the Hindoo rivers, here sometimes reaches the length of eighteen feet. Among a vast variety of elegant birds, the peacock, that rich ornament of the Hindoo forests, swarms in this beautiful island. For more ample information the ingenious labours of Pennant may be consulted^o.

Zoology.

Ceylon, opulent in every department of natural history, presents many minerals of uncommon beauty. Not to mention iron, gold, plumbago, &c., Thunberg has given a list of the precious stones, among which are the genuine ruby, sapphire, and topaz; nor are garnets or even rock crystals neglected by the Singalese. The finest rock crystal is that of a violet colour, called amethyst, a trivial stone, but when extremely pure not a little valued from the singularity of the tint. The water sapphire is only a harder kind of the colourless crystal: the yellow and brown are the Scottish Cairngorm stones, here cut for

Mineralogy.

^o View of Hindostan, vol. i.

MINERALO-
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buttons, for which purpose black schorl is also used on mourning apparel. The jacint is of a yellowish brown, somewhat resembling the cinnamon stone, but the last is sometimes of a bright orange. The tourmalins, or transparent schorls, are also numerous in Ceylon; but some are falsely so called, as the red and blue, which are quartz; the green are chrysolite; while the yellow and white, or what are called Muturese diamonds, are pale topazes. Thunberg informs us that the Hindo term Tourmalin is thus applied to stones of different descriptions; but he does not describe the genuine tourmalin of mineralogists, which in Ceylon is generally dark brown or yellowish, while those of other colours come from Brazil and Tyrol. The Peridot of the French, which is a bright green stone of rather a soft nature, is found in Arabia, Persia, and India; but it is asserted that Ceylon produces the genuine emerald, which is esteemed peculiar to Peru, while the emerald of the ancients is probably the peridot. That hard spar, called Corundon, used by the Singalese in polishing their precious stones, is found in the Gauts near Cape Comorin. The cat's eye, a kind of girasol, seems peculiar to Ceylon, as the noble or genuine opal is to Hungary.

Pearl Fishery.

Nor must the pearl fishery be forgotten which commonly begins on the N. W. shore, about the middle of February, and continues till about the middle of April, when the S. W. monsoon commences". The village of Condatchey is then crowded with a mixture of thousands of people, of different colours, countries, casts, and occupations; with numerous tents, and huts, and bazars, or shops; while the sea presents many boats hastening to the banks, or returning with the expected riches. The divers are chiefly christians, or moslems, who descend from five to ten fathoms, and remain under water about two minutes, each bringing up about a hundred oysters in his net. The species is minutely described in the paper quoted, which seems to confute the opinion of M. De St. Fond that pearls are produced by the perforation of some insect. These precious pearls are on the contrary always formed like the coats of an onion, around a grain of sand, or some other extraneous particle, which serves as a nucleus,

" Af. Res. v. 394.

the animal covering it with glutinous matter to prevent disagreeable friction ; and even those formed in the shell seem produced by similar exertion to cover some rough part, but these are darker and bluer than genuine pearls. The yellow, or gold-coloured pearl is most esteemed by the natives ; and some are of a bright red lustre : but the dull grey, or blackish are of no value.

PEARL
FISHERY.

There are no other isles of any consequence near the coasts of Hindoostan. Those called Lacadives and Maldives scarcely merit a particular description, in a work of this general nature, which ought only to embrace the most interesting topics : and the Andaman and Nicobar isles properly belong to exterior India, where a short account of them may be found, after the peninsula of Malacca, to which coast they are the most approximated. It may here suffice to observe that in the Hindoo language *dive* implies an isle ; and Ptolemy computes those which mariners saw before they reached Ceylon, that is the Maldives, at more than thirteen hundred. They form as it were an oblong inclosure of small low regular isles, around a clear space of sea, with very shallow water between each. They are governed by a chief called Atoll, and the trade is in cowrie shells, with cocoa nuts and fish ". The language is Singalese ; and there are some Mahometans. The Lacadive islands form a more extended groupe, though only thirty in number. They also trade in cocoa nuts, and fish ; and ambergris is often found floating in the vicinity.

Other Isles.

Maldives.

Lacadives.

" Pennant, i. 51.

P E R S I A .

CHAPTER I.

HISTORICAL GEOGRAPHY.

Divisions. — Name. — Extent. — Population. — Progressive Geography. — Provinces. — Historical Epochs. — Ancient Monuments. — Modern History. — Eastern Persia.

DIVISIONS.

THE ancient and powerful monarchy of Persia has, during the greater part of last century, been in a most distracted and divided condition; and the inhabitants, formerly renowned for wisdom and benignity, have been degraded, by civil discord, and mutual enmity and distrust, into a temporary debasement, both moral and political. This great empire seems at length, in some degree, to have settled into two divisions, the Eastern and the Western; while the provinces near the Caspian, secured by mountains and fastnesses, have asserted a kind of independence. These circumstances are unfavourable to a just and exact delineation of the present state of the country; but the chief limits, and many of the most important geographical topics, have been inviolably fixed by the hand of nature; and the following description shall embrace modern Persia in general, as it was in the time of Chardin, combined with the most recent and authentic information.

Name.

The name of Persia spread from the province of *Pars* or *Fars* throughout this mighty empire, in like manner as, among other instances, the appellation of England originated from a small tribe. This name has, however, been little known to the natives, who, in ancient and modern times, have termed their country *Iran*; under which denomination

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* See Scotland

nomination were included all the wide regions to the S. and W. of the river Oxus, or Gihon, the Amu of the Russians and Tatars; while the countries subject to Persia beyond that celebrated river, were, in ancient times, styled *Aniran*. Hence the inscriptions on the ancient Persian coins recently interpreted by two able orientalists, Sacy and Sir William Ouseley, bear "the worshipper of Ormuzd, the excellent Ardeshir, king of the kings of Iran and Aniran, celestially descended from the gods." Sacy supposes that the name *Aniran* simply implies the negative of Iran, or the various subject countries not contained within its limits; and probably what, in more modern times, has been styled *Touran*, which in a wide acceptation may extend to Tatory, or the western part of central Asia, but in a more limited sense means Great and Little Bucharía.

NAME.

From the mountains and deserts which, with the river Araba, constitute the eastern frontier towards Hindostan, Persia extends more than 1200 miles in length, to the western mountains of Elwend, and other limits of Asiatic Turkey. From south to north, from the deserts on the Indian sea, in all ages left to the Ichthyophagi, or wild tribes of Arabs who live on fish, to the other deserts near the sea of *Aral* are about 1000 B. miles.

Extent.

The original population of the mountainous country of Persia appears to have been indigenous, that is no preceding nation can be traced: and in the opinion of all the most learned and skilful enquirers, from Scaliger and Lipsius down to Sir William Jones, this nation is Scythic, or Gothic, and the very source and fountain of all the celebrated Scythian nations. While the southern Scythians of Iran, gradually became a settled and civilized people, the barbarous northern tribes spread around the Caspian and Euxine seas; and besides the powerful settlements of the Getæ and Massagetæ, the Gog and Magog of oriental authors, and others on the north and east of the great ridge of mountains called Imaus, or Belur Tag, they detached victorious colonies into the greater part of Europe many centuries before the christian æra.

Population.

* See the Author's Dissertation on the Scythians, or Goths, in his Enquiry into the History of Scotland, two vols. 8vo.; or the French translation, Paris, 1804, 8vo.

The



POPULA-
TION.

The ancient Medes and Parthians, in the north of Persia, appear however to have been of Sarmatic, or Slavonic origin, and to have spread from their native regions on the Volga, towards the Caucasian mountains, along which ridge they passed to the south of the Caspian, the ancient site of Media and Parthiène. The grand chain of Caucasus forms a kind of central point of immigration and emigration from the E. and W. whence the great variety of nations and languages that are traced even in modern times. The late very learned and excellent Sir William Jones, who did honour to his country and century, has repeatedly expressed his opinion that while the Parsi and Zend, or proper and peculiar Persian language, is of the same origin with the Gothic, Greek, and Latin; the Pehlavi is Assyrian, or Chaldaic. This testimony rather militates against that of many illustrious classical authors; as we should expect the Pehlavi, or in other words any second grand dialect in this country, to have been Slavonic; but from the inscriptions on the coins of a dynasty, confessedly and peculiarly Persian, which are Pehlavic, it appears that this was merely a more polished dialect, adopted from their western neighbours of Syria; who, from extensive commerce and other advantages, had become more opulent, intelligent, and civilized. This difference between the written language and the colloquial is even now common in many oriental countries; as for instance the Birman empire and Siam: and oriental manners have been perpetually the same. It is probable that the Slavonic language of the Parthians and Medes, though sometimes superior and ruling tribes, was soon lost, as usual, in that of the greater number, and is little to be distinguished from that of the Persian natives. In modern times the Arabs and the Turcomans have ruled in Persia, and the Afgans, probably a Caucasian tribe, in Hindostan, without effecting any change in the native language.

Progressive
Geography.

The contests of ancient Persia, with Greece and the Greek colonies established in Asia Minor, then within the wide limits of the Persian empire, have rendered the ancient geography of this country not a little luminous. Herodotus, the father of history, was born at Halicarnassus, one of these colonies; and his account of the twenty Satrapies, or great provinces of the Persian empire, in the reign of Darius Hytaspes, or Ghushtaf,

Ghushtanell. The provinces, from the ancient and range

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* But the name of Ahwaz of

Ghushtasp, has been ably illustrated in a late work of Major Rennell. The present design however only embraces the modern provinces, and limits; and the former may be thus arranged, proceeding from the W. towards the N. E. after remarking that the limits of the ancient and modern provinces often coincide, as they consist of rivers and ranges of mountains.

PROGRESSIVE GEOGRAPHY.

1. Georgia, or more properly Gurgustan, in which may be included Daghistan and Shirvan. These may be considered as constituting the Albania of the ancients; a name applied in different quarters to mountainous regions. The ancient Iberia to the W. is now chiefly the Imeritia of European Turkey, on the other side of a branch of the Caucasus.

2. Erivan: a large portion of ancient Armenia, between the river Kur; or Cyrus on the north, and the Aras, or Araxes on the south.

3. Aderbijan including Mogan, the Atropatena of the ancients.

4. Ghilan to the east of the last on the Caspian sea, and synonymous with the ancient Gela.

5. To close the list of countries on the Caspian, Mazendran appears encircled on the south by a lofty branch of the Caucasian chain, the seat of the Mardi of antiquity; to the E. of which was the noted province of Hyrcania, now Corcan and Dahistan.

6. Returning to the W. frontier there occurs Irac Ajemi, chiefly corresponding with the ancient Ecbatana. In the south of this province is Isfahan, the modern capital of Persia.

7. Chosistan extending to the river Tigris; but the capital Buffora, or Basra, after a recent vain attempt of the Arabs, remains subject to the Turks. This province corresponds with the ancient Susiana*.

8. The celebrated province of Fars, Persis, or Persia proper, surrounded with mountains on the N. the W. the S. and on the E. separated by a desert from Kerman. Fars contains the beautiful city of Shiraz, with Istakhar and the ruins of Persepolis.

9. Kerman, the ancient Carmania.

* But the name is antiquated. Niebuhr *Descr. de l'Arab.* 277. Shuster, or Teitar, is now the name of a large province. Lorislan is in Shuster. To the west is the country of Havisa, the Abwaz of D'Anville. The tribe *Kiab* is on the S. of Havisa. Ib.

10. Laristan,

PROVINCES. 10. Laristan, a small province on the Persian Gulf to the S. E. of Fars, of which some regard it as a part; nor does the subdivision seem to be known in ancient times, though the long ridge of mountains on the S. of Fars, and generally about 60 B. miles from the Persian Gulf, seem here naturally to indicate a maritime province; which, if the ancient Persians had been addicted to commerce, would have been the seat of great wealth, by intercourse with Arabia, Africa, and India. But this high spirited nation of horsemen and warriors was totally averse from maritime enterprize, either of war or trade, whether from a contempt of the Arabian fish-eaters on their coast; or more probably from particular precepts of Zerdust or Zoroaster, the founder of their religion, as Hyde has explained, which rendered a maritime life incompatible with the practice of their faith. In modern times Ormus and Bussora shew that the Persian Gulf is adapted to extensive commerce, which was indeed carried on here in the reigns of the Arabian califs. Mr. Franklin, who in 1786 passed from Abu Shehar, or Busheer, to Shiraz, found the mountains in this southern part extremely precipitous, and the summits covered with snow in the end of March; a circumstance unexpected in southern Persia, and in a latitude nearer the line than Cairo.

11. To the E. of Kerman is the large province of Mekran, which extends to the Indian deserts, and is the ancient Gadruftan or Gedrosia. This province has always been unfertile, and full of deserts; and classical geography here presents only one mean town called Pura, probably Borjian on the most W. frontier. The extensive sea coast on the Indian ocean, far from being the seat of commerce, scarcely presents one harbour, being almost an uniform line of sterility, inhabited by Arabs, like most of the southern coasts of Persia, which are divided by mountains and deserts from the fertile and cultivated land.

12. Segistan, another wide frontier province towards India, was chiefly the Arachosia and Saranga of antiquity; while the province of Paropamisus in the N. E. encroached on Candahar, and the modern limits of Hindostan.

13. The grand and terminating division of modern Persia in the N. E. is Corasan, bounded by the Gihon or Oxus on the N. E. and on the S.

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by the lake of Zeré, or Zurra, the grand Aria Palus of antiquity. The classical provinces comprized within Corasfan are in the N. Margiana and in the S. Aria. PROVINCES.

Besides these provinces, and exclusive of Asiatic Turkey on the W. the ancient Persian empire comprized Bactriana or Balk, which may be termed a wide and well watered kingdom of between 300 and 400 B. miles square; and on the other side of the Oxus, Sogdiana, or the country on the river Sogd, which passes by modern Samarcand*. Nay the fifteenth satrapy of Herodotus comprises the Sacæ and Caspii, probably the country of Shalh, and some other tribes nearer the Caspian sea, for it would be bold to comprize in the Persian domains any part of Scythia beyond the Imaus, or in other words, of the country of the Seres; for Ptolemy's exterior Scythia is a mere strip, and probably only represents the hills and forests on the E. side of the Belur Tag. This province of the Sacæ and Caspii adjoined on the W. to Corasfia, which belonged to the sixteenth satrapy, and is now the desert space of Kharism, with the small territory of Khiva.

The countries last mentioned form so considerable a part of what is called Independent Tatory, and have in all ages been so intimately connected with Persian history, that some account of them shall be annexed to this article; which, joined with that in the Chinese empire, will complete the description of the countries between the dominions of that great state and those of Russia and Persia, so far as the very imperfect materials will allow.

The most recent division of Persia into two kingdoms, and some small independencies, can be weighed with greater accuracy after a short view of its modern history, which will follow the historical epochs and antiquities. But it must not be omitted that the progressive geography of this celebrated country may be traced through Strabo, Pliny, the historians of Alexander, and other classical sources; and afterwards through the Arabian authors Ebn Haukal, Edrisi, Abulfeda, &c. &c. to the modern labours of Chardin, and other intelligent travellers.

* There is either a prodigious error in Ptolemy, or his Maracanda is in the west of the country of Balk, perhaps the modern Marabad. The Maracanda of Arrian is clearly Samarcand.

HISTORICAL
EPOCHS.

The chief historical epochs of the Persian empire may be arranged in the following order.

1. The Scythians, or barbarous inhabitants of Persia, according to the account of Justin conquered a great part of Asia, and attacked Egypt about 1500 years before the reign of Ninus the founder of the Assyrian monarchy; that is, so far as the faint light of chronology can pretend to determine such remote events, about 3660 years before the Christian æra. The Egyptians, whose origin remains unknown, the Coptic being a peculiar language, were from superior local advantages civilized at a more early period; and their genuine chronology seems to begin about 4000 years before Christ. The venerable historical records contained in the Scriptures attest the early civilization and ancient polity of the Egyptians; but as the Assyrians spread far to the east of Judæa, they seem to be silent concerning the Persians, except a satrap or two be implied. The first seat of the Persian monarchy was probably in the N. E. on the river Oxus; while the Assyrians possessed the Euphrates and the Tigris, and the S. W. of Persia. There is no evidence whatever, from records, remains of antiquity, or any probable induction, that this planet has been inhabited above six or seven thousand years. The invention and progress of the arts, the mythologies and chronologies of all nations, except the Hindoos, indicate this term as the utmost limit; before which, if men had existed, indelible traces of them must have appeared, whereas history can account for every relic that is found. For the great antiquity of the earth there are many evidences; but none for the antiquity of man.

The history of the Assyrian empire begins with Ninus about 2160 years before Christ, who is said to have formed an alliance with the king of Arabia, and, in conjunction with him, to have subdued all Asia, except India and Bactriana; that is, according to the ancient knowledge, he subdued Asia Minor and the west of Persia.

2. Zoroaster king of Bactriana is said to have been contemporary with Ninus, and to have invented magic; that is, he was a wise man, who could produce uncommon effects by common causes. But the history of this Persian lawgiver is lost in remote antiquity. The city of Babylon not far to the S. of Bagdad, being the capital of Assyrian

power, it is likely that it extended over great part of western Persia: nor is it improbable that what is now called *Arabia Deserta* was, at so remote a period, a productive country. Nineveh, said to have been founded by Ninus, appears to have stood opposite to Mosul, about 300 B. miles to the north of Babylon; but the history of the kingdoms denominated from these two cities is foreign to the present purpose.

HISTORICAL
EPOCHS.

3. Cyrus founds what is called the Persian empire, 557 years before the Christian æra, and soon after takes Babylon. This great event may be said only to have disclosed the Persians to the civilized nations of the west, for the native Persian histories ascend to Kayumarras, great grandson of Noah, and the ancient traditions chiefly refer to wars against Touran and India, which indicates the primitive eastern position of the people. But these are mingled with improbable fables concerning the foundation of some cities in the west, as Shiraz, Persepolis, &c. while it is impossible, considering the proximity of the Assyrian power, that these cities could have been founded till after Cyrus led the Persians from the N. and the E. to the S. W.

4. The overthrow of the first Persian empire by Alexander, B. C. 328, followed by the Greek monarchs of Syria, and the Grecian kingdom of Bactriana; of which last an interesting history has been compiled by the learned Bayer. It commenced about 248 years before Christ, and contained several satrapies, among which was Sogdiana. The kings were a first and second Theodotus, who were followed by the usurper Euthydemus, and Menander, in whose reign, or that of his successor Eucratides, the Greeks under Demetrius are said to have subdued a great part of India; and Apollodorus, the Bactrian historian, asserts that Eucratides possessed one thousand cities. He was succeeded by his son, who seems to have been of the same name; and a coin of one of these princes has been published by our learned author, who advances many arguments to prove that the Greeks of Bactriana imparted the first lineaments of science to the Hindoos.

5. The Parthian empire, which likewise began about 248 years B. C. This was a mere revival of the Persian empire under a new name.

6. Ardshur, or Artaxerxes, about the year 220 of the Christian æra, restores the Persian line of kings; this dynasty being called Sassanides:

HISTORICAL
EPOCHS.

and the Greek legends of the Parthian coins are followed by Pehlavic, recently explained by Sacy and Ouseley.

7. The conquest of Persia by the Mahometans, A. D. 636. As the position of the state often determines its destiny, this Arabian empire may be assimilated with the Assyrian of antiquity. The native kingdom was revived in Corasan, A. D. 820; and after several revolutions resumed its former situation.

8. The accession of the house of Bouiah, A. D. 934.

9. That of the house of Sefi or Sofi, A. D. 1501, whence the title of Sofis of Persia; for it is unnecessary here to repeat the conquests of Zingis and Timur, and the subsequent divisions and revolutions.

10. The reign of Shah Abas, surnamed the great, A. D. 1586.

11. The brief conquest by the Afghans, 1722; and consequent extinction of the house of Sefi, and elevation of Nadir, surnamed Thamas Kouli Khan, A. D. 1736. This ferocious chief was born in Corasan; and after a reign of eleven years was slain 20th June, 1747, near the city of Meshid, in the same country.

Ancient Mo-
numents.

Some account of the modern history and state of Persia shall be given, after a very brief view of the ancient monuments. Of these the ruins of Persepolis are the most celebrated and remarkable; and have been described by many travellers, from Chardin to Niebuhr and Franklin. They are situated at the bottom of a mountain, fronting S. W. about forty miles to the north of Shiraz. Mr. Franklin's route from Shiraz to the ruins was by the village of Zarkan, eight fursengs, thence to the river Bund Ameer, which Mr. Niebuhr supposes to be the ancient Araxes, and to the ruins, the last stage being five fursengs*. They command a view of the extensive plain of Merdasht, and the mountain of Rehumut encircles them, in the form of an amphitheatre: the nature of these ruins may be seen in the numerous plates which have been published; and it would be an idle attempt to describe in few words the grand portals, halls, and columns, and numerous relievos and devices. There are many inscriptions in a character not yet explained; but which Niebuhr,

* He computes the furseng to four English miles, but it seems little to exceed three; still Istabar is placed in the maps too near to Shiraz, and too far from the mountains close to which it lies.

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seems to have represented with the greatest accuracy. The letters somewhat resemble nails, disposed in various directions, in which singularity they approach to what are called the Helsing runes of Scandinavia; but the form and disposition seem more complex, and perhaps a clue might arise from comparing the Uchen character of Tibet. Behind the ruin to the north there is a curious apartment cut out in the rock; and a subterranean passage, which seems to extend a considerable way. The front of the palace is 600 paces N. to S., and 390 E. to W., and the mountain behind has been deeply smoothed, to make way for the foundation. About three miles and a half to the N. E. of these ruins is the tomb of Rustan, the ancient Persian hero.

Several small edifices and caverns, of similar architecture, are found in various parts of Persia, all which undoubtedly preceded the Mahometan conquest, but it is difficult to ascertain their precise æra. It is however generally supposed that they belong to the first race of Persian kings, successors of Cyrus, for the characters do not resemble those on the coins of the Sassanidæ, and the Parthian monarchs seem to have employed Greek artists. The bricks recently brought to England and France from the ruins of ancient Babylon, are impressed with inscriptions in the same character with the Persepolitan; and as there is no ancient evidence that the Persians erected any edifices at Babylon, there seems reason to conclude that these letters are of Assyrian origin, and imported into Persia with other features of early civilization. But the religious worship seems in all ages to have been wholly different, the Persians worshipping fire as a pure symbol of the divinity, and entertaining a rooted aversion to the numerous idols of their western neighbours; and in the destruction of the Egyptian temples and idols by Cambyses, there is no doubt that religious zeal was a great motive.

In many parts of Persia there must remain several curious monuments of antiquity, which might well excite the curiosity of the learned traveller to investigate this interesting country. The design of the present work rather requires some information concerning the modern state of this once powerful monarchy, which shall be chiefly derived from Mr. Franklin's view of the transactions in Persia from the death of Nadir Shah, 1747, to 1788; combined with the accounts of Gmelin,

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who by command of the empress of Russia inspected the northern provinces and Ghilan; and those of Pallas, in his last travels during the years 1793 and 1794.

Nadir Shah was succeeded by his nephew Adil, who, after a transitory reign, was followed by his brother Ibrahim. Meanwhile Timur Shah reigned in Cabul, Candahar, and the Persian provinces adjacent to Hindostan; and availing himself of the confusion in Persia, he besieged Meshid, which he took after a blockade of eight months.

This event was followed by such anarchy and confusion, that it seems impossible to settle the chronology of the infinite crimes which were committed during the contests of numerous chiefs, which desolated almost every province from Gombroon to Russia, leaving indelible marks of destruction throughout the kingdom, and changing even the very character of the people, whose prudence is degenerated into cunning, and their courage into ferocity.

At length the government of western Persia was happily settled for a considerable space of time in the person of Kerim Khan, who however never assumed the title of Shah, but was contented with that of Vakeel or Regent. As he died in the thirtieth year of his reign, 1779, it must have commenced in 1749; but at first he had competitors to encounter, and the reigns of his predecessors sometimes did not exceed a month or two; their number being computed at not less than eight*. This great and mild prince had been a favourite officer of Nadir; and at the time of that tyrant's death was in the southern provinces, where he assumed the power at Shiraz, and was warmly supported by the inhabitants of that city, who had observed and revered his justice and beneficence. In reward, he embellished this city and its environs with noble palaces, gardens, and mosks, improved the highways, and rebuilt the caravanseras. His reign was established by the sword, but was afterwards unsoftened by blood; and its chief peril arose from extreme mercy. His charity to the poor, and his attempt to restore the commerce of the country, are gratefully remembered by natives and Europeans. The Turkish emperor, and the Hindoo sultan Hyder Ali, acknowledged Ke-

* Dr. Pallas, ii. 262. says that Kerim died in his eighty-third year, after an *uncontested* reign of sixteen years only.

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rim as sovereign of Persia. Yet he lost the flower of his army before Bassora, 1776; and though he died in his eightieth year, his fate is supposed to have been hastened by this misfortune. The people of Shiraz embalm his memory with benedictions and tears of gratitude.

Another unhappy period of confusion followed the death of Kerim: his relation Zikea or Saki seized the government, which was contested by another kinsman, Ali Murad. The detestable cruelty of Zikea led to his own destruction, and he was massacred by his troops at Yezdekast, about six days journey N. of Shiraz, on the road to Isphahan.

Abul Futtah was then proclaimed king by the soldiers, and to him Ali Murad submitted; but Sadick, brother of Kerim, opposed his nephew's elevation; for Abul Futtah was the son of Kerim, and had been confined by Zikea without further injury. Sadick speedily marched at the head of an army, dethroned the young monarch, and after depriving him of his fight, ordered him into strict confinement.

Ali Murad, then at Isphahan, rebelled against this usurper, and with an army of twelve thousand men besieged and took Shiraz, and put Sadick to death, with three of his children. A son Jaafar was appointed by the new king governor of Kom, a city or province to the N. W. of Isphahan; for in the most recent Persian geography a province often assumes the name of the chief city.

Ali Murad was now regarded as peaceable possessor of the Persian throne; but an eunuch called Aga-Mamet, or Akau, had, since the death of Kerim, assumed an independant sway in the Caspian province of Mazendran. When advancing against him, Ali Murad fell from his horse, and instantly expired. Jaafar having assumed the sceptre, was defeated by Akau at Yezdekast, and retired to Shiraz.

In 1785 the governor of Kazerun rebelled against Jaafar, but was defeated; and in October 1787, Jaafar returned to Shiraz, from an expedition to the north, which was ineffectual. At the close of Mr. Franklin's narration, Akau held possession of the province of Mazendran*, with the cities of Tebriz and Hamadan, and even that of Isphahan in the south, so that his sway might be said to extend over one half of western

* Mr. Franklin adds Ghilan; but from the accounts of Pallas and Gmelin this appears to be a mistake.

Persia,

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Persia, while Jaafar possessed Shiraz, or the province of Fars, with those of Beabun, and Shuster in the west, perhaps the Kiab and Toftar of the maps, and he received tribute from Kerman and Lar or Laristan, and Abusheher or Busheer in the south, and the city of Yezd in the north. The wide province of Mekran is probably, with Segistan, tributary to the kings of Candahar. The armies of Jaafar and Akau did not each exceed twenty thousand men; and they were considered as the sole candidates for the throne of western Persia.

From the information of Dr. Pallas, it appears that in 1792 Akau, whom he calls Aga Mamet, again collected an army, and conquered the cities of Kasbin and Tekheran or Tahiran; which, though at the foot of the mountains of Mazendran, seem to have unaccountably resisted his power. Having reinforced his troops with those of Ali, khan of Hamfa, a prince who had asserted a kind of independency since the death of Ali Murad, he advanced against Jaafar, who retreated to Shiraz, where he perished in an insurrection, and his son Lutuf fled to the south.

Akau had now no rival, except Hidaet, khan of Ghilan, who was forced to fly from Rasht, his place of residence, but was killed near the port of Sinfili. In consequence of these events Akau became monarch of all western Persia; and being an eunuch, had nominated for his successor his nephew Baba Serdar. In 1794 Akau, the sovereign of western Persia, was about fifty-five years of age, of a tall stature, but disagreeable countenance; and said to possess uncommon art, mingled with much avarice and ambition. He was the son of a Bek, or inferior nobleman, who, after the death of Nadir, seized Mazendran, and assumed the title of khan, and the yet higher style of serdar, only borne by the most powerful khans. The father of Akau reigned twelve years, till in 1762 he was conquered and slain by Kerim, after a war of some years; and his son Akau was deprived of his manhood by command of the conqueror.

The uninteresting history of Ghilan, and the adjacent provinces to the west, may be traced in Gmelin and Pallas.

Eastern
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Having thus, as briefly as possible, discussed the recent history of western Persia, the eastern half yet remains, being unhappily separated in

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a great degree by high ridges of mountains and sandy deserts, a circumstance which has been repeatedly productive of great disasters to this wide empire. If a more central seat of government had been originally selected, for example near the sea of Zurra or Arian lake of antiquity, it is probable that industry might have effected much in fertilizing the central districts; and the power of the ancient Assyrians, or of the Arabian chalifs, could not have affected such sudden conquests of the empire. But during its utmost extent to the Mediterranean sea, the western provinces had been selected as the seats of empire, which became fixed by opinion and prejudice.

EASTERN
PERSIA.

This natural separation has occasioned great obscurity in the ancient history of Persia, the eastern half remaining a distinct and independent country, of the same general name with the western, but with limits and history totally different. The series of events after the Mahometan conquest; the kingdoms of Corasan, Samarcand, and Ghizni; and in recent times that of Candahar; may lead to safe conclusions concerning a similar division in remote periods.

The best materials concerning the kingdom of Candahar seem to be those collected by Rennell; and they are, if possible, yet more scanty than those concerning the western half. Ahmed Abdalla, first king of Candahar, was originally the chief of an Afgan tribe, conquered by Nadir Shah, on whose death he suddenly appeared among his former subjects, and soon erected a considerable kingdom in the eastern part of Persia, including most of the Indian provinces ceded by the Mogul to Nadir. He established his capital at Cabul, at a secure distance behind the mountains of Hindoo Koh; but the deplorable anarchy of western Persia formed a sufficient security in that quarter.

Ahmed died about the year 1773, and was succeeded by Timur, who continued to reside at Cabul; but the monarchy has been styled that of Candahar from a central province. The successor of Timur was Zemaun, who probably still rules this extensive country, which has happily been free from the intestine commotions which have desolated western Persia. Since the great battle of Panniput, fought by Ahmed Abdalla against the Marattas 1761, the kingdom of Candahar seems to have remained in a pacific state, and the government is of applauded lenity.

EASTERN
PERSIA.

The furthest extent of this monarchy on the east comprises Cashmir, which was probably subdued about 1754.* In the west, according to the opinion of Rennell,† it extends to the vicinity of the city of Terzhiz, or Turshiz, in the same line of longitude with Meshid, a length of about 900 B. miles. The province of Sindi, at the mouth of the Indus, is also subject to Zemaun, with the western part of Moultan; but the remainder on the east bank of that river, and the wide and fertile province of Lahore, are possessed by the Seiks, a warlike nation. The other provinces are Kuttore, Cabul, Candahar, and within the Persian boundary Segistan, and probably Mekran, with the eastern part of Corasan, and the province of Gaur, the medial breadth being probably about 500 miles. The remainder of Balk and Great Bucharia belong to Independent Tatory. The chief subjects of Zemaun are the Afgans, or people of the mountains between Persia and Hindostan, who may be considered as the founders of the empire; the others are Hindoos, Persians, and a few Tatars. If western Persia continue united, it is probable that a violent contest may arise between the two sovereignties.

† Forster, ii. 14.

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CHAPTER II.

POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY.

Religion. — Government. — Population. — Army. — Navy. — Revenues. — Political Importance and Relations.

THE religion of Persia is well known to be the Mahometan, which RELIGION. was introduced by the sword, and has been followed by its usual effects, the destruction and depopulation of the country. Yet the Persians adopt a milder system of this creed than is followed by the Turks and Arabs. Their native good sense, and benignity of manners, led them to reject several absurdities, whence they are regarded by the other Mahometans as heretics, and are termed *Chias*, while the pretended true believers usurp the name of *Sunnis*. Chardin has employed a whole volume in describing the Persian system of Mahometanism; and to his work the curious reader is referred.*

Of the Parsees, or ancient worshippers of fire, there seem to be no remains in Persia, except perhaps a few visitors of the fiery eruptions of naphtha near Baku, on the western shores of the Caspian. These innocent idolaters have been almost extirpated by Mahometan fanaticism, which has propagated every scandal that malice could invent, representing them as devourers of children, and familiar with other atrocities. Mr. Hanway informs us that these Guebers, or infidels, particularly worship the everlasting fire near Baku, an emblem of Ormuzd, or the supreme ineffable Creator; while the civil principle believed to have

* Tome vii. Edit. 1711, 12mo, 10 vol. This edition is inconvenient in size, as the plates are more fit for a folio; and it is besides not so complete as the last quarto edition in four volumes, Amst. 1735.

† Gmelin in the *Decouvertes Russes*. Berne 1779, six vols. 8vo, tome ii. 19.

RELIGION. sprung from matter was styled Ahriman.² But the chief worshippers of the fire of Baku come from Hindostan, to which the Parsees retreated when Abas expelled them from his empire; and they still abound near Bombay, where their singular mode of sepulture excites attention, as they expose their dead in inclosed areas to be devoured by birds of prey, a custom which has been propagated to some other oriental nations. Mr. Hanway says that there were still some worshippers of fire at a place thence styled Gueberabad, near Ispahan.

The priests of the Mahometan religion, or Mullas, are in Persia often styled *Akonds*, which signifies readers; and they not only preach in the mosks, but are often schoolmasters.³ The Pechnamas are superior Mullas, or Vicars of the Imams.* The Fakirs and Calenders are wandering monks, or rather sturdy beggars; who, under the pretext of religion, compel the people to maintain them in idleness. But they do not appear in such crowds as the Goseins and Fakirs of Hindostan, upon their solemn pilgrimages to the chief temples, and other sacred places.

Government. The Government of Persia, like that of all other oriental states, appears to have been always despotic; and national councils seem only to have been known among the barbarous nations of central Asia, and abandoned when their sovereigns had conquered the southern and civilized nations; as, finding no such forms established, they did not perceive any advantage in their introduction. The government of eastern Persia, or the kingdom of Candahar, is represented as mild; and it is to be hoped that of western Persia, when firmly established, will assume the same character. The state of the people seems to be deplorable, being subject to the arbitrary power and extortions of the numerous Khans or chiefs, an appellation introduced by the Tatars, the Persian being it is believed Mirza, which is now addressed to every gentleman. These Khans are sometimes governors of provinces, sometimes only possessors of small districts, and pretend to hereditary succession, though liable to be forfeited or put to death by the arbitrary

² Travels, i. 163.

³ Chardin, x. 79.

* The chief prelate is styled Sheik al Selluam, or head of the faith: also Sadar Cass, or High Priest; and sometimes Navab, or Vicar (of the Prophet). Saafon, 20.

mandate of the sovereign. The great Khans are sometimes styled GOVERN-
MENT. Beglerbegs, or lords of lords; and in time of war Serdars, or generals. Those who command cities are commonly styled Darogas or governors.*

The present state of the population of Persia cannot be justly estimated, Population. but it perhaps little exceeds that of Asiatic Turkey, which has been computed at ten millions. Of these perhaps six millions may belong to western Persia; while the other four contribute towards the population of the kingdom of Candahar.†

Though Mr. Franklin have supposed that the rival kings in western Army. Persia could not muster more than twenty thousand men each, yet the account of Pallas implies that Aga Mamet raised an army of seventy thousand. But supposing western Persia united, and somewhat reinstated in prosperity, it is not probable that the army could exceed 100,000 effective men, which may probably be the amount of that of Candahar.

From some particular precepts in the laws of Zoroaster, which it was Navy. impossible to observe at sea, the ancient Persians never were a maritime people, though they commanded an ample gulf with the mouths of the Euphrates and the Tigris. The king of kings ordered Phenician vessels to be used on maritime expeditions; and though the Arabian Chalifs of Bagdad opened an extensive commerce at Buffora, yet the Persians themselves seem in all ages to have been little addicted to traffic. The commerce on the Indian ocean, as well as on the Caspian sea, has been always chiefly conducted by the Armenians, a most industrious and respectable people. Chardin, himself an opulent merchant, affects to believe that commerce is highly honourable in the east; yet he confesses that the Mahometan religion is adverse to trade, from the interdiction of usury, and several precepts of more minute observance. Hence in Turkey the Christians and Jews are the chief merchants; and in Persia the Armenian Christians, and the Hindoos. Hence the commerce of this country, so advantageously situated, has always been in the hands of strangers; while the natives, with feudal pride, attend to their horses and the chace, and lead what is called the life of a gentleman, neither improving their own property nor the country in general. Scarcely one Persian vessel therefore has in any age navigated any sea;

* Chardin, vi. 41.

† iv. 265.

and

NAVY. and the very name of a warlike navy seems unknown: in which respect they are far inferior even to the Turks, whose establishment in Europe has insensibly introduced many practices of the unbelievers.*

Revenues. The actual revenues of Persia it is impossible to estimate; but the ruinous state of the country must render it unproductive. The Turkish revenue has been computed at seven millions sterling; and it may perhaps be conjectured with some shew of probability that the monarch of Candahar may draw from his various and extensive provinces about three millions sterling; while western Persia scarcely supplies two millions. Chardin^o says that the ancient revenue consisted partly in contributions in kind; Kurdistan, for instance, furnishing butter, while Georgia supplied female slaves; partly from the royal domains, with a third of metals, precious stones, and pearls; and a few duties and taxes. The whole revenue was by some estimated at 700,000 toman,† or about thirty-two millions of French livres.

Political Importance and Relations.

The political importance and relations of Persia are now greatly restricted. Were the western part united under one sovereign, it might lend effectual assistance to the Russians in any design against the Turks, and might probably be rewarded with the countries as far as the Euphrates. But in its recent distracted state, Persia has been little formidable even to the declining power of Turkey; and the Russians seem to entertain no desire of extending their conquests over the mountainous Caspian provinces, which Peter the Great once held and abandoned, as they would require more garrisons than the revenue could pay. So that Persia seems secure on the side of Russia, as well as on that of Turkey, and Arabia; this unhappy security being in fact one grand cause of the civil anarchy.

Eastern Persia, or the kingdom of Candahar, appears to have little to apprehend from the Seiks on the other side of the Indus; and the Uzbek Khans of Balk, Bucharia, and Kharism, are disunited and little

* The missionary Sanfon, *Voyage de Perse*, Paris, 1695. page 108, tells us that the Persians so much abhor navigation that they term all seamen *Nacoda*, that is to say, Atheists.

^o vi. 133.

† The toman is computed at about 3l. 7s. being rather more than equal to two gold mohurs, a gold coin of Hindostan, worth about thirty-two shillings. Chardin computes the toman at forty-five livres of his time.

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formidable, though they command a warlike people. It is therefore more probable that these countries may be vanquished by the kings of Candahar, than that any danger should arise from the Uzbeks. A contest may probably happen between eastern and western Persia; but even if united under one sovereign, it would be long before this country could resume her rank among powerful nations. The only interfering interests of the king of Candahar, and the British settlements in Hindostan, seem to authorise the idea that an alliance would be advantageous to both, in respect to any danger from the native powers; but if Candahar were assailed from the north or west, the British assistance would be remote, and of doubtful consequence. Were Candahar inimical, the assistance of the Uzbeks might be of more importance to us than that of Western Persia.

POLITICAL
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CHAPTER III.

CIVIL GEOGRAPHY.

Manners and Customs.—Language.—Literature.—Education.—Cities.—Manufactures and Commerce.

MANNERS
AND
CUSTOMS.

THE manners and customs of the Persians, in the seventeenth century, have been so amply detailed by Chardin, Thevenot, Sanfon, and other travellers, that the theme has become trivial, and full of unnecessary repetition. One of the most curious pictures is contained in a French work called *Les Beautés de la Perse*, in which the private life and debaucheries of the reigning Sefi are described.¹

More modern ideas of Persian manners may be derived from the travels of Gmelin in Ghilan.* The Persians still pride themselves in universal politeness, and are hospitable, not however without the expectation of presents in return. They seem to consider themselves as more wise and sagacious than other nations, yet are passionate; and the recent commotions have imparted a taint of cruelty to the national character.² Of a sanguine temperament, both rich and poor are generally gay; and immoderate mirth will succeed the most violent quarrels. They are extremely attached to the fair sex, and not averse to wine. The general complexion is fair, somewhat tinged with olive; but those in the south about Shiraz, of Candahar, and the provinces toward India, are of a dark brown. They are commonly fat, with black hair, high forehead, aquiline nose, full cheeks, and a large chin, the form of the countenance being frequently oval. According

¹ By Deslandes, Paris, 1673, 4to. page 38.

* *Histoire des Découvertes faites par divers savans Voyageurs dans plusieurs contrées de la Russie et de la Perse.* Six vols. 8vo. Berne 1779—1787. By a singular typographical negligence the running title of tomes iii. iv. of this interesting publication bear *Voyage en Perse*, while that title should cease at page 93 of tome iii: the remainder of that, and the next volume, relating solely to the southern parts of Russia, and the N. of the Caspian, the Kalmucs, Bashkirs, and Uralian mountains! This is perhaps one of the strangest errors in the whole circle of bibliography.

² *Decouv. Russ.* ii. 276.

to our traveller a Persian beauty is most esteemed when of middle stature, with long black hair, black eyes and eye brows, long eye lashes, fair complexion, with very little red, small nose, mouth, and chin, white teeth, long neck, breast not full, small feet and hands, slender shape, and skin extremely smooth. In the purchase of Georgian and Circassian slaves it is probable that these marks are as familiar as those of a beautiful horse among our jockies. The men are generally strong and robust, and inclined to martial exercises, but they are particularly subject to disorders of the eyes. They generally shave the head, and wear high crimson bonnets; but the beard is sacred, and tended with great care. They often wear three or four light dresses, one above the other, fastened with a belt and sash; and they are fond of large cloaks of thick cloth. The women wrap around their heads pieces of silk of different colours; and their robes are rather shorter than those of the men, but there is an unpleasant similarity in other respects. The Persians eat twice or thrice a day, dining about noon, but the chief repast is the supper, as with the ancient Greeks and Romans. The most usual dish is boiled rice variously prepared; and their manner of eating is disgusting to European delicacy. The meat is boiled to excess, and the meal is enlarged with pot herbs; roots, and fruits, cakes, hard eggs, and above all sweetmeats, of which they are extremely fond: but they speak little, and their repast never exceeds an hour. They are remarkable for cleanliness, both in their persons and habitations; and the vulgar are given to insult strangers, whom they consider as impure.

Circumcision is performed by a surgeon, sometimes within ten days after the birth, and at others ten years; but that of girls is unknown, and confined to the Arabs. Marriages are conducted by female mediation; and the pomp and ceremonies somewhat resemble the Russian. Polygamy is allowed; but the first married is the chief wife. Burials are conducted with little splendour, and the day of death is commonly that of sepulture. Yet the tombs of the rich are often grand, as are the Cenotaphs of the twelve Imams, or Vicars of the Prophet, regarded by the Chias as his only lawful successors. They believe that a particular

MANNERS
AND
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Language.

angel is the sole author of death, by the special command of God : hence suicide is very rare, and duels absolutely unknown.

The language of Persia is perhaps the most celebrated of all the oriental tongues, for strength, beauty, and melody. While the Turkish is harsh and meagre, being essentially the same with that of the Turcomans of Zagathay, or Bucharia (a dialect of the Tataric mingled with Scythian, or Gothic terms), the Arabic is, on the contrary, esteemed one of the most opulent : but the numerous synonymes are often mere epithets, as man-destroyer for sword, &c. in which respect the poetical rules of the Edda shew that the Icelandic vied with the Arabic. The latter is however a harsh and guttural speech ; whence the Persian is preferred in poetry and elegant composition. The excellent work of Sir William Jones on oriental poetry discloses part of the treasures to be found in this language. In general the Persian literature approaches nearer to the European, in solid good sense, and clearness of thought and expression, than that of any other Asiatic nation ; as the language itself has been long known to bear a strong affinity to the German, though softened by the long usage of a polished people. Yet even in the Persian the metaphors are far too frequent and violent ; and there is too much alloy to bear the classical touchstone of Greece or Rome.

Literature.

The more ancient monuments of Persian literature unhappily perished when the Mahometan fanatics conquered the country in the seventh century, though perhaps Bucharia or Tibet might, if diligently explored, still supply some relics. One of the oldest remains is the famous Shah Nama, or history of kings, a long heroic poem of Ferdusi. Sadi, an excellent and entertaining moralist, writes in prose mingled with verse, like several of the Icelandic Sagas, not to mention some early Grecian and Roman models ; and it is to be regretted that more of his works are not translated.

Hafiz is the Anacreon of the east, and his tomb is venerated in the vicinity of Shiraz, being itself the chosen shrine of parties of pleasure, who proceed thither to enjoy the delicious situation, and offer libations of the rich Shirazian wine to the memory of their favourite bard, a splendid copy of whose works is chained to his monument. But the

sciences

sciences in general are little cultivated by the Persians, who are lost in
 abject superstition, and fond believers in astrology, a proud sophistry
 which connects the little brief destiny of man with the vast rotation of
 innumerable suns and worlds.

LITERA-
TURE.

The education of the modern Persians is chiefly military; and their
 gross flatteries, and obliquity of expression, evince that they have to-
 tally forgotten the noble system of their ancestors, who in the first place
 taught their children to speak truth. This simple precept, when duly
 considered, will be found to lead to infinite consequences, as there is
 not only a strict connection between truth of expression, and morality
 of conduct; but falsehood virtually lessens the mental powers, and
 necessarily produces misconception, thus impairing the judgment, and
 contaminating the very source of pure morality.

Education.

The capital city of modern Persia is Ispahan, of which an ample de-
 scription has been given by Chardin, so prolix indeed as to fill a com-
 plete volume of his travels.¹ Including the suburbs he computes its
 circuit at about twenty-four miles, and the inhabitants, by the smallest
 computation, at 600,000, the supposed number in modern London.
 It stands on the small river Zenderud, which rises in the mountains of
 Yaiabat, three days journey towards the north; but Abas the Great, at
 a prodigious expence, pierced some mountains about thirty leagues
 from Ispahan, and introduced another stream, so that the Zenderud was
 as large during the spring as the Seine at Paris in the winter; for in
 that season the melting of the snows, in the high range of mountains,
 greatly swelled the river. Chardin does not inform us in what direction
 these mountains lye, and his whole account is sufficiently confused;
 nor must it be concealed that this honest merchant is singularly deficient
 in natural geography and history. He adds, that the walls of Ispahan
 were of earth, and ill repaired, with eight gates which could not be
 shut, and the streets narrow, devious, and badly paved. But the royal
 square, and its grand market, the palace of the Sefi, and those of the
 Grandees, the mosks, the public baths, and other edifices, were often
 splendid. The suburb of Julfa, or Yulfa, was very large, and possessed
 by the Armenians, whose cemetery was near the mountains of Ispahan,

Cities.
Ispahan.¹ Tome viii.

CITIES.

called Kou Sofa, or a mountain in the form of a terrace, and also Tag Rustan, the hill or throne of Rustan. This capital does not appear to be in the site of any ancient city, though D'Anville insinuate that it is the Aspadana of Ptolemy, which he places in Persis, and the position somewhat coincides; but the radical fault of D'Anville's ancient geography is his implicit trust in the resemblance of names, and his inattention to the revolutions of modern history, and the epochs of the foundation of modern cities; as for instance, he finds Bergen in Norway, built A. D. 1070, in Pliny's natural history. The environs of Ispahan are pleasant, and, like most other Persian towns and cities, diversified by the neighbourhood of mountains. This capital was greatly reduced, inasmuch that a Persian merchant asserted to Mr. Hanway that not above five thousand houses were inhabited, having been taken and plundered by the Afgans in 1722, who were afterwards repelled to their eastern mountains by Nadir.

Shiraz.

The second city, at least in fame, is Shiraz, which has been recently visited and described by Mr. Franklin. This capital of Farsistan, or Persis, is situated in a fertile valley, about twenty-six miles in length, and twelve in breadth, bounded on all sides by lofty mountains: the circuit of the city is about four miles, surrounded with a wall twenty-five feet high, and ten thick, with round towers at the distance of eighty paces. The citadel is built of brick; and before it is a great square, with a park of miserable artillery. The mosk of the late Kerim is splendid but unfinished; and the modern Persians seem to excel in painting blue and gold in a bright and durable manner. The tomb of Hafiz is on the N. E. side, about two miles distant from the walls, and at the foot of the mountains, in the same direction, is the tomb of Sadi, with a remarkable channel for water hollowed in the rock. Many summer houses with gardens, in the vicinity of Shiraz, were built by the late regent Kerim, the plantations being avenues of cypress and sycamore, leading to parterres of flowers, and refreshed with fountains of stone. The police of this city is strictly observed, as it is said to be through the towns of Persia. The neighbouring fields are fertile in rice, wheat, and barley, the harvest beginning in May, and ending in

in the middle of July. Provisions are cheap, and the mutton excellent. CITIES.
 The famous horses of Fars now yield greatly to those of Dush Tistan, a province to the S. W. At Shiraz there is a glass manufactory; but woollen goods and silks are brought from Yezd and Kerman, copper from Tauriz, sword blades from Kom. Abu Shehar, or Busheer, supplies Indian articles. The climate of this celebrated city is delicious, particularly in the spring, when numerous flowers perfume the air; and the Boolbul, or oriental nightingale, the goldfinch, linnet, and other warblers, delight the ear.*

Having thus briefly described the two most celebrated cities, the others shall be mentioned in a geographical progress from the north, beginning with those of western Persia. Tefliz, the capital of Georgia, has been described and delineated by Tournefort, who says that it is a large and populous town, but meanly built, rising from the river Kur along the side of a hill.⁵ There are fine springs of hot water, a favourite resort of the inhabitants. The chief trade is in furs, sent to Turkey and the south of Persia. The present circuit is about two English miles, and it is supposed to contain 20,000 inhabitants, more than half being Armenians.⁶ It must not be forgotten that during the late confusion in Persia, Georgia has effected at least a temporary independence, supported by Russia; so that the dominion of prince Heraclius is only nominally included within the Persian boundary. Tefliz.

Derbent was formerly a place of noted strength on the Caspian sea, Derbent. but was taken by Peter the Great of Russia, and afterwards by Catherine II. in 1780. Gmelin visited this city a few years before, and describes it as situated on the side of a mountain, extending almost to the sea, where to the west an ancient wall with towers appears to have passed to the Euxine. It was governed by a Persian khan, and in his absence by a naip, or lieutenant-governor. The shores are unfit for anchorage, so that there is little commerce, except inland with Ghilan, to which saffron, which was greatly cultivated, was exported. The gardens near the town are productive of excellent grapes, and most kinds of European fruits. In the same region, to the south, is the province

* Franklin, *passim*.⁵ ii. 235.⁶ Ellis, *Memoir*, p. 49.

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of Shirvan, with the towns of Shamaki and Baku. Kuva is a small town to the S. of Derbent, but was the residence of a khan.

Erivan.

Westward, on the Turkish frontier, stands the city of Erivan, of considerable extent, and the capital of Persian Armenia, but the houses are meanly built, like most of those in Persia.* The castle and other fortifications are mean, and incapable of serious defence. Provisions are plentiful, and good wine is produced in the neighbourhood. After repeated contests with the Turks, the Persians have remained masters of Erivan since 1635. Not far to the S. W. is the celebrated Armenian monastery of the Three Churches: and the noted mount Ararat, which may be regarded as a kind of frontier between the Turkish and Persian dominions, rises about thirty miles to the south of Erivan.

Tebriz.

The province of Aderbijan contains few places of note except Tebriz, or Tauriz, a considerable city, which was however greatly injured by an earthquake towards the beginning of the last century. The bazars or market places, and other public edifices, are grand and spacious; and it is said that the great square has held thirty thousand men drawn up in order of battle. Chardin computes the inhabitants at half a million; but in that age such calculations were generally exaggerated.† In the neighbourhood there are quarries of white marble; and there was a mine of gold, now abandoned; but copper is still wrought. Being situated on the west side of the great Caucasian mass of mountains, on which the snow remains for nine months of the year, the climate is extremely cold, but dry and healthy. Ardebil and Urmia, in the same province, are little memorable, except that the latter gives name to a considerable lake.

Rasht.

The Caspian provinces of Ghilan and Mazendran present their capitals, Rasht and Sari. The former by Mr. Gmelin's account, though the residence of an independent khan, has neither walls nor gates, but is the seat of considerable commerce, and the number of houses may amount to two thousand. The palace of the khan was composed of

* Tournesfort, ii. 255.

† Chardin, ii. 317. who considers Tauriz as the second city in Persia in population, and all other respects. Till the sixteenth century it was the capital and residence of the kings, afterwards transferred to Casbin.

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several large pavilions, arranged in the form of a square, and communicating with each other by handsome galleries. In the midst was a garden with fountains, and behind was the haram with another garden; the apartments being richly furnished with tapestry, mirrors, and other elegant articles. Rasht is the staple of the silk which is produced in great abundance in this province. Sari, the residence of the khans of Mazendran, is of small account, when compared with Afschraff, a favourite residence of Abas the Great, described in glowing colours by Gmelin, who, however, adds that it had recently fallen into great decay; the splendid palaces and gardens having almost become ruinous, since the commotions that followed the death of Nadir. Astrabad, at the S. E. extremity of the Caspian sea, has for a long time affected independence, though the people have suffered greatly in the attempts to reduce them. The situation is picturesque, near a considerable bay, with a chain of mountains behind.* The cities of Corasan may more connectedly be mentioned with those in the eastern division of Persia.

On returning towards the S. W., there appear Bistam, a small city on the north of the great salt desert, rarely visited by travellers; and to the W., Chover or Khavar, with a pass of the same name, through a branch of the Caucasian mountains of Mazendran, which is preferred to the passage through the desert.

Still proceeding westward, three considerable cities successively occur, Tahiran, Casbin, and Sultania. Chardin describes Casbin as a very considerable city; but in Hanway's time it had greatly declined, and twelve thousand houses were reduced to eleven hundred. It is situated in a fair plain, about three leagues from the noted mountains of Aluwend, or Elwend. In the sixteenth century Shah Tahmas, unable to defend Tauriz against the Turks, retired to Casbin, which he constituted the capital city of his empire; a dignity transferred by Abas the Great to Isfahan.

Hamadan is another considerable city in this quarter, situated, according to Hanway's account, on the N. W. of the mountain Elwend, while D'Anville places it S. E.^o Kom or Khums was visited by Chardin, who in travelling from Sava passed a wide plain, with a hill in

* Hanway, ii. 422. Dec. Russ. iii. 33.

^o Thevenot, ii. 72. Hanway, i. 163.

the

CITIES.

the middle called the mountain of the Talifinan, from some singular appearance which it assumes. He represents Kom as a considerable city, at the foot of high mountains, and near a considerable river, which is lost in the great salt desert. The houses were computed at fifteen thousand; and the chief manufactures were white earthen ware, soap, and sword blades. Here are the superb tombs of Sesi I. and Abas II. Cashan is another considerable city on this route to Ispahan.

Towards the Turkish frontier, one of the largest rivers of Persia, the Ahwaz, or ancient Choaspes, flows into the Tigris; but though the ancient Susa decorated its banks, the modern towns of Kiab and Ahwaz are of small account; nor is Tostar, or more properly Shuster, of much consequence, though the capital of a province.

Lar.

In the proximity of the Persian gulf, Kazerun, Firuzabad, and Jarun, or in the oriental pronunciation Yarun, barely deserve mention. Lar is the capital of a province, formerly a kingdom, conquered by Abas in 1612, and described by Chardin in his journey from Ispahan to Bander-Abassi. "The situation is sandy, amidst barren mountains; but the gardens abounded with dates, an excellent fruit, which particularly prospers in this part of Persia. The houses were only about two hundred; and the independence of this petty kingdom is a striking proof, among many others, of the complete inattention of the Persians to their coasts, as well as to maritime affairs. Were a Peter the Great ever to arise among them, he would first direct his efforts to remove their singular prejudices against the sea; an important step towards rendering Persia a great and united empire.

Gombroon.

The celebrated Persian gulf has been always more remarkable for the factories of foreigners, than for native establishments. Bander-Abassi was a port opposite to the isle of Ormus, or rather on the coast between Ormus and Kishmish, or Kishma, and is now more commonly known by the name of Gombroon. The trade, once considerable, is now greatly declined; and even the Dutch left it, and settled in the isle of Karek or Garak. The French Indian commerce has failed; and the English staple is Bassora. But Busheer, and Rik, or Bundarik, are also sometimes frequented.

" ix. 214.

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In the small isle of Ormus, at the entrance of the Persian gulf, was formerly a celebrated mart of Portuguese trade, established there by consent of the petty king of the country, who also possessed some districts on the opposite coast *. But the Portuguese were expelled by Abas the Great, with the assistance of the English, A. D. 1622.

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ORMUS.

The extensive coast of Mekran only presents two semblances of ports, at Tiz and Guadal, but of no moment in themselves, and placed in disadvantageous positions, the wide deserts obstructing the inland intercourse. Nor are the towns in that province of sufficient importance for the consideration of general geography.

The province of Kerman contains a city of the same name; but some late authors represent Yezd as the capital, though generally supposed to belong to the Province of Fars. This city is celebrated for the manufacture of carpets, and stuffs made of camel hair: but the chief manufactures of carpets are in the fertile vale of Segistan, in eastern Persia. To the north of Yezd stands Hirabad, a considerable town, near the mountain of Elburz, and not far from the southern limits of the great salt desert; which if not the desert of Margiana, placed by Ptolemy on the N. W. of the Aria-Palus or sea of Zurra, seems to have been unknown to the ancients. The other cities of western Persia scarcely deserve commemoration.

YEZD.

In passing to the eastern division, or kingdom of Candahar, it may be proper to observe that Cabul, the metropolis, is situated within the limits of Hindostan; but Candahar † is by D'Anville and others ascribed to Persia, being however a city of small size, and chiefly memorable as the grand passage between these extensive empires. The province of Segistan is in general little known in modern travels; and it is to be regretted that Mr. Forster passed with such rapidity, and did not visit the vale fertilized by the river Hinmend, nor the interesting environs of the

EASTERN
CITIES.

CANDAHAR.

* The curious reader may consult Teisheira's history of Persia for that of Ormus, written by Torun Shah, king of the country. The kings were Arabs, as were probably those of Lar, and entertained constant intercourse with the opposite coast of Arabia.

† Mr. Forster, ii. 102., informs us that Candahar is of a square form, about three miles in circumference, situated in an extensive plain, the supposed mountains being merely interspersed hills. But to the W. there is a considerable desert, extending nearly to Herat, which constitutes the real difficulty in passing from Persia to Hindostan.

EASTERN
CITIES.

sea of Zurra. Zarang is supposed to equal any city in Segistan, retaining the ancient name of the Sarangæ: it is now chiefly remarkable for beautiful porcelain". The other chief towns on the Hinmend are Dargasp, Bost, and Rokhage or Arokhage. Near another stream which flows into the sea of Zurra, or rather Zerab, is Farra, another place little known. In general D'Anville and other writers have been obliged to have recourse to Arabian geographers; whence maps often present places which may no longer be in existence.

Herat.

The dominion of Zemaun Shah comprizes a considerable portion of Corasan. The city of Herat stands on a spacious plain, intersected with many rivulets, which, with the bridges, villages, and plantations, delight the traveller, fatigued in passing the eastern deserts of Afganistan, or the country of the Afgans". It is a smaller city than Candahar, but maintains a respectable trade, and provisions are cheap and abundant. Some European goods pass hither from the gulf of Persia; but coarse strong woollens are manufactured in the adjacent districts. This city was the capital of Corasan, till the first Sefi of Persia transferred this rank to the northern city of Meshid, which contained the tomb of Muza, his supposed ancestor, and one of the twelve great Imams of Persia*. When Mr. Forster visited this country, 1784, Meshid, with a small territory, was held by Shah Rok, a grandson of Nadir. The districts of Dochabad then formed the western boundary of the empire of Candahar, being about thirty or forty miles to the E. of Turshiz.

It is probable, as already mentioned, that the southern province of Mekran naturally coincides in allegiance, with Segistan and Sindi, to the empire of Candahar; but the northern limits have not been defined, though Major Rennell inform us that they include Gaur, a considerable city and province. Bamian belongs to the same portion of Bucharia, and is remarkable for a variety of singular antiquities, observable in the adjacent mountains. But for the sake of greater coherency, these places

" Chardin, iv. 243., who calls it Zorend, and erroneously places it in Kerman.

" Forster, ii. 115.

* Mr. Forster informs us, i. 32. that the road from Herat to Ghilan lies through the lesser Irak, which he distinguishes from Irakajemi; but, among many inaccuracies in his book, he confounds this last with Irakarabi! Meshid is supposed to be the same with Tuz, the birth-place of the celebrated Ferdusi.

shall be considered in the account of Independent Tatory, or the countries between Persia and the Chinese and Russian empires, which follows this imperfect description of Persia.

In the recent desolation of the country many of the most splendid edifices are become ruinous, and among others the palace of Ashref in Mazendran. The late Kerim has however decorated Shiraz with many beautiful buildings. He also improved the roads in the vicinity; but in Persia, which may, as Chardin observes, be called a country of mountains, the roads are not only difficult, but kept in bad repair*. The singular aversion of the natives to any kind of navigation, has prevented even the idea of improving the country by canals.

The manufactures and commerce of this great country may be said to be annihilated, though a few carpets still reach Europe at extravagant prices. Even the trade with the Russians on the Caspian is of small account, consisting of salt and naphtha from Baku, and some silk from Shirvan, called by the Russians Shamakia, but chiefly from Ghilan, where there is a Russian consul at Enseli or Sinsili. The Persian merchants also bring goods to Balfrush, the largest town in Mazendran, where they trade with those of Russia. Concerning the modern state and decline of Persian commerce, the travels of the late worthy Mr. Hanway, who was wholly occupied with that subject, will give satisfaction to the most inquisitive reader †.

That intelligent, but prolix traveller, Chardin, has given an ample view of the Persian manufactures and commerce in the seventeenth century. Embroidery was carried to the greatest perfection, on cloth, silk and leather. Earthen ware was made throughout Persia; but the best at Shiraz, Meshid, Yezd, and particularly beautiful at Zarang, which equalled the Chinese porcelain in fineness and transparency: some sorts resisted fire, and the fabric was so hard as to produce lasting mortars for grinding various substances". That of Yezd, which Chardin places in Kerman, was noted for its lightness. It is remarkable that Pliny says, that the

* The cause of Abas the Great is a noble monument, extending about 300 B. miles on the S. of the Caspian. Hanway, i. 199.

† The best edition is that of 1754, two vols. 4to. In the pretended one, 1752, the title page only is new.

" iv. 243.

MANUFACTURES AND
COMMERCE.

fanous Murrhine vessels of the ancients were brought from this identic province of Carmania¹¹; and were probably porcelain, if some singular mineral be not yet concealed in that country. The manufactures of leather, and shagreen, were also excellent*; and they excelled in brazery, using the tin of Sumatra to line the vessels. The bows of Persia were the most esteemed of all in the east, and the sabres finely damasked, in a manner which Chardin thinks inimitable in Europe; for, not content with their own mines of steel, or carbonated iron ore, they imported it from India, and wrought it in a particular manner described by our author. Their razors, and other works in steel, were also laudable; and they excelled in cutting precious stones, and dying bright and lasting colours: the glass manufactures were of an inferior description. Their cotton and woollen cloths, and those made of goats' and camels' hair, with their silks, brocades, and velvets, were superior manufactures. The carpets, as already mentioned, were chiefly from the province of Segistan; and Chardin adds, that in his time they were called Turkey carpets, because they were brought to Europe through that country; and were valued by the number of threads in the inch, being sometimes fourteen or fifteen. The stuffs made of camels' hair were chiefly from Kerman, and those of goats' hair from the mountains of Mazendran; but the cotton cloths principally from Hindostan: and the fabric of broad cloth was unknown, and supplied by a kind of felt.

The king himself was engaged in merchandize of silk, brocades, carpets, and jewels; probably with as little advantage to the country as the royal monopolies in Spain. The standard native merchandize was silk of various qualities. To Hindostan were sent tobacco, preserved fruits, especially dates, wines, horses, porcelain, and leather of different colours. To Turkey, tobacco, kitchen utensils; to Russia, manufactured silks. Such were formerly the manufactures and commerce of this extensive country.

¹¹ Lib. 37. cap. 2.

* The proper term is *sagrin*, from the Persian word *sagri*. Chard. iv. 246.

CHAPTER IV.

NATURAL GEOGRAPHY.

Climate. — Face of the Country. — Soil and Agriculture. — Rivers. — Lakes. — Mountains. — Deserts. — Forests. — Botany. — Zoology. — Mineralogy. — Mineral Waters. — Natural Curiosities. — Isles.

PERSIA has been said to be a country of three climates; but even CLIMATE.
 in the south the high mountains contribute to allay the extreme heat. The northern provinces, on the Caspian, are comparatively cold and moist; the exhalations from that sea being arrested by the mountains to the south of Mazendran. In the centre of the kingdom Chardin observes that the winter begins in November, and continues till March, commonly severe, with ice and snow; though the latter chiefly falls on the mountains, and remains on those three days' journey to the W. of Ispahan for eight months of the year'. From March to May high winds are frequent; but thence to September the air is serene, refreshed by breezes in the night. From September to November the winds again prevail. In the centre and south the air is generally dry, whence thunder or lightning are uncommon, and a rainbow is seldom seen. Earthquakes are almost unknown; but hail is often destructive in the spring. Near the Persian gulf the hot wind called Samiel sometimes suffocates the unwary traveller.

According to Chardin, Persia may be called a country of mountains; Face of the country.
 and where great plains occur they are generally desert. The most remarkable feature of the country is the want of rivers; in which respect it yields to all the Asiatic regions, save Arabia. Except in the north, and some parts of the western mountains, even trees are uncommon; and the respect paid by the Persian monarchs to planes, and other trees of diffuse shade, is no matter of surprize. Considered in a general scale,

FACE OF THE COUNTRY. one of the most singular features of the country is its division into two parts by deserts and mountains; a circumstance which in all ages, as already explained, has greatly influenced its history and destinies.

Soil and Agriculture.

The soil may be regarded as unfertile, and Chardin supposes that not above one tenth part was cultivated even in his time. To his lax observation, that Persia is the most mountainous country in the world, he adds that the mountains are extremely arid, being mostly rocks, without wood or plants. They are, however, interspersed with vallies, sometimes sandy and stony, sometimes of a hard dry clay; both unproductive, if not well watered. Hence the chief industry of the Persian farmer is employed in watering his lands. These remarks however must be restricted to the central and southern provinces; for those in the north are sufficiently rich and fertile, and it is said that the province of Segistan is enriched by the inundations of the river Hinmend: but of this part of Persia our knowledge remains imperfect.

The most common grain of Persia is wheat, which is excellent; but rice is a more universal aliment, and regarded by the Persians as the most delicious of food². It is generally produced in the northern, or best watered, provinces. Barley and millet are also sown, but oats little, if at all, cultivated. The Armenians sow some rye. The plough is small, and the ground merely scratched: it is drawn by lean oxen, for there are no pastures to fatten cattle, and the harness is attached to the breast, while the chief strength of the animal is in the head. After the plough and harrow, the spade is also used to form the ground into squares, with ledges or little banks to retain the water. The dung is chiefly human, and that of pigeons mingled with earth, and preserved for two years to abate its heat. In the N. W. countries the vines are interred during the winter; and when insects attack the tree, they lay fresh earth to the roots.

Rivers.

The noble streams of the Euphrates and the Tigris can scarcely at any period be considered as strictly Persian, though Ctesiphon, the capital of the Parthian monarchy, and Seleucia, stood on the latter river. The river of Ahwaz rises in the mountains of Elwend, and pursues a southern course till one branch enter the Tigris above its junction with the Eu-

² Chardin, iv. 222.

phrates,

phrates, while the main stream flows into the estuary of these conjunct RIVERS. rivers. This seems to be the Gyndes of Herodotus, now, according to D'Anville, called the Zeindeh, and by the Turks Kara Sou, or the black river*. The course of this stream, one of the most considerable in Persia, little exceeds 400 B. miles.

From the range of mountains on the N. E., several rivers of short course fall into the Persian gulf, one of the most considerable being the Rud or Divrud, which joins the mouth of that gulf. The rivers of Mekran are of more considerable course, as the Krenk and Mekshid, which, conjoined, form the river of Mend, so called from a town by which it passes. The Haur and the Araba are of small consequence, except that the latter serves as a nominal boundary towards Hindostan.

In the N. E. the large river of Gihon, better styled Amu, to avoid Amu. the confused similarity with another large river, the Sihon, rather belongs to Independent Tatory, with its numerous tributary streams; except the Margus or Margab, called also the Mourgab, which however, in the opinion of D'Anville and La Rochette, is rather lost in the sands. To the W., the river of Tedjen or Tedyen †, the ancient Ochus, flows into the Caspian; which also receives many small streams from the mountains of Mazendran. D'Anville assigns a very considerable course to the river of Kizil Ozen, or Sefid Rud, which he derives from the mountain of Elwend, not far to the N. of Hamadan; so that, by a very winding course to the Caspian, its length doubles what is assigned in more recent maps. This river is the Mardus of antiquity, and must be the Swidura of Gmelin, rising on the confines of Turkey, and falling into the sea below Langorod ‡. It produces numerous pike, carp, and other kinds of fish, esteemed by the Persians: Gmelin says that it abounds in sturgeons.

* See his map of the Euphrates and the Tigris, 1779, in which the Choaspes is supposed to run by Deurak into the Persian gulf on the E. of the Shat el Arab; but Major Rennell, in his map of the Satrapies, considers the Gyndes of D'Anville as the Choaspes, and the Gyndes, as the river of Mendeli. The geography of Persia remains very imperfect.

† In the east, as in many European countries, the *J* is an open *I*, or a *Y*.

‡ *Decouvertes Russes*, ii. 373. See also *Hanway*, i. 179, and 275, where this river is called Sefetrood. There is a bar at the entrance, but a considerable depth within. It is of a reddish tinge. *Ib.* 178.

Further

RIVERS.
Aras.

Further to the N. the large river Aras, the ancient Araxes, falls into the Kur or Cyrus, both rising in the Caucasian mountains, and pursuing a course of extreme rapidity. The Kur abounds with sturgeon and other large fish; and at its mouth are several isles, liable to be overflowed in the spring¹.

Zenderud.

The central rivers of Persia remain to be mentioned, most of which are soon lost in sandy deserts, but deserve attention from their historical celebrity. The Zenderud rises in the western chain of Elwend, and passes by Ispahan, beyond which capital its course is soon lost in the sand: this river seems to have been the second Gyndes of the ancients. Chardin says that Abas the Great, by piercing some mountains thirty leagues from Ispahan, drew another stream into the Zenderud, called Mahmoud Ker, from a deep subterranean lake. These two sources of this river are not indicated in the maps. He adds that there are two rivers in the vicinity called Correng, which pass through Chaldea (he means Susiana), probably the Koh Asp of D'Anville* which passes by Shuster, which the Persian monarchs in vain attempted to introduce into this favourite stream.

Bundamir.

But the most important river in this quarter is that which passes between Shiraz and Istakar, or the celebrated ruins of Persepolis, called the Bundamir, and supposed to be an ancient Araxes. This celebrated river flows into a salt lake called Baktegan, and which also receives a considerable stream from the N. E. called the Kuren.†. Between these two rivers a branch of the mountains of Elwend extends S. E., on the western side of which stand the ruins of Persepolis. These mountains, called Rehumut, being considerable, and the plain of Merdasht extensive, it would seem that geographers have too much contracted the space between the rivers of Kuren and Bundamir.

¹ Gmelin, 236.

* See his Ancient Geography, ii. 485, English translation, where he adds that it springs from the Koh Zerdr, or Yellow Mountain, from whose opposite side issues the river of Ispahan; and p. 487, he supposes the Kuren to be the river which the Persian kings wished to turn into the Zenderud. All the inland rivers are unknown to Ptolemy.

† This river La Kocheit, in his elegant map of the marches of Alexander, supposes was the Medus, and perhaps a Mardus of the ancients.

The

The largest and most remarkable inland river is the Hinmend of the province of Segistan, which rises from two widely separated sources, one in the mountains of Gaur, a part of the Hindoo Koh, and the other far to the S. from the mountains of Gebelabad. These streams join not far to the E. of Bost, whence the river pursues a westerly course, and, according to the account of Otter,* very soon divides into many branches, which are lost in the central deserts of Persia. Our geographers, on the contrary, suppose that the Hinmend passes by Zarang into the sea of Zereh. It needs not be repeated that the geography of this part of Persia is still lamentably defective.

RIVERS.
Hinmend.

Among the lakes of Persia the most considerable beyond all comparison is the Aria Palus of antiquity. This large lake is in the western part of the province of Segistan, and is called in the French maps the lake of Zeré, from a village of that name near its western extremity; but in the English, the sea of Durra, from another village situated on a river at the distance of twenty miles from the lake.* These appellations, derived from trifling sources, might as well be supplanted by that of the sea of Segistan. According to Otter the length is thirty leagues, by a day's journey in breadth; and the water is fresh and full of fish. By his account it only receives the river of Ferah, or Parra, which comes from the N. E.; but perhaps that traveller decides upon a brief and hasty information, as not unusual. Ptolemy, who is here better informed than concerning western Persia, still errs widely in the position of this celebrated lake.

Lakes.
Aria Palus,
or Durra.

The salt lake of Baktegan, about fifty miles E. of Shiraz, receives, as already mentioned, the rivers of Kuren and Bundamir. It is represented in the maps as about forty B. miles in length, and the breadth about ten; but the imperfection of Persian geography affords no further information.†

Baktegan.

* Voyage en Turkie et en Perse. Paris, 1748, two vols. 12mo. tome i. 217.

• The name Zurra seems to be from the village of Corra, or Curra, at the west end of the lake.

† By Ebn Haukal, in the tenth century, it is called the lake of Baktegan. Ouseley's translation, p. 84. The same author, p. 206, says that the Hinmend rises in Gaur and proceeds to Bost, thence to the lake Zereh: not by Zarang, as appears from p. 203, but by Sebijan.

LAKES.
Urmia.

Far to the N. W. appears the large lake of Urmia, so called from a town near its southern extremity. This lake is represented as about fifty B. miles in length, by about half the breadth; and while D'Anville supposes that the lake Van, at no great distance, is the Arfissa of antiquity, he concludes that this is the Spauta of Strabo, and the Marcianes of Ptolemy, being the Capoton of Armenian geography. However this be, the lake of Urmia is said to be considerably impregnated with salt, and the neighbouring mountains were remarkable as the seats of the Assassins. The lake of Erivan, about 120 B. miles to the N., is about twenty-five leagues in circumference, with a small isle in the middle: it abounds in carp and trout; and is the Lychnites of Ptolemy.⁵

Erivan.

Mountains.

The precise and exact knowledge of mountains, particularly of the direction and extent of the chief ranges, which, with their side branches, often resemble the leading bone of a fish, having been one of the most recent improvements even in European geography, it cannot be expected that the Oriental should aspire to much exactness in this topic. Travellers have rarely attended to the great geographical features, but have chiefly confined their attention to buildings, and other exertions of human industry, or to botany and zoology. Hence the difficulty which attends many branches of geographical description, and in the present instance early travellers are unanimous in representing Persia as a plain country, so blind were they to the most striking objects around them.⁶

The first object, even in a short account of the Persian mountains, must be to trace the direction of the chief chains. It is clear, from the accurate description of Gmelin, that the Caucasian ridge extends to the west of Ghilan and south of Mazendran, till it expire in Corasan, on the S. E. of the Caspian sea. As this ridge was the Taurus of the ancients, which they supposed to extend throughout the whole length of Asia, it is evident that their idea was erroneous and hypothetical. If it had been connected, as they supposed, with Hindoo Koh and the mountains of Tibet, the theory might have been in some measure just;

⁵ Chardin, ii. 222. Tournef. ii. 256.

⁶ See the Persia among the Elzevir Republics, 1633, 12mo.

but the Hindoo Koh is an extension of the Belur Tag towards the W., and is separated even from the low mountains of Corasan by wide deserts and plains.

This northern ridge, described by Gmelin, is sufficiently clear;* as is the most southern chain of great height described by Mr. Franklin, running parallel with the Persian gulph N. W. and S. E. at about the distance of 50 B. miles.

A third range of mountains, of very great height, seems to continue in the same direction with this last, to the S. of the lake of Urmia, where it is connected with the Caucasian ridge. This is the grandest chain of mountains in Persia, and may, after the example of D'Anville, be styled that of Elwend, derived from a particular mountain in the neighbourhood of Hamadan; but the Elwend of that great geographer is, like his other mountains, delineated in a most confused manner; and he intercepts its course by a wide desert which really lies to the W. of the range.†

A parallel ridge on the W., called by the Turks Aiagha Tag, is supposed to be the Zagros of the ancients, which separated Assyria from Media.‡ This western chain seems to extend to the lake of Van, for mount Ararat is represented as standing solitary in the midst of a wide plain, and from proximity might rather be classed with the range of Caucasus.‡ The mountain of Sawalan, mentioned by Le Brun, to the S. of Ardebil, also belongs to the Caucasian mass.

Hetzardara, or the thousand mountains, form a branch on the north of Fars, and one part of it, which gives rise to the river of Isfahan, is

* Dec. Ruff. ii. 388. The French translator justly observes that Gmelin's account of their construction shews little skill in mineralogy. Near Derbent and Baku they are calcareous, but the central chain seems granitic. It forms a semicircle on the S. of the Caspian; and Hanway has observed, i. 110, that even at Astrabad the summits are so high as to hide the sun from a ship in the bay, for more than an hour after it has risen.

† Otter, i. 267, informs us that Looistan, a country between Tusser and Isfahan, is properly one mountain, six days' journey in length. It belongs to the main ridge of Elwend.

‡ D'Anville Anc. Geog. ii. 463.

‡ Among the mountains of Kurdistan the Kiave is the highest, the summit being covered with thick fog and perpetual snow (Otter, ii. 269). The same author says that the ridge of Hamrin begins in Arabia, and spreads through the desert of Bagdad, being pierced by the Euphrates and Tigris, and ending at the Persian gulph: it is a low range of a reddish colour. Ib. 43.

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called Koh Zerdeh, or the yellow mountain. Chardin^a considers the noted Damavend of the Persians as a range dividing Hyrcania from Parthia; that is in other words, the mountains of Mazendran: and he adds, that of the mountains betwixt Fars and Kermand the most remarkable is called Jaron; but the mountains of Kurdistan alone present forests. That ancient geographer Ebn Haukal, whose curious work is chiefly occupied with a description of Persia, according to its divisions in the tenth century, informs us, that from the vicinity of Kurdistan towards Ispahan, the country is wholly mountainous; and he classes among the chief heights the Damavend, from which he says a prospect is beheld of fifty farsangs, or 200 miles; while that of Bisetoun, in the same region, was celebrated for remarkable sculptures.* From his geography it appears that many of the Persians, even in Fars, still retained the temples and worship of their ancestors in the tenth century; so that the violence of the Mahometans after the conquest appears to have been greatly exaggerated.

The great western range is also called in some parts the mountains of Looristan; and more to the S. the Adervan, and Dinar, with Ajuduk N. of Lar. It detaches some remarkable branches to the S. E., as that on the W. of Kom, Cashan, Nathan, &c.; which from a particular mountain, may be called the range of Elburz. Another branch spreads to the S. of Ispahan, which D'Anville considers as what the Persians style the Thousand Mountains.* Still more to the S. a large and extensive branch (of which the whole, or one mountain is styled Rehumut) extends between the rivers Kuren and Bundamir; and presents on the western side of its furthest extremity the noted ruins of Persepolis.

On passing towards the E. of Persia, the just delineation of the ranges is attended with similar difficulties. The pass of Khavar is near the southernmost extent of the Caucasian heights of Mazendran; and there is no room to believe that any ridge extends into the great saline desert. D'Anville has drawn a range on the E. of that desert, extending on the

^a iv. 10.

^b P. 172. D'Anville marks Demavend due W. of Ispahan. His Karagan is S. of Sultania.

^c One of these, near Ispahan, is called Tag Rustan.

S. of Turshiz as far as the lake of Zeré, called in some maps the Sandy ^{MOUN-} mountains, and supposed to be the Maidoranus of the ancients; but ^{TAINS.} this seems an arbitrary idea, as it is improbable that ancient writers should have observed this low ridge of sandy hills, while the great desert itself totally escaped their knowledge. Mr. Forster crossed these pretended mountains without discovering them;* and found only small rocky hills scattered in all directions. This sandy ridge may therefore be dismissed from the maps, along with that supposed to pervade the saline desert; and the Mons Masdoranus is probably that which now passes near Metziroun, and seems to be an elongation of the Caucasian chain already mentioned.

In describing this country of mountains, to use the emphatical term of Chardin, some degree of prolixity is unavoidable. The province of Fars is represented by some writers as separated from Kerman by mountains; but the real barrier is a desert of sand, extending from the S. of the lake of Baktegan to the proximity of Zarang, and connected with the great desert which divides Persia into two parts. The city of Yezd being on the western side of this desert, more properly belongs to Fars than to Kerman; and was arranged in the former division, even in the tenth century.¹⁰ Nor are there any mountains of consequence in the east of Fars. A low range called Meder by D'Anville passes N. E. through the heart of Kerman; while that country is divided from Mekran by a range in the same direction, called by D'Anville Kofez. Some other nameless ranges cross Mekran in the same direction, that nearest Hindostan being called by Rochette the Lakhee mountains. On the N. of Mekran a considerable range runs E. and W. which has not been named by D'Anville,† though it seem the Becius of Ptolemy. But of this part, as before explained, modern knowledge is very defective.

* Mr. Forster observed no ridges from Candahar to Corasan, (Rennell, 153; see also 191.) whence it appears that he found only dispersed hills, where the maps had represented chains of mountains. Herat stands on a spacious plain; Forster, ii. 115; but to the N. of Dochabad and Turshiz, there is a range of mountains covered with snow. Ib. 154. The other quarters presented rocky hills dispersed in the desert. About three miles E. of Khanahoody, a chain of mountains of some height extends N. and S. Ib. 176.

¹⁰ Ebn Haukal, 86.

† Rochette calls it Gebelabad.

Further

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Further to the N. the mountains of Wulli extend from the neighbourhood of Shatzan across to the lake of Vaihind, and may thus be considered as forming one range with that on the N. of Mekran, called Gebelabad by la Rochette. This range however expires in the great desert to the S. of Zarang.

In the E. of Segistan is a ridge N. and S. called Soliman Koh, or the mountains of Soliman. It is probable that there are mountains of considerable height on the N. and W. of the sea of Zurra; one of which is called Berthek, and another Ouk, the former being noted for a Fire temple, the resort of the Guebers.

The Hindoo Koh, and the mountains of Gaur, the last probably the Paropamisus of antiquity, need not be again mentioned, except to observe that they have no connection with the chain of Caucasus, as the ancients supposed; or they were rather misled by similar names being bestowed on very distant mountains, in the wide extent of the Scythian language. They might as well have inferred that mount Imaus was a continuation of Hemus. As vast sandy deserts intercept any continuity of ridges in the centre, or south of Persia, so in the N. E., the mountains of Corasan are widely separated from those of Gaur; being, as already mentioned, a mere elongation of the mountains of Mazendran passing to the N. E. and terminating not far from Meshid, being well delineated by D'Anville under the names of Sahar Turuk, Lassi-Topan, and Mian Koh, none of which pass the river Tedjen, or Ochus. The river Morgab springs from the mountains of Gaur, which on the E. of Herat bend towards the N. forming the range called Lokman by D'Anville, which terminates to the S. of the greater Meru; and the desert of Karakum prevents the extension of mountainous ranges in this quarter.

This discussion sufficiently evinces the mistake of the ancient geographers who extended their supposed range of Taurus throughout Asia, instead of Asia Minor: and if we must violently include the Caucasus, whose grand summits are on the N. of the Euxine, under that appellation, it still terminates in Corasan. If, on the other hand, the Taurus be continued by a supposed chain to that of Elwend, it would terminate in the great central desert, or at the mouth of the Persian

Persian gulph. As the geographers of antiquity paid particular attention to the ranges of mountains, without which indeed the science itself becomes an empty name, and history, natural or civil, can never be properly explained or understood, an investigation of this curious topic will not, it is hoped, be deemed unnecessary. The marches of Alexander, and other classical topics, have also recommended the mountains of Persia to particular consideration; while some degree of prolixity unavoidably arises from the obscurity of the subject, and the imperfection of the materials.

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Nor must the deserts be passed in complete silence though few words may suffice. On the east of the Tigris, lat. 33° a considerable desert commences, which is pervaded by the river Ahwaz, and extends to the N. of Shuster, but D'Anville has spread it too far to the E. This desert may be about 140 B. miles in length E. to W. and the breadth about 80. In his map of ancient geography D'Anville has omitted this desert, which seems indeed unknown to classical authority. It is now chiefly possessed by the wandering tribe of Arabs called Beni Kiab, a people who, like the desert, are not a little obscure."

Deserts.

The Great Saline Desert extends from the neighbourhood of Kom to that of the sea of Zurra, in a line from E. to W. of about 400 B. miles: the breadth from N. to S. may be 250; but in the latter quarter it may be said to join with the great desert of Kerman by the Nauben Dejian, which extends about 350 miles. These two extensive deserts may thus be considered as stretching N. W. and S. E. for a space of about 700 miles, by a medial breadth of about 200, (even not including in the length other 200 miles of the desert of Mekran,) thus intersecting this wide empire into two nearly equal portions, as before explained. This vast extent is impregnated with nitre, and other salts, which taint the neighbouring lakes and rivers; but its natural history has not been investigated with the precision of modern knowledge. In the S. of Mekran and towards the Indus are other deserts of great extent.

A third great desert, that of Karakum, or the Black Sand, forms the northern boundary of Corasan and modern Persia; but the description

" See Niebuhr, but this tribe seems rather to the S. of the desert.

more.

DESERTS. more properly belongs to Tatory. The desert of Margiana is placed by Ptolemy on the N. W. of Aria; but it is not easy to explain his positions or reconcile them with modern geography. D'Anville supposes, with probability, that Margiana derived its name from the river Margus, or Morgab; in which case this desert may be in the neighbourhood of Badkis.

Forests. The Persian forests are unhappily restricted to a few spots in Corasan, the mountains of Mazendran and Ghilan, and those towards Kurdistan. But timber is chiefly supplied by Mazendran, which thence receives a name signifying the land of axes.

Botany. An accurate account of the indigenous vegetables of Persia yet remains a desideratum in the science of Botany: the productions of the eastern and south-eastern provinces are almost wholly unknown to us, and the slight acquaintance that we have with those on the shores of the Caspian, and the frontiers of Russia, is almost entirely derived from the short and imperfect notices that occur in the travels of Pallas and Gmelin in the neighbourhood of the Caspian.

A considerable portion of the Persian territory, especially on the side of great Tatory, appears to be occupied by salt deserts: these are for the most part destitute of trees, and support hardly any plants, except such of the saline succulent kind as are also found on the sea shore; of these the chief are known among botanists by the names of *salsola prostrata*, *atriplex portulacoides*, *plantago salsa*, and *statice Tatarica*.

Of the high mountains, as far as they have been examined, we are only informed in general that their vegetable inhabitants are for the most part the same as those observed on the Alps of Swisserland and Italy: and that a large proportion of these are of the cruciform, or tetradynamious order.

The plants of the hills and cultivated parts adjoining the Caspian sea are better known to us, and from the few whose names we are already in possession of, it is easy and reasonable to infer the presence of many more that are usually observed to accompany them. On the mountainous ridges are found the cypress, the cedar, and several other kinds of pines, while the lower hills and scars of rock are shaded and adorned with lime trees, oaks, acacias, and chestnuts: the sumach, whose
astringent

astringent wood is so essential to the arts of dying and tanning, grows here in vast abundance, and the *fraxinus ornus*, or Manna ash tree is scarcely less common. The most esteemed of the cultivated fruits of Europe are truly indigenous in Persia, and have probably hence been diffused over the whole west. These are the fig, the pomegranate, the mulberry, the almond, peach, and apricot. Orange trees also, of an enormous size, and apparently wild, are met with in the sheltered recesses of the mountains; and the deep warm sand on the shore of the Caspian is peculiarly favourable to the culture of the citron, and the liquorice. The vine grows here in great luxuriance, and further to the south both cotton and sugar are articles of common cultivation. Poplars of unusual size and beauty, and the weeping willow, border the course of the streams, and the marshy tracts abound with a peculiar kind of rush that forms the material of the fine Persian matting. The ornamental shrubs and herbaceous plants of this country are but little known, four of them however, from their abundance and beauty, give an air of elegance to the country, especially in the eyes of an European, superior to that of any other region; these are the jasmine, and the blue and scarlet anemone in the thickets, and the tulip, and ranunculus in the pastures.

According to Chardin the Persian horses are the most beautiful even in the east; but in speed they yield to the Arabian, which are less distinguished by elegance of form. The Persian steeds are rather taller than the saddle horses in England; the head small, the legs delicate, and the body well proportioned; of a mild disposition, very laborious, lively, and swift. Tatarian horses are also used, of lower stature, and not so well-formed as the Persian, but more capable of fatigue". Mules are also in considerable request; and the ass resembles the European, but a breed of this animal is brought from Arabia, which is excellent, the hair being smooth, the head high, while they move with spirit and agility. This valuable race might probably thrive in Europe as well as the other. The dung of horses, instead of being used for manure, is dried and employed as litter. The camel is also common, but not admitted into the province of Mazendran, where they eagerly

" Chardin, iv. 72.

ZOOLOGY. eat the leaves of box, though to them a rank poison. Camels are exported from Persia to Turkey, having, according to Chardin, only one hunch, while those of India and Arabia have two. The swiftest must be the dromedary of the ancients, as the name imports. The Persian cattle resemble the European, except towards Hindostan, where they are marked by the hunch on the shoulders. Swine are scarce, save in the N. W. provinces. Of the large tailed sheep that appendage sometimes weighs more than thirty pounds, enlarging at the bottom in the form of a heart. The flocks are most numerous in the northern provinces of Erivan, or the Persian part of Armenia, and Balk. The few forests contain abundance of deer and antelopes; while the mountains present wild goats, and probably the ibex, or rock goat. Hares are common in the numerous wastes. The ferocious animals are chiefly concealed in the forests, as the bear and boar, the lion in the western parts, with the leopard, and, according to some accounts, the small or common tiger. Seals occur on the rocks of the Caspian. Zimmerman mentions the ounce as known in Mazendran, and the wild afs in the central deserts. The hyena and chackal belong to the southern provinces. The seas abound with fish of various descriptions; the Caspian displays sturgeon, and some kindred species, with a fat and delicious kind of carp. The most common river fish seems the barbell; trouts are only found in Erivan. Chardin observes that pigeons are particularly numerous; and the partridges are the largest and most excellent he ever beheld. The boolbul, or oriental nightingale, enlivens the spring with his varied song.

The Persians have been long accustomed to tame beasts of prey, so as even to hunt with lions, tigers, leopards, panthers, and ounces^u. The hunter seems to run a risque of becoming the prey.

Mineralogy. The mineralogy of this extensive country seems neither various nor important, though the numerous mountains probably abound with unexplored treasures. Chardin assures us that there are no mines of gold nor silver; but one of the latter metals was attempted in a mountain called Shah-Koh, four leagues from Ispahan, and abandoned for want of fuel. The lead mines of Kerman and Yezd produce the usual mixture

^u Chardin, iv. 94.

of silver; from which circumstance the Silver mountains of D'Anville. MINERALOGY.
 In the northern provinces there are many mines of iron, but the metal is harsh and brittle. Mines of steel ore, or carbonated iron, are also wrought in the same regions, so impregnated with sulphur, that the filings when thrown on the fire flash like gunpowder. Copper is chiefly found in the mountains of Mazendran, and near Casbin, but is brittle; and commonly mingled by the melters with a twentieth part of the Japanese, or Swedish. Those defects in the metals probably arise from want of skill.

The only precious stone yet discovered seems to be the turkoise, which has indeed almost ceased to be regarded as such, being only bone or ivory tinged with copper. There are two mines of this substance, one at Nishapour in Corasan, and another about four days' journey to the S. of the Caspian, in the mountain called Feruzkoh. Pearls abound, as is well-known, in the Persian gulf, especially near the isles of Bahrin on the Arabian side. Some will weigh fifty grains; but those are esteemed large which weigh from ten to twelve grains. This valued product is by the Turks and Tatars called *Margion*, signifying a globe of light; from which, or the Persian name *Mervarid*, "the offspring of light," was derived *Marguerite*, the appellation in southern Europe. The Persian merchants prefer the emeralds of Egypt, which they call Zmerud Afvani, from the town of Afvan, to those of Peru: but Chardin, a jeweller, suspects that these emeralds were only imported into Egypt, as well as the carbuncle, which he supposes to have been a high coloured ruby; while the *yacut*, latinized *jacintb*, is a brown ruby from Ceylon. But he errs widely when he imagines that the ruby called *balais* came from Balacchan, a name which he ascribes to Pegu; while in fact it is the product of the mountains of *Balascia*, or Balk, as Marco Polo has long ago informed us. A late intelligent traveller in Persia says, that among the articles sold in the bazars of Ispahan are diamonds of Golconda; rubies, topazes, and sapphires of Pegu; emeralds of Said, which is the upper part of Egypt, or the Thebais: and Ballay rubies from Bedakshan, a country between the rivers Gihon and Murgab, which also produces lapis lazuli, amianthus, and rock crystal¹⁴.

¹⁴ Otter, i. 208.

MINERALOGY. Thus the high mountains of Belur Tag, and perhaps Hindoo Koh, are the peculiar seats of the Balay ruby; a circumstance which identifies the Balascia of Polo; while his Belur is the whole Alpine tract of the mountains so called.

Chardin adds that sulphur and nitre are found in the mountains of Demavend, which he places on the south of Hyrcania or Mazendran. Sometimes whole deserts are covered with sulphur, and others with salt, which near Cashan is remarkably pure. Rock salt is found near Ispahan; and in the dry climate of Kerman, if our author be credited, it is even employed in building. Free stone, marble, and slate, are chiefly from Hamadan. Near Tauriz is found what he calls a marble, transparent, like rock crystal, through tables of an inch in thickness, of a white colour mingled with pale green, probably a kind of jad: in the same region is also found lapis lazuli, but not so fine as that of Tatory. Towards the Tigris there are pools of bitumen, or rock tar, while naphtha abounds near Baku. In Erivan and Fars are mines of talc; and of a pure white marl used like soap. What is called *mumia* is found in Corasan, and in the deserts of Kerman, deriving its name from the Persian word *moum*, signifying wax, gum, ointment. It was supposed to proceed from the human body; but according to Chardin is a singular gum which distils from rocks; and the mines of this precious mastic, as he calls it, are carefully sealed for the royal use. It is probably a kind of asphaltum; but seems a variety which has escaped modern mineralogists.

Mineral Waters.

Mineral waters of various descriptions abound in this mountainous country; but they are generally alike neglected by the physicians and the people.

Natural Curiosities.

Among the chief natural curiosities must be named the fountains of naphtha, or pure rock oil, in the neighbourhood of Baku, on the western coast of the Caspian, particularly in the adjoining promontory of Absheron. The adjoining land is dry and rocky, and there are several small ancient temples, in one of which, near the altar, a large hollow cane is fixed in the ground, and from the end issues a blue flame, seemingly more pure and gentle than that produced by ardent spirits^u.

^u Hanway, i. 263.

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From a horizontal gap in an adjoining rock, about sixty feet long by three broad, there also issues a similar flame.

NATURAL
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“ The earth round this place, for above two miles, has this surprizing property, that, by taking up two or three inches of the surface, and applying a live coal, the part which is so uncovered immediately takes fire, almost before the coal touches the earth: the flame makes the soil hot, but does not consume it, nor affect what is near it with any degree of heat. Any quantity of this earth carried to another place does not produce this effect. Not long since eight horses were consumed by this fire, being under a roof where the surface of the ground was turned up, and by some accident took flame.

“ If a cane or tube, even of paper, be set about two inches in the ground, confined and close with the earth below, and the top of it touched with a live coal, and blown upon, immediately a flame issues, without hurting either the cane or paper, provided the edges be covered with clay; and this method they use for light in their houses, which have only the earth for the floor: three or four of these lighted canes will boil water in a pot, and thus they dress their victuals. The flame may be extinguished in the same manner as that of spirits of wine. The ground is dry and stony, and the more stony any particular part is, the stronger and clearer is the flame; it smells sulphurous like naphtha, but not very offensive.

“ Lime is burnt to great perfection by means of this phenomenon; the flame communicating itself to any distance where the earth is uncovered to receive it. The stones must be laid on one another, and in three days the lime is completed. Near this place brimstone is dug, and naphtha springs are found.

“ The chief place for the black or dark grey naphtha is the small island Wetoy, now uninhabited, except at such times as they take naphtha from thence. The Persians load it in bulk in their wretched vessels, so that sometimes the sea is covered with it for leagues together. When the weather is thick and hazy the springs boil up the higher; and the naphtha often takes fire on the surface of the earth, and runs in a flame into the sea in great quantities, to a distance almost incredible. In clear weather the springs do not boil up above two or three feet: in boiling

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over, this oily substance makes so strong a consistency as by degrees almost to close the mouth of the spring; sometimes it is quite closed, and forms hillocks that look as black as pitch; but the spring, which is resisted in one place, breaks out in another. Some of the springs which have not been long opened form a mouth of eight or ten feet diameter.

“ The people carry the naphtha by troughs into pits or reservoirs, drawing it off from one to another, leaving in the first reservoir the water, or the heavier part with which it is mixed when it issues from the spring. It is unpleasant to the smell, and used mostly amongst the poorer sort of the Persians, and other neighbouring people, as we use oil in lamps, or to boil their victuals, but it communicates a disagreeable taste. They find it burn best with a small mixture of ashes: as they find it in great abundance, every family is well supplied. They keep it at a small distance from their houses, in earthen vessels, under ground, to prevent any accident by fire, of which it is extremely susceptible.

“ There is also a white naphtha on the peninsula of Apcheron, of a much thinner consistency; but this is found only in small quantities. The Russians drink it both as a cordial and a medicine, but it does not intoxicate: if taken internally it is said to be good for the stone, as also for disorders of the breast, and in venereal cases and sore heads; to both the last the Persians are very subject. Externally applied, it is of great use in scorbutic pains, gouts, cramps, &c., but it must be put to the part affected only; it penetrates instantaneously into the blood, and is apt for a short time to create great pain. It has also the property of spirits of wine to take out greasy spots in silks or woollens; but the remedy is worse than the disease, for it leaves an abominable odour. They say it is carried into India as a great rarity, and being prepared as a japan, is the most beautiful and lasting of any that has been yet found. Not far from hence are also springs of hot water, which boil up in the same manner as the naphtha, and very thick, being impregnated with a blue clay; but it soon clarifies. Bathing in this warm water is found to strengthen and procure a good appetite, especially if a small quantity is also drunk.”

“ Haaway, i. 263, &c.

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The justly celebrated Kæmpfer had visited these remarkable springs in the end of the seventeenth century¹⁷; and Gmelin, in the eighteenth century, 1773, has added little to the account of Hanway, except that the soil is a coarse marl, mixed with sand, and effervescing with acids. There are many other wells in an adjoining peninsula; and the revenue arising from this uncommon product to the khan of Baku was computed at forty thousand rubles¹⁸.

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The few Persia isles in the southern gulf, among which the most remarkable are Ormuz, once famous, now abandoned; Kishma; and towards the other extremity Karek, from which the Dutch were expelled in 1765, do not merit a particular description in a work of this nature; and far less those in the Caspian sea, the chief of which are on the coast of the Uzbeks.

¹⁷ See his *Amoen Exot.*

¹⁸ *Dec. des Russes*, ii. 213.

INDEPENDENT TATARY.

CHAPTER I.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS.

Name.—Chief Divisions.—Progressive Geography.—Connection with LITTLE BUCHARIA, and Review of the ancient and modern Geography of that Country.

THE descriptions already given in this volume of Asiatic Russia and the Chinese empire, comprise the far greater part of what geographers denominated Tartary, by a vague term applied to a country exceeding all Europe in extent, and possessed by various and distinct nations and races of men.

By repeated victories over the Eluts and Kalmuks of Mongolia, or, to use the German term, Mongoley, the Chinese dominion has been extended to the mountains of Belur, thus including Little Bucharia: while in the E. Mandshuria remained subject to its sovereigns, who had become emperors of China. But so absurd is the common appellation of Chinese Tatory, that not one tribe of Tatars can be strictly said to be subject to the Chinese sceptre; for the ruling people of Little Bucharia were the Kalmuks, a Mongolian race.

Name.

Yet the title here given of Independent Tatory becomes unexceptionable, when confined to the bounds of the present description, for the Uzbeks and Kirguses are of undoubted Tatar origin; and their country must still be regarded as independent of the great neighbouring powers, China, Russia, and Persia.

The extensive region now under view is highly celebrated, and extremely interesting on many accounts. The probable seat of the most ancient

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ancient Persian kingdom, the possession of the Greek monarchs of Bactriana, after many revolutions it was distinguished by the wide empire of Zingis and Timur, Samarcand being the favourite residence and capital of the latter conqueror. This distinguished portion of Asia has also given birth to many eminent men of letters, whose fame is diffused as wide as oriental literature. The most ancient Persian philosopher, Zoroaster, is said to have been a native of Bactriana; and, not to mention numerous intervening names, the work of Abulgazi, the sovereign of Kharizm, on the history of the Tatars, displays no mean industry and information.

NAME.

The extent of Independent Tatory may be measured from the Caspian sea to the mountains of Belur, a space of not less than 870 B. miles. From the mountains of Gaur in the south, to the Russian boundaries on the north of the desert of Issim, may be near 1500 B. miles; but of this length a great part is desert.

Extent.

The chief divisions are the wide steppes or barren plains in the N., held by three hordes of Kirguses, the Great, Middle, and Lesser; with some small Tataric tribes near the sea of Aral. This portion was anciently called Western Turkistan: the capital being Taraz, on a stream which flows into the Sirr or Sihon not far above Otrar, and which was also sometimes denominated Turkistan from the name of the country. Before proceeding further it must be observed in general, that the names in the best and most recent maps are often derived from Persian and native geographers, so that a modern traveller might perhaps find it difficult to trace them.

Divisions.

Turkistan.

To the S. of the mountains of Argun the land begins to fertilize, along the course of the Sirr, Sirt, or Sihon, the Iaxartes of the ancients, also called the river of Shash, from the chief territory; and on the banks of its tributary streams, which devolve from the Argun on the N. and the Ak Tau or white mountain on the S., while the river itself springs from the mountains of Belur. Ilak and Shash, the most northern provinces on the Sihon, are followed by Fergana, and a district called Ozrushna, round a town of the same name. Divided from these provinces by deserts and mountains, the kingdom of Kharizm, formerly so powerful as to oppose the great Zingis, has gradually yielded to the en-

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EXTENT. croaching desert, and now presents poor remains of Urglienz its capital, the residence of Abulgazi, and Khiva, a small town, but the residence of a khan.

Sogd. To the S. of the range of the Ak Tau appears the fertile region of Sogd, the ancient Sogdiana, with its capital Samarcand; which, with Vash and Kotlan, seems to have constituted the Mawerulnar of oriental geography, implying the country beyond the river Gihon or Oxus. On the S. the provinces of Balk, Kilan, Tokarestan, and Gaur, terminate the bounds of Independent Tatar, here separated by deserts on the W. from the Persian province of Corasan. In general Kharizm on the W. is not considered as a part of Great Bucharia, but this last appellation must be regarded as embracing the whole extent, from the mountains of Argun and sources of the river Ilak, to the confines of Hindostan.

Progressive Geography. In ancient periods Western Turkistan, and the north of the Caspian, were the seats of the Massagetæ; to the S. of whom were the Scythians on this side of the Imaus or Belur Tag. The Scythians beyond the Imaus are described by Ptolemy as restricted to a confined strip of territory on the eastern side of the Imaus, and divided by an imaginary line from the Seres, who were undoubtedly the people of Little Bucharia. But as ancient knowledge here terminated, it is probable that the Scythians beyond the Imaus not only held the eastern ridges of these mountains, as a barbarous race continues to do without molesting the industry of the distant plains, but that they were diffused along the ridge of Alak and the wide region called Geté, extending as far as the mountains of Bogdo, till they were expelled or subdued by more numerous or powerful nations from the east.

Scythians. As it is now granted by all geographers that the range called Belur Tag represents the Imaus, and that this range runs from N. to S., forming the eastern boundary of Great Bucharia, it will be clear from Ptolemy's description and maps that Serica can be no other country but Little Bucharia, always possessed by an industrious and intelligent race of men. Not only the ridge of Imaus, but the remarkable course of two considerable rivers towards the N. E., while all his other Asiatic streams have very different directions, sufficiently indicate Little Bucharia, in which the rivers correspond with Ptolemy's delineation, the Oe-

Serica.

chardes being probably the Orankath of modern maps, or perhaps the river of Yarcand; while his Bautifus may be the river of Koten, or that of Karia. D'Anville has transferred the capital of this country as far east as Kantcheou, which belongs to the Chinese province of Shenfi, standing on the river Etziné, which he thinks resembles the Bautifus of Ptolemy; and he adds that the latitude corresponds with that of Ptolemy's Sera; a cogent argument, no doubt, while all that author's longitudes and latitudes in eastern Asia are completely erroneous! It is truly surprising that this able geographer should thus infer that the ancients had passed the great desert of Cobi, or had discovered China by land, without the smallest acquaintance with Tibet. The plan of the learned Goffellin restricted him to pursue only the sea coasts, but he expresses his opinion that Sera must not be placed at so great a distance to the east.* It has already been shewn that the numerous, and almost inaccessible, mountains of Western Tibet have prevented even the moderns from acquiring a just knowledge of that country, which, from the same unavoidable cause, was totally unknown to the ancients; and there is no region but Little Bucharía which can correspond to Ptolemy's Serica.

The connection between the two Bucharías has occasioned the introduction of this disquisition here, where it seemed that the subject would appear more clear and connected than if a part only had been considered in the account of Chinese Tatary. It is to be lamented that the details concerning Little Bucharía are so imperfect, that few comparisons can be instituted between the modern names and situations and those of Ptolemy, whose knowledge does not appear to have extended further than 80° from Greenwich. D'Anville supposes that the mountains of Annabi are those of Altai; but they are clearly those of Alak (called by some Musart) on the N. of Little Bucharía. His towns of Auzacia, Issedon, &c. &c. it might perhaps be vain to trace in the speedy declines and changes of Asiatic towns, even if we possessed ample and accurate maps of Little Bucharía. The mountains on the S. correspond with the chain of Mus Tag, or the Mountains of Ice on the

* Geog. des Grecs. Anal. p. 132.

PROGRESSIVE GEOGRAPHY.

N. of Tibet; and his metropolis of Serica is perhaps Kereja or Karia, not far from these mountains. It is probable that small branches spreading from the Mus Tag towards the N. are the Casius, (perhaps in the neighbourhood of the town and lake of Kas,) the Thagurus, and Afini-rei, of Ptolemy. But a more full illustration of this point would be better adapted to ancient geography. Suffice it here to observe, that till the learned labours of D'Anville illustrated the actual geography of these regions, a similar obscurity prevailed even in that of Greater Bucharica; not a century having yet expired since the real form of the Caspian sea, and even the existence of that of Aral, became known in Europe. Nay it is deeply to be regretted that even now the geography of these regions is chiefly conjectural, and founded on the dubious longitudes and latitudes of oriental geographers, unaccustomed to the precision required in modern observations.

Modern Geography.

As few materials will arise for a description of the present state of Independent Tatarica, a country exceeding the German empire in extent, it may not be uninteresting to offer some observations on the modern geography of this country, which, to the disgrace of science, remains in a wretched state of imperfection.* The natural and unavoidable connection between the ancient Scythias on both sides of the Imaus, and in later times between western and eastern Turkistan, Great and Little Bucharica, will authorize and demand some previous acquaintance with the latter country, though recently subjugated by the Chinese, and briefly included in the description of that empire.

Little Bucharica.

The north-western province of China, called Shen-si, presents a remarkable district, narrow, but of considerable length, extending like a promontory between the great desert on the N. E. and the Eluts of Koko Nor on the S. W. The great wall is here low, and rudely constructed of turf or hardened clay. At the furthest extremity, and just within the wall, stands the town of Su-teush, followed by the city of Kant-cheou, which has been chosen by D'Anville for the capital of Se-

* That of eastern Tatarica, or the country E. of Hami, may be considered as sufficiently authenticated, not only by the Chinese atlas and Russian maps, but by numerous travels of the jesuits published by Du Halde.

rica. These parts formerly belonged to the kingdom of Tangut, being a modern addition to China.

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Beyond these parts, which are the first approached by the caravans, several rivers, lakes, towns, and stations, are laid down in the maps by the jesuits, of which there is no account in the voluminous work of Du Halde; as the river Etziné, with the towns of Ouey-yuen, and Chao-maing; and the lakes Sopou and Souhouc. To the W. runs another considerable river, the Polonkir, near which is the city of Shacheou, where the river runs into a lake called Hara Nor, or rather Kara Nor, the black lake.

It is sufficiently singular that while a particular account is given of the region of Hami or Chamil,² yet there is no description of these intervening countries; and though the geography and maps of China itself be excellent, still the most skilful entertain great doubts concerning those of Mongolia, as well as of Tibet. In the table of longitudes and latitudes, at the end of Du Halde, Hami is placed in $42^{\circ} 53'$, long. $22^{\circ} 23'$ W. of Peking; but none appears of the other names above mentioned, and it is probable they are only laid down from doubtful itineraries. Major Rennell has expressed a suspicion that the maps are erroneous concerning the countries between Great Bucharia and China, which he supposes to recede in them too much from Great Bucharia towards China;³ but when he infers, in the preceding page, that the city of Cashgar should be removed several degrees to the N. W., near Shath, he forgets the difficulties that will arise in arranging several itineraries, and the doubts whether Cashgar itself be not merely another name of Yarcand, derived from the kingdom, as the city of Cashmir is only another name for Sirinagur.* However this be, it is probable that there is some confusion

¹ Du Halde, iv. 31.

² Memoir, 198.

³ Petis de la Croix, intimately acquainted with oriental geography, informs us, in his notes to the history of Timur, that Cashgar is only another name for Yarcand, which last alone is mentioned in recent accounts as the capital of Little Bucharia. Abulfeda says that the town of Cashgar is also called Ardukand, which implies that it is the same with Yarcand.

But this idea seems completely overturned by the letter of the Chinese general, who conquered Little Bucharia in 1759, to the Emperor, a translation of which is published by the abbé Grosier, in his General Description of China, i. 183, where he refers to the Histoire Generale de la Chine, tome xi. for an account of this remarkable war. From this letter it is evident that H shar or Cashgar

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confusion in the jesuitic maps, in which Hami is put at ninety leagues from the Chinese wall, while Goetz says that he travelled the space in nine days, which on this calculation can scarcely equal that length, as thirty miles a day seems too much for a caravan, especially when we consider that twenty days are occupied in travelling from Chalith, also called Olug Yulduz or Great Yulduz, to Puchan, not far from Turfan, a space which in our maps does not occupy above half the extent between Hami and the Chinese wall.* If the numbers be not corrupted in the account of Goetz, our maps are here strangely erroneous. Is it not probable that similar errors may prevail towards the south, where the river Polonkir, &c. may be too much approximated to China? May not Shacheou be the same with the Siartiam of Polo, or Sertem, while the black lake corresponds with Cas Nor? but the itinerary given in the jesuitic map of Tibet militates against this opinion, which must remain dubious till a more precise investigation.

Equal doubts prevail concerning the south of Little Bucharia, where the sandy desert of Cobi has been extended to the west, even to the northern snowy mountains of Tibet; which, by a singularity unknown to any range of that nature, are supposed to emit no rivers from their northern sides. It has on the contrary been shewn, in the account of Tibet, that this country extends for more than a month's journey to the N. E. of Cashmir; so that its northern mountains are the Mus Tag, or Mountains of Ice, in the Russian maps, which send forth numerous

Cashgar is a distinct city from Jerkim or Yarcand. Two Portuguese jesuits were employed to take a map of these countries; and if a copy were remitted to Europe it might prove a valuable accession to geography.

The Chinese general says there are about 60,000 families in the district of Hafnar, by which he seems to imply Little Bucharia, with 17 cities and 1600 villages and hamlets. The city of Hafnar is distant from Su-cheou, the most N. W. town of China, about 600 leagues, (this exceeds the space in our maps by about 300 miles, and seems to confirm the Russian geography,) and is about a league in circumference, but the families were only 2500. To the E of Hafnar are Ouchei (the Ukz of Islenieff, the Utscherment of Strahlenberg) and Akfou; and to the W. of Hafnar is Antchien, the Adshian of Islenieff, on a river which joins the Sirr not far from its source; but the cities between them are unknown to our maps. "Hafnar is to the north of Jerkim; between them lie two cities and two villages, which, together, contain almost 4,400 families." The soil is represented so poor as only to yield five for one. The whole letter is extremely curious and interesting, and such as an intelligent English or French General might have written.

* See the Collection of Atley, vol. iv.

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streams into southern Bucharìa.* In his learned map of Asia, D'Anville has placed between Tibet and Little Bucharìa the country of Turk-Hend, or perhaps Turk-Hind, being that country of the Turcomans which bordered upon Hind or Hindostan, in which last Tibet may have been laxly included. The southern part of Little Bucharìa contains several large provinces, as Koten and Kereja or Karia, so called from their capital cities; and the intelligent Strahlenberg has denominated Koten a kingdom, and inserted several names of rivers and towns.

The western and northern parts of Little Bucharìa are known with far more accuracy from various accounts, and from the maps of D'Anville and Islenieff. To avoid the difficulties of sandy deserts, rendered almost impassable by broken rocks, the caravans proceed to Hami by a circuit to the north; where, at the bottom of the mountains of Alak, which afford some protection from the piercing cold, stand the cities and towns of Little Bucharìa, in all its features one of the most singular regions in the world. In some instances Islenieff appears to have copied D'Anville; but in general his map is new, and more authentic; for example in the shape of Lok Nor, and the rivers flowing into it, with that of Bulanghir on the eastern side.† The largest river, that of Yarcand, is represented as passing through the deserts, nearly in a straight line, of not less than 730 versts, or about 500 English miles, but this uniform course through a rocky desert is one of the problems of Bucharian geography.

* Islenieff says, in the short memoir of his map, (4 pages 4to.) "Les montagnes indiquées au bas de la carte par le nom de Mouslagh, sont celles qui forment la frontière septentrionale de l'Inde, et produisent les sources du Gange et de l'Inde." From this memoir we learn that the country of the Kalmuks is laid down from plans by Russian engineers; but some other parts from the Chinese maps, that is Du Halde's atlas. Captain Islenieff was sent to Yakutsk to observe the transit of Venus. Pal. iii. 485.

† There is vehement reason to suspect that this *Bulanghir* is the *Polankir* of the jesuitic maps, which would confirm the suspicions before expressed; but in this case Hara Nor must be the same with Lok Nor. Major Rennell's idea would be confirmed, as to this part being placed too near to China; and the country between Koko Nor and Hami must be filled by the desert of Cobi, which certainly passes between Hami and China. Du Halde, iv. 31. Rennell says that the Russian maps extend their longitude 4 or 5 degrees too far to the east; but if Hara Nor be Lok, the jesuits have erred by about $3\frac{1}{2}$ degrees of longitude, which in lat. 42° is about 157 miles, a trifle indeed in the wide expanse of Asia. By D'Anville's map from the jesuits Hara Nor is $111^\circ 30'$ from Ferro, while he coincides with Islenieff in placing Lok about 100° .

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TOWNS.

The chief towns, by all accounts, are Cashgar and Yarcand, followed towards the N. E. by Axu or Akfu; Chialish, also called Yulduz, and by the Turks Karashar or the black city;* and Turfan. Hami or Camil, with its surrounding villages, is rather considered as a detached province, for some ages under the protection of China. The names of many other towns may be found in the Travels of Goetz, who proceeded N. from Cabul to Balk; and after a long journey in that direction passed the mountains of Imaus, and arrived by Tanhetar and Yakonith at Yarcand.

History.

Little Bucharía was subject to the Kalmuks, who were recently conquered by the Chinese. In more ancient times, as already explained, it was the country of the Scres; but little known till the time of Zingis, after whose death it became the portion of his son Zagathai, and appears, with Great Bucharía, to have been called by his name; which was, however chiefly restricted to Great Bucharía, while the other was styled Cashgar. It was considered as a part of Mogulistan, or Mongolia; and the northern provinces belonged to the country of Geté, in which, to the N. E. of Turfan, were the ancient habitations of the Eygurs or Ugurs, a Finnish race who spread dismay throughout Europe in the tenth century, and afterwards settled in Hungary. The state of this country in the time of Timur may be seen in the history of that prince, a descendant of Zagathai; and this race appears to have continued till 1683, when the Eluts or Kalmuks conquered Little Bucharía.† The late wife and benevolent emperor of China, Kiang Long, or Chen Lung, had imitated his predecessor in repeated visits to Mongolia, in order to overawe the Kalmuks, the most dangerous neighbours of the

* Strahlenberg tells us that Chialish is the same with Yulduz, and so de la Croix, ii. 56, and no travels nor description will permit the latter city to correspond with Oramshi, an opinion which D'Anville seems to have adopted in his *Asie*, 1751, but abandoned in his *ancient geography*, 1767. Akfu, in the time of Timur, had three strong castles, and was full of Chinese merchants. *Cheref*, iii. 216, where the reader will find a curious campaign in Little Bucharía. The mountain Caragoutac seems to be the Mus Tag, not the Belur.

† To the Dutch edition of Du Haloe's atlas, 1737, there is prefixed an account of Little Bucharía, chiefly occupied by a detail of that revolution. An account of this country had appeared at Cologne 1723 (perhaps the same). By the industrious compiler of *Astley's voyages* it is said to have been written by Bentink, who wrote the curious notes on Abulgazi; but by far the most complete account of this country is given in the fourth volume of *Astley's collection*, the best of that kind ever published, and which gave rise to the French *Histoire Generale des Voyages*.

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empire, by the display of superior power. In 1759 he completely vanquished these people, whose Contaitsh, or Great Khan, used to reside at Harcas, upon the river Ili; and thus annexed a vast territory to his dominions, while he is doubtfully said to have advanced as far as Badakshan in the S. of Great Bucharia. But he did not choose to provoke the jealousy of Persia, or Russia, by extending the limits of the empire beyond the mountains of Belur. It is however asserted that the great horde of Kirguses has paid homage to China. Independently of the regions to the north, the extent of Little Bucharia, as it is absurdly named, from the confines of Hami to the mountains of Belur, is more than 1000 B. miles; and the breadth, from the mountains of Tibet to those of Alak, more than 500.

The prevailing religion is the Mahometan, for the Kalmuk conquerors though they retained their idolatry, were tolerant. The government was administered by a Khan, and afterwards by the Contaitsh of the Kalmuks, who appointed officers acting as magistrates. The population cannot be extensive*, and is supposed chiefly to consist of original Bucharians, who are described as of a swarthy complexion, though some be very fair and of elegant forms. They are said to be polite and benevolent, and their language is probably that called the Zagathaian, which is the same with the Turkish, that speech having supplanted their native tongue; which, if they be descended from the Seres, would be a curious topic of investigation. For that the chief population is original seems to be allowed, though there be a great mixture of Tatars, or Turcomans, and a few Kalmuks †. The dress of the men

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Religion.

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* The account in Du Halde's atlas bears that the Contaitsh could raise 20,000 men from this province, taking only one man from ten families. Hence 200,000 families, which may yield a population of one million.

† The learned Jenisch gives a specimen of Turkish and Zagathy, which proves them to be the same; and he finds very little difference between the modern Turkish and the dialect of Crim Tatars. In pure Turkish all infinitives end in *mak*, or *mek*; the construction of the language is sufficiently simple; ablatives are formed by adding *den*, plurals by adding *ler*, whether the nominative be a word originally Turkish, or borrowed from the Arabic, or Persian. (From a Letter of that great orientalist, Sir William Ouseley, to the Author.)

Mr. Wilford tells us (As. Res. vi.) from the Report of Mogul Beg, probably a Mahometan merchant, that the traders who travel regularly from Cashmir, Nurpoor, &c. to Yarcand, assert

MANNERS.

does not reach below the calf of the leg, with girdles like the Polish. The female raiment is similar, with long ear-rings, like those of Tibet: the hair is also worn in very long tresses, decorated with ribbons. They tinge their nails with henna. Both sexes wear trowsers with light boots of Russia leather. The head dress resembles the Turkish. The houses are generally of stone, decorated with some Chinese articles. They follow the custom of the times of chivalry, in throwing off all clothing when they go to sleep; are cleanly in their food, which often consists of minced meat; and like the Russians they preserve their victuals frozen for a considerable time. Tea is the general drink. The wives are purchased; and the ceremonies of marriage, &c. differ little from those of other Mahometans, the Mullahs, or priests having great influence. They have small copper coins; but weigh gold and silver like the Chinese, with whom they maintained a considerable commerce before the Kalmuk invasion, and which is now probably more productive than ever by their union under the same sovereign. They are not warlike; but use the lance, sabre, and bow, while the rich have coats of mail*. The country is very productive of many kinds of fruits, and particularly wine. They are said to have many mines of gold and silver, but neither the natives nor Kalmuks had suf-

that the inhabitants of the countries between Ladac and Yarcand use the Turcoman language, till within a few days of Yarcand, where the Kalmuk prevails. In the Turcoman *Ac* signifies white; and *Cara* black.

They meet at Ladac, whence they travel the greatest part of the way along the Indus, which rises in the mountains to the N. W. of Yarcand, (query S. W.) then running south it comes within two days of Ladac, where, suddenly turning to the west, it takes an immense sweep towards Saighur, probably the Sheker of the maps, where it changes its course towards the confines of India.

It is to be regretted that Mr. Wilford did not give us more information of this kind, instead of antiquarian reveries.

* M. Bentink, the learned author of the notes on Abulgazi's work, informs us, p. 810 and 811, that the natives of Great and Little Bucharua are a peculiar race, by the Tatars called Tadúks, or Citizens; and are an elegant people with black eyes, aquiline noses, and pleasing countenances, totally different from the Tataric; the women being tall, well made, and beautiful. They subsist by handicrafts and commerce, in which they are unmolested by the Uzbeks and Kalmuks, the Bucharua merchants crowding to China, Hindostan, Persia, and Siberia. They never handle arms, whence they are despised by the Tatars, to whom each town and village pays a regular tribute: nor are they divided into tribes, like the wandering nations of the east.

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ficient skill to work them : on the melting of the snows abundance of gold is found in the torrents, which they carry to China, and even to Tobolsk in Siberia. Precious stones, and even diamonds, are also found; and one of the products is musk, probably from the southern mountains near Tibet, in which last country the animal abounds. In contradiction to the usual course of nature, the southern part bordering on the vast Alps of Tibet is colder than the northern, which is protected by the inferior ridge of Alak. As the dress is chiefly cotton it is probable that the plant abounds in the country, though from their proximity to China the Seres may easily have handed silk to ancient Europe*.

Such are the chief particularities concerning this interesting country to be collected from the accounts above quoted. Dr. Pallas, in his travels in Russia, gives some idea of Bucharian commerce, in describing the city of Orenburg⁵. But as he joins the Bucharians with the people of Khiva, he probably implies Greater Bucharia. He seems to mention raw silk as a product of the country, as well as lamb skins of a remarkable fine kind, and the hair of camels †.

* Marco Polo specially informs us that the province of Peim produced silk in abundance, "abundant bombyce." Lib. i. Cap. liii.

⁵ Dec. Russ. iii. 123.

† He observes that, before the Chinese conquest, the Kalmuks could muster an army of 50,000, their territories extending from the lake of Balcash, or Palkati, to the mountains of Bogdo, which unite those of Altai, and Alak, and serve as a frontier against the Monguls, peculiarly so called. On the south their power reached over the towns of Bucharia as far as Chochar; but their chief habitations were near the Palkati and River Ili, and towards the sources of the Irtysh, in the angle formed by the mountains of Alak and Altai. This country is by the Russian writers generally termed Sonn-garia. In another passage (v. 422.) he informs us that the best rhubarb was brought to Kiachta, one of the Russian staples with the Chinese, by a Bucharian merchant called Abdufalam of the city of Selin, situated S. W. of Koko Nor towards Tibet, (perhaps Sinin, E. of Koko Nor,) and he adds, that this and other towns of Little Bucharia, as Cashgar, Yarcand, and Otrar, are under the Chinese domination. It is truly surprising that so intelligent a writer should have been so ignorant of geography. But as it thus appears that the people of Little Bucharia supply the best rhubarb, it is to be inferred with probability that it grows in the S. E. part of that country.

CHAPTER II.

DESCRIPTION OF INDEPENDENT TATARY

KIRGUSES.—*Stepp of Issim*.—*Hords*.—*Number*.—*Manners*.—*Dress*.—*Trade*.—*History*.—*KHARIZM*.—*Name*.—*Kbiva*.—*Trade*.—*GREAT BUCHARIA*.—*Nephthalites*.—*Extent and Boundaries*.—*History*.—*Religion*.—*Manners and Customs*.—*Provinces*.—*Cities*.—*Manufactures*.—*Climate*.—*Rivers*.—*Lakes*.—*Mountains*.—*Mineralogy*.—*Character of the People*.

KIRGUSES.

ABOUT one half of independent Tatory is occupied by the Kirguses in the north, a people also called Kaizaks, and of undoubted Tartaric origin, whence they seem to live in perfect amity with their southern brethren, the Uzbeks.

Stepp of
Issim.

The great stepp, or desert of Issim, divides these Kirguses from Siberia. This stepp is intersected by a river of the same name; and there are other streams which join that river, are lost in the sands, or fall into extensive lakes, for the most part either saline or bitter¹. Even the soil is impregnated with salt or nitre, which Pallas supposes to proceed from the ranges of secondary mountains, which extend along the river till it join the Irtysh. A more considerable chain stretches from the river Yaik, or Ural, towards the Altaian range, called the mountains of Algedym Zano. The mountains of Ural, otherwise called those of Aral, or eagles, though they chiefly bend S. W. detach some branches towards the sea of Aral*. On the east the great chain of Altai may be considered as beginning with Uluk Tag, or the Great Mountain, towards which a route of General Bentam is delineated in Arrowsmith's map of Asia, while the Kisik Tag, or Little Mountain, runs S. towards the Palkati lake, which is also called that of Tengis,

¹ Dec. Russ. iv. 456. Pallas calls it the stepp of Issett.

* Pallas, ib. p. 74, says that the Uralian chain terminates, in the south, in secondary hills, some stretching W. others S. to the sea of Aral, and some E. towards the Altaian chain.

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and Balcah. When Pallas visited this stepp, in 1771, the Russians were improving the fortified line on the north of this desert, which is remarkable for proceeding through a series of small saline lakes. This extensive plain must not however be regarded as a mere desert, destitute of all vegetation; and it is said that many ancient tombs occur in its wide expanse, as well as in the Barabinian stepp, between the Irtish, and the Ob, which last consists of a tolerable soil, and presents several forests of birch, with the appearance of having been formerly a prodigious saline marsh.

On the west of the Kirguses there still remain some tribes of Kalmuks, though the greater part migrated from the Volga in 1770, when they sought the protection of the Chinese. The Kirguses are supposed to be so called from the founder of their hord; and have from time immemorial been here classed under three divisions of Great, Middle, and Lesser, though quite unknown to Europe till the Russian conquest of Siberia, some tribes becoming subject to that empire in 1606. They are considered as faithless, pusillanimous, yet restless; but the Great Hord, defended by mountains on the S. and E., asserted their independence in repeated contests with the Kalmuks of Soongaria. The Middle and Little Hords have acknowledged the Russian sovereignty since 1731; but this subjection is merely nominal, for the Russians are obliged to fortify themselves against these allies. These two hords are each estimated at thirty thousand families; and supposing the Great Hord to contain sixty thousand, and each family six persons, the population of this wide region might amount to 720,000; but it probably does not exceed half a million.

The Kirguses have gradually moved from the east towards the west. Their manners, common to the Tatars, have been described at considerable length by Pallas. Their tents are of a kind of felt; their drink kumiss, made of acidulated mare's milk, for that of cows is unpleasant. The Great Hord is considered as the source of the two others. Being settled near the mountains of Alak, also called Ala Tau, (and considered by the Russians as forming one chain with the Belur, which

* Tooke, ii. 78,

† Dec. Russ. iii. 375.

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KIRGUSES.

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MANNERS. joins the mountains of India) this hord has been called the Alatanian Kirguses⁴. They lead a wandering life, from the borders of the upper Sirr, or Syrt, near Tashkund, to the stepp of Issim. Each hord has its particular Khan; but the Middle hord, when Pallas approached this country, was contented with a Saltan, or prince, who seemed to acknowledge the Khan of the Lesser hord: and in 1777 this Khan of the Lesser hord, whose election had been confirmed by Russia, was called Nur Hali, a sensible and equitable prince. Their features are Tataric, with the flat nose and small eyes; but not oblique like those of the Monguls and Chinese. They have horses, camels, cattle, sheep, and goats. It was asserted that some individuals in the middle Hord had 10,000 horses, 300 camels, 3 or 4000 cattle, 20,000 sheep, and more than 2000 goats: while in the Lesser Hord were proprietors of 5000 horses, and a proportional number of the other animals. Their dromedaries furnished a considerable quantity of woolly hair, which was sold to the Russians and Bucharians, being annually clipped like that of sheep. Their chief food is mutton, of the large tailed sort; and so exquisite is the lamb that it is sent from Orenburg to Petersburg for the tables of the palace. The lamb skins are the most celebrated after those of Bucharia, being damasked as it were by cloathing the little animal in coarse linen. But the wool of the sheep is coarse, and only used in domestic consumption for felts and thick cloths. The stepp supply them with objects of the chase, wolves, foxes, badgers, antelopes, ermines, weazels, marmots, &c. In the southern and eastern mountains are found wild sheep, *ovis musimon*, the ox of Tibet, *bos grunniens*, which seems to delight in snowy alps; with chamoys, chacalls, tigers, and wild asses⁵. This variety of animals, enumerated by a good judge of natural history, not only shews the continuity of the range of mountains from Tibet towards the north, but affords a specimen of the treasures of natural history, which might be found in the mountains of Bucharia.

Dress.

As the Kirgusians regard each other as brethren, they are obliged to employ slaves, being captives whom they take in their incursions. Their dress is the common Tataric, with large trowsers and pointed

⁴ Dec. Russ. iii. 379.

⁵ Ib. iii. 396.

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boots. A thin vest supplies the place of a shirt, and they commonly DRESS. wear two short robes. The head is shaved and covered with a conic bonnet. Their cloaths are numerous and light, so that if they fall from horseback they are seldom hurt: their saddle horses are richly ornamented; but their riders are short in stature, and their trowsers ascend to the arm pits, so that they resemble a pair of pantaloons on horseback. The ladies ornament their heads with the necks of herons, disposed like horns. They appear to be Mahometans, though rather of a relaxed creed.

The Kirgufians carry on some trade with Russia. The chief traffic, TRADE. which is wholly by exchange, is at Orenburg, but the Middle Hord proceed to Onisk. Sheep, to the amount of 150,000, are annually brought to Orenburg; with horses, cattle, lambs, skins, camels-wool, and camlets; sometimes they offer slaves, Persians or Turcomans. In return they take manufactured articles, chiefly cloaths and furniture. From Bucharia, Khiva, and Tashkund, they receive arms and coats of mail, which Russia refuses, in return for camels and cattle. They are extremely fond of the Kalnuk women, who long retain their form and charms; and often marry them if they will adopt the Mahometan religion. There is an annual festival in honour of the dead. About the beginning of the seventeenth century this people, who were formerly Shamanians, became children of circumcision, by the exertions of the priests of Turkistan; but Pallas, in 1769, found them addicted to forceries and other idle superstitions*.

Even this barren region, now inhabited by the Kirgufes, has been HISTORY. the scene of considerable events; and it is not improbable that its nu-

* Compare Hanway's Travels in Persia, i. 239, who mentions Tashkund as the S. E. boundary of the Kirgufes, thus excluding Fergana. He confirms the account of the Mahometanism; and his description of their manners may be compared with that of Pallas. The east side of the Aral, which is high and rocky, is inhabited by the Karakulpacks, and other Tatars having a general resemblance of the Kirgufes. He computes the circumference of the Aral at 1000 B. miles, or thirty-five days' journey. His Jolbart seems to approach the royal tiger, if not a Tataric fiction. The narrator gives an account of the old channel of the Oxus, through a valley full of brushwood, and knee deep in stagnated water: and from p. 90. it appears that the Oxus, or at least a branch of it, formerly ran into the bay of Balkan, while another passed north by Urglienz. But it is probable that this large river always extended one or two branches to the sea of Aral.

In Adley's Voyages, iv. 536, this country is called Turkistan, being bounded on the south by Kharlam and Great Bucharia.

numerous deserts and plains may formerly have been more fertile, at least in pasturage. The gradual desiccation, observed in the southern steppes of Siberia, may warrant the conclusion that the hills and plains, on the north of the Caspian and Aral, anciently presented more numerous streams and richer verdure. However this be these regions have been held by successive nations of high repute, from the Massagetae of early times to the Turks. These last imparted the name of Turkistan, having migrated from their habitations near the mountains of Bogdo, adjoining to those of Altai, or the mountains of gold. In the sixth century these Turks, a grand branch of the Tatars, or Huns had already spread to the Caspian; while the Eygurs seem to have succeeded in their original seats. They soon after subdued the people of Sogdiana, and the Nephthalites of Great Bucharía, called in that ignorant age White Huns. As the Turks founded their first western settlements in the regions now held by the Kirguses, they thence received the name of Turkistan; the capital city being Otrar, and sometimes Taraz, also called Turkistan. From this centre of their power issued those Turkish armies, which have changed the destinies of so many nations. Little Bucharía was called Eastern Turkistan from a similar cause; but appears to have been first subdued by the Turks of Cathay on the N. W. of China. The Turks and Huns may be considered as one and the same Tataric race, totally unknown to Europeans till the appearance of the latter, who first passed the steppes, deserts, and mountains which had concealed them from classical observation till the fourth century. The Huns, who appeared about A. D. 375, by their peculiar features impressed the writers of the time as a new and unknown race, having seemingly passed in one course of depredation from Asia to Europe; while the Gothic and Slavonic nations had left many of their settlements vacant, in their progress into the Roman empire. But the Turks, though originally the same people, perhaps warned by the fate of their brethren, made a slow and gradual progress; and appear to have been mingled by marriages and conquests with the Slavonic and Gothic tribes, on the N. and E. of the Caspian. Such was the origin of the name of Turkistan; from which the Turks spread

spread desolation over the most beautiful countries of the east, and even threatened the liberties of Europe.

Before proceeding to Great Bucharia, it may be proper briefly to describe the country of Kharizm, which extends from the Gihon, or Amu, to the Caspian sea, bounded on the N. and S. by wide deserts, the chief town being now Khiva, but anciently Urghenz. This country is about 350 B. miles in length and breadth, and in the time of Zingis was a powerful kingdom, but at that time included Corasan, and a part of Great Bucharia. As Ptolemy has confounded the course of the rivers, and the appearance of the Caspian, it is difficult here to trace the real positions, but D'Anville supposes that this country was the Chorasmia of antiquity, and he supposes Corasan to have been the seat of the Parthians. In the tenth century Ebn Haukal calls this country Khuarezin, and says that the river Gihon flows into the lake of Khuarezin, while he terms the Caspian the sea of Khozr.* As that geographer had travelled in Great Bucharia, there is reason to conclude that the river Oxus or Gihon had, in all ages, its chief efflux into the sea of Aral, and only sent off inferior branches, in the manner of a delta, into the Caspian; for it is thus clear, that the accounts concerning the recent change of its course by the Uzbeks are erroneous; not to mention the improbability that a river, which runs about 850 B. miles, and is fed by such numerous streams, issuing from mountains of perpetual snow, should become thus inconsiderable.

The Russian travellers employed by the late empress unhappily did not visit the eastern shore of the Caspian, Great and Little Bucharia, and the country of the Kalmuks of Soongaria. But as frequent caravans pervade most of these regions, it is matter of surprise, as well as of regret, that no European traveller has explored their recesses, and that their geography remains in so imperfect a condition. It seems indubitable, that in Kharizm, as perhaps in many parts of Persia, the deserts have greatly increased; and if they proceed from the decomposition of hills of sand stone, this consequence must unavoidably follow.

* He also specially names Corasan, (Khorasan, p. 240.) and warns his reader not to confound it with Khuarezin.

KHARIZM. We may conclude that the Greeks and Romans were almost entirely ignorant of the eastern shores of the Caspian, and of the lake of Aral; though from the west they had some faint accounts of the Volga, and other rivers which flow into the north of that sea. Hence the encroachments of the desert on the kingdom of Kharizm cannot be computed from their accounts, but may be estimated from the historians of Zingis and Timur. At present this state is almost restricted to the district of Khiva, the circuit of which may be performed on horseback in three days; but there are five walled cities, or rather towns, within half a day's journey of each other." "The khan is absolute, and entirely independent of any other power, except the Mulla Bashî, or high priest, by whom he is controlled. The Kievinski Tartars differ very little from the Kirgeese, but surpass them in cunning and treachery. Their manners are the same, only that the Kirgeese live in tents, whilst the others inhabit cities and villages. Their only trade is with Bokhara and Persia, whether they carry cattle, furs, and hides, all which they have from the Kirgeese and Turkuman Tartars, who often prove very troublesome neighbours to them. The place itself produces little more than cotton, lamb-furs of a very mean quality, and a small quantity of raw silk, some of which they manufacture." The same author informs us, that the town of Khiva stands on a rising ground, with three gates, and a strong wall of earth, very thick, and much higher than the houses: there are turrets at small distances, and a broad deep ditch full of water. It occupies a considerable space, and commands a pleasant prospect of the adjacent plains, which the industry of the inhabitants (he probably means the natives, not the Tatars) has rendered very fertile; but the houses are low, mostly built with mud, the roofs flat, and covered with earth.

Urghenz. The city of Urghenz was in ruins, only a mosque remaining. The most southern town in the dominions of Khiva is Azarîst, or Hazarâsp, which adjoins to the great desert called Kara kum, or the Black Sands, for the deserts of central Asia are commonly of a black sand, with which

* Hanway, i. 241. The inhabitants are Turcomans and Uzbeks, besides the *Sarts*, perhaps another name for the Tadjiks. Bentink, p. 515.

† Ibid.

the river Indus above Attok is impregnated, while those of Africa are Khiva. red; both colours probably proceeding from a mixture of that universal metal, iron, in the particles of quartz, which constitute sand.

Khiva is said to stand at the distance of seventeen days from the Caspian sea, and from Orenburg thirty-three, computing the day's journey forty wersts.* In 1739 the khan of Khiva assembled an army of 20,000, to oppose Nadir, but the city surrendered at discretion.

Pallas informs us that the people of Khiva bring to Orenburg considerable quantities of raw cotton.[†] But the coasts of the Caspian are held by some remains of Turkomans in the north, and by Uzbeks in the south. The bay of Balkan is visited by Russian vessels: the isles yield rice and cotton, and one of them, Naphthonia, a considerable quantity of naphtha, the bed seeming thus to pass the sea from Baku in a S. E. direction; but they are inhabited by Turcoman pirates. A more Trade. considerable trade is maintained with Mangushlak, which our maps represent as standing at the egress of the river Tedjen; but, according to the learned Wahl, that river, and another which flows by Meshid, are received by an inland lake, the Kamyth Tethen, on the S. of the bay of Balkan; a circumstance which seems to be confirmed by the chart of the Caspian published by Hanway, in which the mouth of the Tedjen does not appear.† To the N. of the large bay of Balkan are the lake of Karabogas and another inlet, which is followed by the port of Alexander or Iskander.

As the merchants of Khiva brought gold and gems to Astrakan, probably from the two Bucharias, an idea was suggested to Peter the Great that these precious products were found in Kharizm, and he in consequence attempted a settlement. But the Russians, to the number of 3000, advancing under the command of a Circassian prince called

* Equal, by Hanway's account, to 27 B. miles: hence the distance of Khiva from the Caspian would be 459 B. miles, while our maps scarcely allow 300. That of Wahl seems more agreeable to Hanway's account.

† Dec. Russ. iii. 123.

‡ Wahl, probably after D'Anville, places Mangushlak far to the north, near the Dead Gulf, in the country of the Mank-uts, called Karakalpaks by the Russians. The map of Russia, 1787, gives the gulf of Mangushlak on the north of cape Kalagau. Colonel Bruce can deserve no credit in opposition to all the Russian accounts.

TRADE.

Beckawitz, towards Khiva, were all cut off by the Uzbeks.* It has been said that upon this occasion these Tatars changed the course of the Khesel, which formerly fell into the Caspian;† but as this river is on the E. of the Gihon, it is clear that it could not pass that river to join the Caspian; and we have already seen that the Gihon in the tenth century flowed into the Aral. It is not improbable that, before the deserts encroached on Kharizm, one or two rivers may have run to the Caspian from the east; or perhaps these fables may arise from one or two small branches of the Amu having joined that sea. As the larger rivers chiefly belong to Great Bucharia, they are reserved for the description of that country.

The history of Kharizm has been ably illustrated by its king, or khan, Abulgazi, in his general history of the Tatars written about 1660. He was born in 1605, and elected khan 1643, after a long imprisonment in Persia. He died in 1663, revered as an excellent prince, and a man endowed with the rarest qualities.

Great
Bucharia.

By far the most important part of Independent Tatory is comprised under the name of GREAT BUCHARIA, generally supposed to have originated from the city of Bokhara, the first which the Persian merchants entered on visiting the country. It is part of the Touran of the ancient Persians, and was chiefly known to the Greeks and Romans by the names of Sogdiana and Bactriana; the former being the Mawer-ahnahar, or country beyond the river, of oriental geography; while Bactriana corresponds with Balk, and thus belongs to Iran, not to Touran. From the second son of Zingis it received the name of Zagathai. By the Byzantine historians the people are called Ephthalites, or corruptly Nephthalites, a name derived from the Oxus or Amu, by the

* Hanway, Colonel Bruce, and Bell, all vary in their account of the circumstances, and evince how idle it would be to alter maps on the reports of any single traveller.

† Atley, iv. 477; but that work, an amazing labour for one man, is not free from mistakes. See Ebn Haukal, p. 240—44, for a curious account of Kharizm in the tenth century, from which it appears that streams or branches ran from the Gihon near Hazaratp, which probably ended in the supposed mouths of that river in the Caspian. He says the sea of Kharizm is 400 miles in circuit, and besides the Gihon receives the Chaje, that is the river of Shalh or the Sihou; p. 265.

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Persians styled Abtelah, or the river of gold. Those Byzantine writers, who affect to imitate classical language, call the Ephthalites White Huns; as with them all the eastern barbarians were Scythians or Huns; whence their accounts require constant elucidation from the Chinese and other oriental memorials, and particularly from the exact account of the nations in northern Asia, which has been given by Pallas, and other recent travellers.

GREAT
BUCHARIA.

Great Bucharìa extends more than 700 B. miles in length from N. to S by a medial breadth, if Fergana be included, of about 350, thus rather exceeding Great Britain in size, but much inferior to the country called Little Bucharìa. The northern boundary appears to be the mountains of Argun; but Isleneiff seems to restrict it to the river Syr or Sihon, ascending however with that river on the N. E. where it borders with Kharizm. On the western side a desert, the river Amu, and other deserts, divide Bucharìa from Kharizm and Corasan: while on the S. and E. the mountains of Gaur, or Paropamisus, the Hindoo Koh, and the chain of Belur, are perpetual barriers.*

Extent and
Boundaries.

The original population of this country was Scythian, like that of Persia, and the natives are still denominated by the same Tataric term of Tadjiks, which the barbarous victors assigned to the Persians. The history of this celebrated country might be traced from the earliest periods, as the seat and source of the most ancient Persian monarchy, the king being engaged in repeated wars with those of Touran, or the Scythians on this side and beyond the Imaus, whose queen Thomyris is said to have slain Cyrus in battle.† But this region became better known, after the progress of Alexander as far as Cojend on the Serr, inferred with great probability to be the *Alexandria ultima*, and the furthest limit of his course towards the north. The history of the Greek monarchy in Bactriana, and of the Grecian colonies in Hindostan, may be traced in the learned work of Bayer. After the Mahometan conquest of Persia in

History.

* The northern part of this chain is also named Terek; and Wahl restricts the name of Belur to the middle, while he calls the southern part which joins the Hindu Koh, Alak, or Divlaran, or Siah Humend. Pallas, Dec. Ruff. iii. 379, calls this the Alatanian chain, running north from India.

† Rather queen of the Massagetz, a different people, in the plains on the north of the Caspian.

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Persians

HISTORY. the seventh century, the history of this country becomes sufficiently clear; and the historians of Zingis and Timur throw a steady light, which is continued by Abulgazi. In 1494 Sultan Baber, a descendant of Timur, was with his Monguls expelled from Great Bucharia; and proceeding into Hindostan, there founded the Mogul power. The Tatarian victors, called Uzbeks, established a powerful monarchy in Bucharia, and successive khans held the sceptre from 1494 to 1658, soon after which period this great and fertile country appears to have been divided into several denominations, under numerous khans. In 1741 the city of Bokhara, with a small territory around it, constituted all the monarchy of one of these khans.¹⁰ Nadir first distinguished himself in Corasan, in combats with the Uzbeks. The province of Gaur, as already mentioned, is subject to the kings of Candahar; but Balk and Samarcand appear to remain subject to their own Uzbek khans. In the deficiency of recent accounts, it can only be conjectured that the chief powers of this country are the khan of Balk in the S. and of Samarcand in the N.

Religion. The religion of the Uzbeks and Bucharians is the Mahometan of the Sunni sect, and the government of the khans despotic. There is no precise evidence of the state of the population, which consists of the Tatars and of the Bucharians. It is probable that upon an emergency an army might be mustered of 100,000; but though Nadir reduced Bokhara and Khiva, he seems to have respected Balk and Samarcand, considering them as allied states, which furnished him with the best troops in his army: and he even regarded himself as a Tatar, not as a Persian. There is no statement of the revenue of these fertile provinces. From an account published by Hanway of the revenues of Nadir, it appears that Corasan yielded half a million sterling annually, being equal to that of Erivan, and superior to any other Persian province. It is probable that the revenue of Great Bucharia is at least equal to that of Corasan. Were the kings of Candahar to form any enterprize against our possessions in Hindostan, an alliance with the khans of Bucharia might prove more useful than with western Persia.

¹⁰ Hanway, i. 242.

The manners and customs of the Uzbeks are similar to those of the other Tatars: but they are supposed to be the most spirited and industrious of these barbarians. Though many reside in tents in the summer, yet in winter they inhabit the towns and villages. They are, however, addicted to make sudden inroads into the Persian provinces. Those of Balk are the most civilized, and carry on a considerable trade with Persia and Hindostan. The native Bucharians, or Tadjiks, are comparatively fair, and correspond, in elegance of form and features, with those of Little Bucharia, whom they also resemble in the mode of dress.* The Bucharians, as before mentioned, never bear arms. The Uzbeks, on the contrary, are no strangers to the use of the musket; and it is said that even their women, who surpass those of the other Tatars in beauty, are not averse to warfare, but will sometimes attend their husbands to the field. The language is Zagathaian, that is, Turkish or Turkomanic; but that of the Bucharians, a curious topic, has never been investigated, though it be probably Persian, like their physiognomy, but intermingled with Turkish, Mongolian, and even Hindoo terms. The literature of Great Bucharia would furnish an ample theme, Samarcand having been a celebrated school of oriental science, cultivated even by monarchs, as Ulug Beg and others: it was still, in the beginning of last century, the most celebrated of Mahometan universities."

MANNERS
AND
CUSTOMS.

The cities in Great Bucharia generally give name to the provinces, or receive their appellations from them. In the north the province of Fergana appears, from the map of Islenicff, to be subject to the Kirguses of the Greater Hord; and of Andegan, its capital, there is no recent account. The other chief provinces are the western part of Shash, and a district called by D'Anville Ofrushna, from a town of the same name. † The most fertile and celebrated province is that of Sogd, so called from the river which pervades it. Next are Vash, Kotlan, and Kilan. Belur is the general name for the Alpine region which divides this country from Little Bucharia; and it seems very dubious if there be any town of that name, though Strahlenberg have introduced it into his

Provinces.

* See the prints in Astley, iv. 483, and the Persia of Elzevir.

† Bentinck on Abulgazi, p. 279.

† The Setrushteh of Ebn Haukal, p. 261, if the name be right.

map.

The

PROVINCES. map. Tokarestan and Gaur are the most southern provinces. Marco Polo mentions some others, which would require a special dissertation to ascertain; and perhaps the best mode of illustrating that author would be, without any attention to his progress or arrangement, first to specify those parts of his chorography which are certain, and then proceed to discuss the other provinces and cities; for either the copies are sometimes corrupt, or his memory has deceived him in the positions, as he happened to visit them on his route or his return.*

Cities.
Samarcand.

The chief city of Great Bucharia is Samarcand, on the southern bank of the river Sogd, which, at the distance of above a hundred miles, after washing the walls of Bokhara, passes through a considerable lake, and is supposed to join the Oxus or Amu. Milton has used a poetic licence when he says,

“ From Samarcand by Oxus, Temir's throne.”

Of this celebrated capital there is no recent account, but it seems greatly to have declined since the time of Timur, the festivities of whose court, at his palace here, and villas in the vicinity, have been so well described by his Persian historian. Towards the beginning of the last century, Bentinck says that Samarcand was fortified with ramparts of turf, the houses being mostly of hardened clay, though some were of stone, from quarries in the neighbourhood. The khan of Great Bucharia commonly encamped in the adjacent meadows, the castle being almost ruinous. The excellence of the paper made of silk recommended it to all the countries of the east: and it is supposed that we derive this invention

* His Bascia is doubtless the southern part of Balk, from the mountains of Belur to the river Morgab, the region which, as he mentions, produces Balay rubies. The chief city is now Badakshan. See Otter, and Af. Ref. v. 43. But Bascia, if Vash, is to the north; and Cheshour, undoubtedly Cashmir, must be computed from Balacia, not Bascia. Voeham was four days' journey N. E. from Balacia, or about 100 miles towards the mountains of Belur, and is perhaps Kodan. Chafgar is clearly Cashgar, after passing the Belur alps. The chapter concerning Samarcand should be placed after Bascia. Karchan seems Yarcand, or some other city on the W. of Koton (Cotam). Peim or Peyu, and Ciartiam, may, if a former conjecture be allowed, be Payu and Sachou in the jesuic maps. His town of Lop stands immediately on the W. of the great desert five days *backward*, or to the W. of Ciartiam. Here all is confusion except Cara Lop being added. The desert was of thirty days. Sachou seems to be Southcon, the first town in China. Dr Forster, in his Voyages to the North, seems often erroneous; but his ideas will be found useful by any future investigator.

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from Samarcand.* The rich vale of Sogd produced such abundance of CITISE. exquisite grapes, melons, pears, and apples, that they were sent to Persia, and even to Hindostan.

Bokhara, on the same river, has repeatedly contested the metropolitan Bokhara. dignity with Samarcand. When visited by the English agents in 1741, it was a large and populous city, subject to its khan; standing on a rising ground, with a slender wall of earth; the houses of clay, but the numerous mosks of brick.¹¹ The citizens manufactured soap and calico; and the chief products were cotton, rice, cattle. From the Kalmuks they received rhubarb and musk; and from Badakshan, the capital of a country so called, they used to receive lapis lazuli, and other precious stones; that city being computed at sixteen days' journey from Bokhara. There was gold and copper coin: and after Nadir took this city, the Persian and Indian silver became common. The inhabitants were civilized, but perfidious. In the tenth century it was distinguished by the manufacture of fine linen; and Ebn Haukal adds, that there was in the vicinity a mountain called Zarcab, which passed between Samarcand and Keth, and thence by the border of Fergana to the confines of Cheen; meaning the Ak Tau, or white mountain.

Balk is a distinguished city on the river Dehash, which flows into the Balk. Amu from the southern mountains of Gaur or Paropamisus, probably, as in the beginning of the last century, still subject to its particular khan of the Uzbeks; being then the most considerable of all their cities, large and populous, with houses of brick or stone; while the castle or palace consisted almost entirely of marble from the neighbouring mountains. This beautiful city was an object of ambition to the neighbouring powers of Persia and Hindostan; but was secure, not only from their mutual jealousy, but from the difficult access through high mountains on one side, and deserts on the other. The people were the most civilized of all the Tatars, and beautiful silks were prepared from the product of the country, which seems then to have included the whole of Great Bucharia to the S. of the Amu, which in this part of its course is also

* This manufacture is said to have been known A. D. 650. Ouseley's Ebn Haukal, p. 300. The same work may be consulted for the state of this great city in the tenth century.

¹¹ Hanway, i. 242.

CITIES. called the Harrat. It is the chief seat of the trade between Bucharia and Hindostan.

Other Cities. Zouf, which is also called Gaur, from the province of which it is the capital, is said to be now subject to the kingdom of Candahar; and Bamian, in the same province, must have shared the same fate. The latter city was remarkable for numerous images, and other monuments, carved in the adjacent mountains. Anderab is the chief city of Tokarestan,* near a pass through the mountains of Hindoo Koh, strictly guarded by the khan of Balk. In the neighbourhood of this city were rich quarries of lapis lazuli, a substance with which Great Bucharia seems chiefly to have supplied the ancient and modern world.

Badakshan. Not far to the north stands Badakshan, on the river Amu or Harrat. In the last century this city belonged to the khan of Great Bucharia, or rather of Samarcand; and being secluded in a branch of the Belur alps, was used as a state prison for rivals or insurgents. Badakshan was small, but well built and populous; and its inhabitants were enriched by the gold, silver, and rubies found in the neighbourhood; the grains of gold and silver abounding in the torrents which descend from the mountains, when the snow melts in the beginning of summer.¹² Several caravans for Little Bucharia and China pass by this city; but others prefer the route by Little Tibet, on the eastern side of the mountains.† Ebn Haukal mentions that there were not only mines of rubies and lazulite near Badakshan, but that there was abundance of musk.

Kotlan or Khotlan is the capital of a province so called, but otherwise seems little memorable. Termed, situated on the Amu, is scarcely known in modern accounts; and in general the northern cities seem greatly to have declined under the domination of the Uzbeks.

**Manufac-
tures.**

The chief manufactures have been already mentioned in the account of the cities. Besides the caravans to Persia, Hindostan, and China, some trade is carried on with the Russians, the Bucharian merchants not

* In Ebn Haukal's time it was Taiken, the Taican of Polo, p. 224.

¹² Bentink on Abulgazi, p. 55.

† See the journey of Goez, Atley, iv. 644. The pass to Little Bucharia is thirty-three days' journey to the north, perhaps about the latitude of Andegand or Kojend; but the province of *Sarikhil* is a desideratum in geography.

only furnishing their own products, but others from the eastern countries to which they trade.

The climate in general appears to be excellent, the heat even of the southern provinces being tempered by the high mountains capped with perpetual snow; and though situated in the parallel of Spain, Greece, and Asiatic Turkey, the proximity of the Siberian deserts, and the lofty alps, render the summer more temperate. The face of the country presents a great variety; but though there are numerous rivers, hills, and mountains, there seems to be a deficiency of wood.* Near the rivers the soil is very productive, so that the grass sometimes exceeds the height of a man; and in some parts considerable industry is shewn in the cultivation of rice and other grain. In any other hands but those of the Tatars, this country might rival any European region.

The chief rivers of Independent Tataria are the Amu and the Sirr. The former is the ancient Oxus, and near its source is called the Harrat: oriental geographers also term it the Gilhoon, as they call the Sirr the Sihoon;† but as the proximity of the appellations must frequently occasion confusion and mistakes, they had better be dismissed from geography, being probably extraneous and Arabic, while the native words are the Harrat or Amu; and the Sirr, Sirt, or river of Shash.

The Amu rises in the mountains of Belur, more than 200 B. miles N. E. from Badakshan, according to the map of Islenief; and before it reach that city has already received the Ortong from the E. From Badakshan it passes W. to Termed, after receiving numerous streams from the Ak Tau on the N. (among which the most considerable is the Vash,) and from the Hindoo Koh on the S. After being joined from the same quarter by the Dehash, or river of Balk, with collected streams from the mountains of Gaur, the Amu follows a N. W. direction, and falls into the sea of Aral, which appears as before mentioned, to have been in all ages its chief receptacle, though a branch formerly passed by Urghez towards the Caspian, and another seems to have been detached

* It is probable there may be large forests on the western side of the Belur, as Bentink, p. 258, says that timber abounds.

† In Arabic Gihon and Sihon are the rivers of paradise mentioned in scripture; and this country may well have been the cradle of a part of the human race

RIVERS.

near Hazarasp; nay, in a country full of deserts, and only partially visited, even the mouth of the Ochus or Tedjen has by some been confounded with the Amu. The whole course of this noble river surpasses that of the Tigris, being probably not less than 900 B. miles. It abounds with fish of various sorts.

Besides the numerous tributary streams already mentioned, three remarkable rivers join the Amu; the Sogd or river of Samarcand, already mentioned; the Morgab, which, however, according to some, is lost in a lake without any outlet to the Amu; and at its estuary the Kizil Daria, or Red River, the longest and most considerable stream, and of which a branch seems to flow apart into the Aral.

Sirr.
Iaxartes.

The Sirr, or river of Shash, also rises in the mountains of Belur, and falls into the eastern side of the sea of Aral, after a course of about 550 B. miles. Ebn Haukal, who gives a curious account of these regions in the tenth century, calls this river the Chaje. According to Islenieff the furthest source of the Sirr is the river Narin, which rises to the S. of the lake Tuzkul in the chain of Alak, near its junction with the Belur Alps; and by the account of Pallas, the source is near that of the river Talas. The Narin itself consists of numerous streams collected from the ridges of Alak and Argun, bending to the S. while the other rivers in this quarter flow in a north direction; but the Sirr, peculiarly so called in the map of Islenieff, rises in the mountains of Terek Daban, or northern part of the Belur chain, where it joins that of Alak. After passing Andegan and Cojend, the Sirr or Iaxartes runs N. W. by Tathkund and Tuncat, where it is joined by a considerable river from the E. At Otrar it receives the river Taraz, which by some is supposed to be the same with the Talas above mentioned; but by others a far more inconsiderable stream. The remaining course of the Sirr is chiefly through the desert of Barzuk; and it is doubtful if it be joined by the Sarafu, a large river from the N. so imperfect is the geography of these regions, which it is to be regretted that the Russians, or some enterprising travellers, do not investigate.

In the country possessed by the Three Hords of Kirguses are also other considerable streams, as the Dzui, which rises on the N. of the lake Tuzkul; and the Irghez and Turgai, which flow into a lake on the

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N. of the Aral; not to mention the Iffim, pervading the stepp of the RIVERS. same name. Several of these lakes and rivers, now obscure, are remarkable in the history of Zingis and his successors, when directing their conquests to the N. of the Caspian, they subdued the greater part of European Russia.

The most considerable lake is the sea of Aral, or of eagles, already Lakes. mentioned in the general view of Asia. If this lake ever joined the Aral. Caspian it was probably only by a strait, as between them are plains of great elevation, and according to some even mountains; but there may have been a strait in the direction of a salt lake to the N. E. of port Ifcander. To infer that the Iaxartes once passed in this direction seems an idle theory; for as it appears from Pallas that the Caspian was anciently far more extensive, it is more probable that the Aral should have formed part of the Caspian, than that it should be a lake of recent formation. It is sufficiently clear, from other circumstances, that the Greeks and Romans knew nothing with precision concerning the eastern shores of the Caspian, and Pliny has acknowledged the defect: and it is a vain attempt to reconcile modern knowledge with ancient ignorance. The lake Tengis, Balcash, or Palcati, is near 140 B. miles in length, by half Balcash. that breadth, being the largest lake in Asia, after the seas of Aral and Baikal; but this, with two other very considerable lakes to the E. properly belong to the Kalmuks subject to China. The lakes in the country of the Kirguses are of less moment. In the southern regions of Great Bucharia the river Sogd springs from the lake of Tharan, and according to some is lost in that of Karagol. A lake at the foot of the Belur is represented by some as the source of the Ortong which flows into the Amu. The Morgab and Tedjen, rivers of Corasan, are, according to some, lost in lakes. When travellers explore the mountainous region between Great and Little Bucharia, it is probable that many lakes may be discovered, as not unusual in alpine countries.

The principal range of mountains is that of Belur, which, according Mountains. to all accounts, is a great alpine chain, covered with perpetual snow.* Belur.

It

* The Mus Tag of General Strahlenberg's map is a chain running parallel to the Belur, (also, as he says, called *Bolut*) on the E. But that map, though surprizing for the time, swarms with

MOUNTAINS. It is to be hoped that the eye of science will soon explore its recesses, which, as we have seen, will prove very productive in objects of natural history. The chief branches proceed towards the W. for on the E. is the high central plain of Asia, full of deserts, as if nature had here performed her earliest operations, when this first and greatest continent emerged from the primeval waters, and its great height had afterwards drawn its fertility into the plains of China and Hindostan. Of this extensive table-land the Belur may be regarded as the western buttress, continued by the mountains of Jimbal and Kifik Tag to the Altaian chain, which forms the northern buttress on the S. of the sea of Baikal. On the E. this plain gradually declines from the sources of the Onon and Kerlon, and the S. limit of the desert of Shamo, while the numerous alps of Tibet, to which country there is a gradual ascent from China, form the southern and excrecent buttress. Except in some few places, sheltered from the N. and E. this extensive elevation is exposed to extreme cold, the reverse of the deserts of Africa. It is intersected with great ranges of mountains, whose height must be enormous superadded to that of the bases; the western parts in particular, between Siberia and Tibet, abound with irregular ridges of naked rocks, presenting as it were the ruins of mountains.

Other Mountains.

The chain of Belur, the ancient Imaus, proceeds nearly N. and S. and is continued by the mountains of Alak or Alak Oola on the N. of Little Bucharia,* which join the great Bogdo, the highest mountain in central Asia, according to the reports of the Monguls and Tatars. On the S. the Belur seems more intimately connected with the Hindoo Koh than with the northern ridges of Tibet. The Hindoo Koh, and

with errors; and even here he says that this part of the Mus Tag is the same with Paropamisus, which is well known to be the mountains of Gaur, running E. and W. His other Mus Tag is therefore right, as appears from the maps of Wald and Ilkicff, being in fact the Tataric name for the northern ridge of Tibet.

* The Alak Oola is the Ula Gola of Strahlenberg, which he confounds with the Ungan Dags, and his Musart is part of the Alak of Ilkicff. Wald and others have taken many names at random from his map, which is valuable as it gives us the first ideas of central Asia; and a comparison between it and the modern maps might afford matter for an interesting geographical commentary. Sarikol, and other names in Little Bucharia, have been rather rashly adopted from Strahlenberg into our English maps.

mountains

mountains of Gaur. must not be forgotten among those of Great Bucha-^{MOUNTAINS.}ria, being seemingly an extension of the chain of Belur, without any interruption, except a narrow pass to the S. of Anderab. The mountains of Argjun or Argun seem to form one chain with the Kara Tau, though broken, as not unusual, by the transition of a river; and, like the Ak Tau in the S. appear a branch detached from the Belur. In the country of the Kirguses the Kisik Tag is probably an expiring branch of the great Altaian chain, like the Bugli Tag in the N. To the S. of the desert range called Algidym Zana, a solitary mountain, the Ulu Tau, is delineated by Islenieff, probably that mentioned by Pallas, as a singular hill, in the midst of the Tatarian deserts, like that of the little Bogdo in the stepp in the E. of the Volga.*

Neither the botany nor zoology of this country have been explored by any intelligent naturalist. We have seen that the alpine regions present many of the animals of Tibet. The mineralogy is not so obscure, though the Mongols and Tatars, who may be said to have possessed this country for a thousand years, have not industry for the proper pursuit of metalurgy. The alpine heights in the S. E. contain gold, silver, and a peculiar production, the balay, or pale rose coloured ruby; not to mention lazulite, or lapis lazuli. In the tenth century, before the native industry had expired under long oppression, Fergana produced sal ammoniac, vitriol, iron, copper, † gold, and turkoises; and quicksilver is added, a rare and valuable product. In the mountain of Zarka there were springs of naphtha and bitumen, and "a stone that takes fire and burns," which must imply coal. In the country of Setrushteh, D'Anville's Ofruthna, there was a cavern, whence a vapour arose, which in the night seemed fiery, and from which sal ammoniac was procured. On digging the ground a similar vapour would arise, as we are told of the fires near Baku. In the mountains of Atak or Ilak, the most northern province around Otrar, there were mines of gold and silver. This venerable father of Arabian geography has compensated

Mineralogy.

* From this mountain Timur beheld the vast stepp, waving like a sea of grass. Cherefeddin, ii. 81. edit. 1722.

† Ebn Haukal. He adds, p. 272, lead; and says that the chief mines of Fergana were in the mountains of Afshreh, perhaps the Chechalith of Goetz. two days from the province of Sarchil.

for.

mountains

MINERA-
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for the penury of his information respecting natural history, by an animated character of this country and its people, which may be here introduced, as a relief from the dryness of some of the details, unavoidable in describing a country highly celebrated, but the geography of which unaccountably remains the most defective of any in Asia, with the single exception of interior Arabia.

Character.

“ Such are the generosity and liberality of the inhabitants, that no one turns aside from the rites of hospitality; so that a person contemplating them in this light, would imagine *that all the families of the land were but one house*. When a traveller arrives there every person endeavours to attract him to himself, that he may have opportunities of performing kind offices for the stranger: and the best proof of their hospitable and generous disposition is, that every peasant, though possessing but a bare sufficiency, allots a portion of his cottage for the reception of a guest. On the arrival of a stranger they contend one with another for the pleasure of taking him to their home, and entertaining him. Thus, in acts of hospitality, they expend their incomes. The author of this work says, ‘ I happened once to be in Soghd, and there I saw a certain palace, or great building, the doors of which were fastened back with nails against the walls. I asked the reason of this, and they informed me that it was an hundred years and more since those doors had been shut, all that time they had continued open day and night, strangers might arrive there at the most unseasonable hours, or in any numbers, for the master of the house had provided every thing necessary both for the men and for their beasts; and he appeared with a delighted and joyful countenance when the guests tarried a while. Never have I heard of such things in any other country. The rich and great lords of most other places expend their treasures on particular favourites, in the indulgence of gross appetites, and sensual gratifications. The people of Maweralnahr employ themselves in a useful and rational manner: they lay out their money in erecting caravan-ferais, or inns, building bridges and such works. You cannot see any town or stage, or even desert, in Maweralnahr, without a convenient inn or stage-house, for the accommodation of travellers, with every thing necessary. I have heard that there are above two thousand rebats,

or

or inns in Maweralnahr, where as many persons as may arrive shall find sufficient forage for their beasts, and meat for themselves.

“ The author of the book further says, ‘ I have heard from a respectable person who was with Nasser Ahmed, in the war of Samarcand, that of all his immense army the greater part were men of Maweralnahr ; and I have heard that Motafer wrote a letter to Abdallah ben Taher. The answer of Abdallah was, that in Maweralnahr there are three hundred thousand Kulabs : each Kulab furnishes one horseman and one foot-soldier ; and the absence of these men, when they go forth, is not felt, or is not perceptible in the country. I have heard that the inhabitants of Chaje and Ferghaneh are so numerous, and so well disciplined, and furnished with implements of war, that they are not to be equalled in any region of Islam. And among the lower classes there are farmers who possess from one hundred to five hundred head of cattle. Notwithstanding all this, there are not any people more obedient to their kings ; and at all times the Turk soldiers had the precedence of every other race, and the Khalifs always chose them on account of their excellent services, their obedient disposition, their bravery, and their fidelity.’

“ Maweralnahr has produced so many great princes and generals, that no region can surpass it. The bravery of its inhabitants cannot be exceeded in any quarter of the Mussulman world. Their numbers and their discipline give them an advantage over other nations, which, if an army be defeated, or a body of troops lost at sea, cannot furnish another army for a considerable time ; but in all Maweralnahr, should such accidents happen, one tribe is ready to supply the losses of another without any delay.

“ In all the regions of the earth there is not a more flourishing or a more delightful country than this, especially the district of Bokhara. If a person stand on the Kohendiz (or ancient castle) of Bokhara, and cast his eyes around, he shall not see any thing but beautiful and luxuriant verdure on every side of the country ; so that he would imagine the green of the earth and the azure of the heavens were united : and as there are green fields in every quarter, so there are villas interspersed

CHARACTER. among the green fields. And in all Khorasan and Maweralnahr there are not any people more long-lived than those of Bokhara.

' It is said that in all the world there is not any place more delightful (or salubrious) than those three: one, the Soghd of Samarcand; another, the Rud Aileh; and the third, the Ghutah of Damascus.' But the Ghutah of Damascus is within one farsang of barren and dry hills, without trees; and it contains many places which are desolate, and produce no verdure. ' A fine prospect ought to be such as completely fills the eye, and nothing should be visible but sky and green.' The river Aileh * affords, for one farsang only, this kind of prospect; and there is not in the vicinity of it any eminence from which one can see beyond a farsang; and the verdant spot is either surrounded by, or opposite to a dreary desert. But the walls, and buildings, and cultivated plains of Bokhara, extend above thirteen farsang, by twelve farsang; and the Soghd, for eight days' journey, is all delightful country, affording fine prospects, and full of gardens, and orchards, and villages, corn fields, and villas, and running streams, reservoirs, and fountains, both on the right hand, and on the left. You pass from corn fields into rich meadows, and pasture lands; and the Soghd is far more healthy than the Rud Aileh, or the Ghutah of Dameshk (or Damascus); and the fruits of Soghd are the finest in the world. Among the hills and palaces flow running streams, gliding between the trees." "

* From the editor's preface, p. xv, it appears that this is the Ablah, or Ubbulah, near Basra or Bassora, about sixteen miles to the E. of that city.

" Ebn Haukal, by Sir Wm. Ouseley, p. 234.

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CHAPTER I.

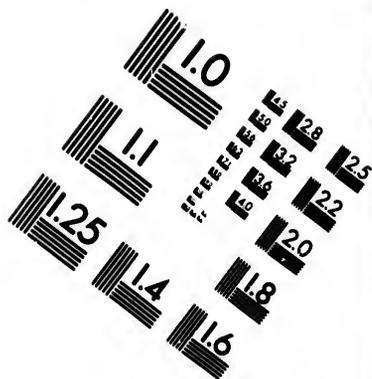
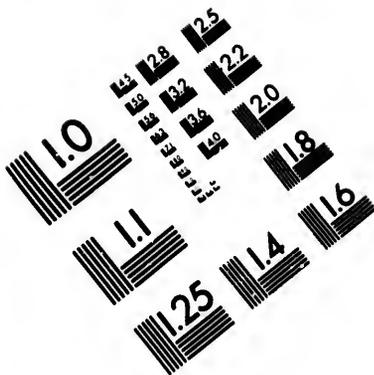
Boundaries.—Population.—Progressive Geography.—Historical Epochs.—Religion.—Government.—Manners and Customs.—Dress.—Language.—Education.—Cities and Towns.—Edifices.—Manufactures.—Products.—Commerce.

THE last remaining country of the wide Asiatic continent is Arabia, a region also more highly celebrated than precisely known. By the ancients it was divided into three unequal portions; Petraea, or the Stony, a small province on the N. of the Red sea, between Egypt and Palestine, so called from the number of granitic rocks and mountains, the most remarkable of which is Sinai: Arabia Deserta was the eastern part, so far as known to the ancients; while Arabia the Happy comprised the S. W. on the shores of the Red sea.

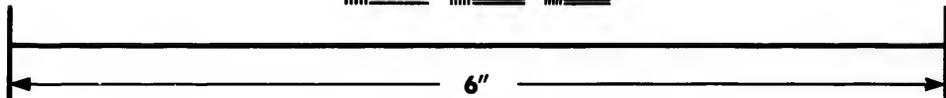
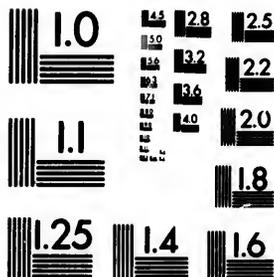
The boundaries on the W. and S. are marked by the Red sea, or Arabian gulf, and the Indian ocean; while the Persian gulf extends a considerable way on the E. and this boundary is considered as continued by the Euphrates, or rather by the deserts towards the west, for the ancient Chaldea, a part of Babylonia, comprised the western shores of that river. The northern limits are less strongly marked; but both in ancient and modern times rise to an angle about a hundred miles to the E. of Palmyra, which is not included in Arabia. Thence the line proceeds S. W. to the S. E. angle of the Mediterranean, a northern boundary of Arabia Petraea.

From the cape of Babelmandeb to the extreme angle on the Euphrates, the length may be not less than 1800 B. miles; while the medial breadth may be about 800.





**IMAGE EVALUATION
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BOUNDARIES.

The central part of Arabia is filled with the vast province, or rather desert, called Neged, occupying almost the whole country, except a few small portions towards the shores, as Hejaz on the Red sea, which contains Mecca and Medina, Yemen on the S. towards the straits of Babelmandeb; Hadramaut on the shores of the Indian ocean, and Omon on the S. of the entrance of the Persian gulf; with Lahfa, or Hajar, the Hejer of D'Anville, on the western shores of the same gulf.*

Population.

The population is original and indigenou, the Arabians being the same race with the Assyrians of remote antiquity, the probable fathers of the Syrians, and Abyssinians, whose languages are intimately allied, as is that of the Hebrews; being totally different in form and structure from that of the Persians, their powerful neighbours in the E. By all accounts, sacred and profane, the Assyrians were the most ancient civilized and commercial people; and when modern philosophy is divested of its prejudices, there will be no reason to infer superior pretensions from China, and far less from Hindostan. Nor will good sense readily admit that a nation more anciently civilized existed in the centre or north of Asia, the relics of civilization being numerous, and almost indelible. Situated in a country nearly central, between Asia, Africa, and Europe, and in the wide intercourse of the Mediterranean, and the Arabian and Persian gulfs, it was natural that the variety of productions and wants should occasion the first rise of commerce in Syria; and the merchants of Tyre had explored the shores of Britain, when the Chinese seem not to have discovered those of Japan, a circumstance which of itself declares a vast superiority in navigation, whence the like may be inferred of the other arts and sciences. The pretensions of the Hindoos have been already weighed, and confuted; that feeble and indolent race, passive in knowledge as in war, appearing to have received their confused ideas of the sciences from the east and from the west; while, according to the common rules of history, till China can produce one book as ancient as the scripture, her

* The curious reader may compare the interesting description of Arabia by Abulfeda, of which the best translation is in the *Voyage dans la Palestine* of D'Arvieux, Paris, 1717, 8vo. with Niebuhr's recent accounts.

claim must fall to the ground. This early civilization will excite the POPULATION
 less surprise, when it is considered that even the modern Arabians are
 a most sagacious and intelligent race of men, remarkable also for spirit
 and valour, whose country alone has never been subdued by any in-
 vader, and who alone, of all Asiatic nations, have preserved the sacred
 flame of freedom, which their progenitors kindled in their inaccessible
 mountains. In comparatively modern times they have vindicated the
 fame of their ancient pre-eminence by giving religion and laws to half of
 Asia, and Africa, and a great part of Europe. The Arabian califs in
 Spain, Africa, and Egypt, as well as at Bagdad, cultivated the arts and
 sciences; and shewed a great superiority to the barbarous powers of
 Europe at that period. From Samarcand to the centre of Africa the
 Arabian language and manners are held in veneration.

This distinguished country is known in the earliest records of history Progressive
 and geography; and being celebrated for products which could only be Geography.
 procured by navigation, must have been no stranger to mercantile en-
 terprize on its furthest shores towards the Indian ocean.* Strabo, and
 even Eratosthenes, appear to have known those southern coasts, though
 not so distinctly as those on the east of the Arabian gulf. Ptolemy's
 description of Arabia evinces a considerable portion of accurate know-
 ledge; and of the interior parts, as well as those of Africa, he probably,
 from his residence and opportunities in Egypt, had acquired a knowledge
 far superior to any possessed at the present moment. He has however
 greatly diminished the length of the Arabian gulf; and by increasing
 the size of the Persian has considerably injured the just form of the
 country, as delineated by the accuracy of modern observations. In the
 tenth century Ebn Haukal, though an Arab, gives no account of
 Arabia; whence it may perhaps be inferred that his work is mutilated;
 and only the part relative to Persia, and the countries beyond the Oxus,
 preserved by his Persian translator. But later Arabian geographers,
 particularly Abulfeda, in some degree compensate for this deficiency.
 Yet even the just geography of the shores is recent, and has been im-
 proved since the time of D'Anville, a name for extensive science, and
 exact industry, to be held in perpetual veneration. Niebuhr, to whom

* Hindoos, or Banians, are still numerous in Arabia, as appears from Niebuhr.

PROGRESSIVE GEOGRAPHY.

Historical Epochs.

we are indebted for the best account of this country, penetrated but a little way into the interior; and many discoveries here remain for the enterprising traveller: but the passage is extremely difficult, the country being divided among a surprising number of Imams, and Sheiks, who often carry on petty wars, or rob the traveller from pure regard, that he may not be robbed as he proceeds.

The historical epochs of this people might be traced from the Assyrian empire, the most ancient on record, the Assyrians being only a northern branch of the Arabs. But the history of interior Arabia is deeply obscure, till the time of Mahomet; and their traditional songs chiefly celebrate Antar, a hero renowned like the Rustan of the Persians.* Arabia never appears to have been united, either in a republic, or under one monarch, except in the time of Mahomet and his successors; and the traditions of the petty states cannot be interesting. The kingdom of Yemen, or the S. W. extremity, has been repeatedly subdued by the Abyssinians, the Persians, the Sultans of Egypt, and the Turks; being separated from the interior by deserts, as well as mountains: but the wide inland countries of Neged have defied all invasion, and, far from being conquered, are almost unknown; being supposed to have been, from the earliest times, divided among many Sheiks, or little princes, whose minute transactions have escaped historical record. Yet Niebuhr informs us that Arabian traditions faintly indicate that the whole country was subject, in the earliest times, to a race of monarchs called Tobba, like the Pharaohs of Egypt, worshippers of fire from the country of Samarcand, who vanquished Arabia, and introduced civilization. Niebuhr adds that an inscription was found in the interior which corresponded with the characters of Persepolis, whose founder is also said by the Persians to have come from Samarcand. But whatever credit be lent to the Tobba kings, it is sufficiently clear that the civilization of the Arabs arose on the contrary from themselves; the Assyrians and Egyptians having a more just and ancient claim to that distinction, than the countries on the E. of the Caspian. Nor is it improbable that

* Tradition also celebrates Saad el Kammel, said to have been king of all Arabia more than eighteen centuries ago. For old Arabian history, see Pocock's Specimen, 1650, 410.

† Gibbon ix. 229.

this

this tale was invented by the Arabs, after the conquests of Zingis and Timur, with whom they might thus seek a connection.

HISTORICAL
EPOCHS.

The Hamiar kings are also said to have ruled over great part of Arabia; but probably they only reigned in Hâdramaut, which includes the land of Hamiar, or of the Homorites. The history of Neged would be the most interesting, but as the Arabians, peculiarly so called, were destitute of letters till the age of Mahomet, it cannot be supposed to aspire to much antiquity. Arabia in general presents few ancient monuments.*

The ancient idolatry of Arabia has been explained by the writers on the life of Mahomet; and human sacrifices appear to have been offered by the natives of this country, as well as by their brethren the Syrians and Carthaginians. Sabianism afterwards spread from Chaldea. Nor was the Christian religion unknown before the appearance of Mahomet, whose system was soon diffused throughout Arabia. Besides the Sunnis there is here a considerable sect called the Zeidites, who in most points agree with the former, but seem rather more lax in their faith and practice. About the middle of the last century a Sheik of Yemen, called Mekkrami, established a kind of new sect of Mahometanism; and about the same period what may be called a new religion was commenced in the province El Ared, in the central division of Neged, by a learned traveller of that country called Abd ul Wahheb; which by the latest accounts begins to make considerable progress under his successors. He is said to have taught that God alone should be adored, and invoked: while the mention of Mahomet, or any other prophet he considered as approaching to idolatry. However this be, it is certain that the Sunnis are persecuted by this new sect; which is not matter of wonder when it is considered that the Sunnise system, followed by the Turks, is the most intolerant of the Mahometan sects, and seems to have no claim to superiority except that of the Turks over Mecca and Medina, now said to be in the possession of the Wahhebites.

Religion.

* On a journey in 1782 from Aleppo to Bassora, some grand ruins were discovered about half way between Palmyra and the Euphrates, six days journey S. E. from Aleppo, consisting of walls of brick and freestone, with pillars and arches richly ornamented, and an inscription in Arabic. Af. Ref. iv. 399.

† Niebuhr Descrip. de l'Arabie. Copenhag. 1773, 4to. p. 298.

This

GOVERN-
MENT.

This country is divided among numerous Imams and Sheiks, an idea of whose government may be drawn from that of Yemen which is described by Niebuhr. The title of *Imam* implying Vicar, that is of Mahomet, is ecclesiastic; and among the Turks denotes a common priest, while the Mulla presides in a court of justice. But among the Persians and Arabs the title Imam is of superior dignity, as the twelve Imams, or genuine successors of the prophet in Persia; while in Arabia the word is considered as synonymous with *Chalif*, and *Emir El Mumenin*, or Prince of the faithful.³ The antiquity of this title has not been explained, but the history of the Imams of Yemen is very modern; and though these Imams sometimes celebrate divine service, the style of Emir, which they themselves assume on their coins, seems more proper and precise. The inferior governments are conducted by Sheiks, a term merely implying old men, and seems rarely mingled with the ecclesiastic character.

The throne of Yemen is hereditary: and the Imam, or Emir, an independent power, acknowledging no superior in spiritual or temporal affairs.⁴ He possesses the prerogative of peace and war; but cannot be called despotic, as he cannot deprive even a Jew, or a Pagan of life, but the cause must be tried before the supreme tribunal of Sana, consisting of several Cadis, while he is only president. When an Emir shews a despotic disposition he is commonly dethroned. The next in rank are the Fakis, a title so lax as seemingly only to imply gentlemen. The governors of districts are called Dolas; or, if superior in birth, Walis. The Dola in some degree corresponds with the Turkish Pasha. The chief magistrate of a small town without a garrison is called Sheik; as a superior governor is sometimes called Emir, and in little villages Hakim. The Baskateb, or comptroller, is an officer who depends on the prince, and inspects the conduct of the Dola, and the management of the revenues. In each district there is also a Cadi; who, like those in Turkey, are judges of ecclesiastic and civil affairs; and perhaps depend on the chief Cadis at Sana, as those of Turkey on the Mufti; but in Arabia the prince himself is the high priest. His army, in peace, was computed at 4000 infantry, and 1000 cavalry; the soldiers being,

³ Niebuhr, 162.⁴ Ib. 179.

as usual in the east, without uniforms. There is no navy, and the vessels in general are very rudely constructed, those of Yemen having sails made of matting. GOVERN-
MENT.

Were Arabia united under one sovereign, as happened in the time of Mahomet and his immediate successors, its political importance may be inferred from the events of that period. Yet even then little is known, except with regard to the nations and tribes on the western shores, and on the northern frontiers towards Syria and Persia. There is, however, reason to infer that the internal province of Neged presents extensive deserts like those of Persia and Africa, in which case the former provinces in fact include the whole power of Arabia. But as an accurate idea of this subject, so far as the imperfect materials will admit, is indispensable in forming a just estimate of this extensive country, Niebuhr's short account of Neged may be here inserted.³

"This large country extends from Lahsa, or Hajar, and Irak Arabi, Neged. on the E. to Hejaz; and from Yemen on the S. to the deserts of Syria on the N. The greatest part of this province is inhabited by Beduins, or wandering Arabs. The part which is particularly known under the name of Neged is mountainous, yet full of towns and villages, as well as of little lordships, so that almost every little town is governed by an independent Sheik. Nevertheless, at the time when the Sherefs were more powerful, several of these little Sheiks have been sometimes obliged to pay tribute to Mecca. The mountainous parts of Neged are very fertile in all sorts of fruits, particularly dates. There are few rivers, and even that which is marked in the map of D'Anville (the Aftan) is only a *wadi*, or a torrent which runs after heavy rains. For this cause the Arabs of this country are obliged to dig very deep wells; and the want of water renders agriculture very laborious.

"There are in the province of Neged, properly so called, two principal districts, namely, Ared and Kerjé. The former borders on Hajar, or Lahsa, to the east; and presents a district called Hanifa, anciently celebrated, and still known by the same name. The dependencies are Aijana, a town which produced Wahheb the new prophet, and Mun-

³ Niebuhr, p. 296, the names are given in the orthography of Gibbon, ix. 222.

GOVERN-
MENT,

foha." Niebuhr mentions other towns of Ared, among which is Jebrin, on the confines of Lahfa.

"The province of Kerjé is in the S. W. part of Neged, and of course on the frontiers of Yemen: it extends along the E of Hejaz, a considerable way to the N. Here is the town of Imama, which in the time of Mahomet was renowned for the prophet Mofellama, in the district called Surza. This province also comprises other towns, among which is Salemia on the confines of Yemen. Mount Schamer, ten days journey from Bagdad, is in the northern part of Neged [and its precincts display several towns mentioned by Niebuhr*]. In Neged there is also a hilly country called Jof al Siran, between mount Schamer, and Sham, or Syria: it contains two towns, Skake and Duma.

"The Arabs of Neged are not more inhuman towards strangers than the rest of their nation, nor less hospitable; but as this country contains so many little independent states, each governed by a Sheik, it may be easily conceived that travellers here find little security. Each prince endeavours to get from them all he can; and as they are commonly at war with each other, strangers are despoiled by the first, that his neighbours may not be the richer. Hence opulent foreign merchants cannot hazard their caravans in these regions; and those that come from Omon and Lahfa to Mecca are generally composed of beggars, or people who wish to pass for such: and the caravan which every year leaves Bagdad for Mecca, accompanied with many rich Persians, is in proportion to its number, charged with similar expences and extortions as those of Turkey, Egypt, and Magreb, which pass by Hejaz. Yet there is room to believe that the towns of Neged carry on a considerable trade among themselves, and with the neighbouring places in Hejaz, Yemen, and Lahfa, whence it may be possible for a European traveller to inspect this internal part of Arabia. I was told at Bazra that in Neged a young Arab cannot marry till he have proved his valour by the death of one of his enemies; but this appears to me extravagant, except wild beasts may be reckoned among enemies; and even in this

* This province, unknown to our maps, might be named from the mountain till further inquiry: it must be about 200 miles from Bagdad, probably S. W. D'Anville has doubled the distance.

case the law must not be of rigorous acceptation, as the Arabs of Neged are not less eager than the other orientals to marry their children very young."

Niebuhr then proceeds to mention the new prophet Wahheb, of the province of Hanifa, also now called Daraia. Of the wandering Beduins of Neged, one of the chief tribes is the Beni Kaled, who have conquered Lahfa, the reigning Sheik mostly living in tents: the tribe of Kiab dwells in towns and villages; while that of Montefic occupies both shores of the Euphrates, from its confluence with the Tigris to Arasje. Other tribes in that quarter need not be indicated. In the great desert of the province of Neged the tribe of Anafi is the principal; and there is another called Schamer, from the mountain: but it is to be regretted that Niebuhr's information concerning the inland regions is not more extensive; and that his maps are chorographic; while, from his general knowledge, he might have given a map of Arabia, superior to that of D'Anville.

From this general idea of the greater part of Arabia, it will be perceived that the manners and customs of the inhabitants must principally be common with those of the other Beduins, so frequently described by numerous travellers. Those of the country of Yemen have been accurately delineated by Niebuhr; and this province will probably, after the utmost discovery, continue to be regarded as the most interesting portion; representing, as Gibbon has observed, the Arabia Felix of antiquity.* In Yemen murder is punished with death, but more often left to private revenge, which occasions family feuds, that pestilence of society. The other customs are chiefly common with the Mahometan nations; but in politeness the Arabs vie with the Persians, and there are still remains of their ancient hospitality. The common salutation is the *Salam Alekum*, or Peace be with you; in pronouncing which words they raise the right hand to the heart, but this form is seldom addressed to Christians. On meeting in their wide deserts the salutations are multiplied; and the hand of a superior is kissed in token of respect;

Manners and
Customs.

* Ptolemy has extended this name over the wide deserts which reach from Omon to Mecca; but it is probable that he, as usual, filled up the central intervals with nations and towns which belonged to the shores.

MANNERS
AND
CUSTOMS.

a ceremony which sometimes passes among equals, whence it would seem is derived the Spanish expression of kissing the hands, probably adopted from their Moorish victors. The houses, though of stone, are meanly constructed; the apartments of the men being in front, those of the women behind; and the fair sex in general seem remarkably submissive. Of a middle stature, thin, and dried as it were by the sun, the Arab is moderate in his food, the common people seldom exceeding a repast of bad bread made from durra a kind of millet, mixed with camels' milk, oil, butter, or greafe; the only drink being water. This bread of durra custom has taught them to prefer to that of barley, which, though pleasant, they think unsubstantial. Meat is little used, even by the rich, who deem it unhealthy in a hot climate: it is always stewed under a cover, which renders it succulent. The small tables, about a foot in height, are placed on a large cloth, or mat upon which the guests sit. The orientals in general being water drinkers they are very fond of pastry. The most noted drink is coffee, which they prepare, like the Turks, by burning it in an open pan, and then bruising in a stone, or wooden mortar, which mode, according to our author, preserves a superior flavour to the common mode of grinding in a mill. In Yemen it is rarely used, as in their opinion it heats the blood; but of the shells, or husks of the coffee they prepare a liquor in the manner of tea. The most distinguished Arabs use porcelain from China, while the common people have recourse to earthen ware. Spirituous liquors, though forbidden, are not absolutely unknown; and they sometimes smoke a plant resembling hemp, which produces intoxication; nor is tobacco neglected, which is smoked either in the Turkish or Persian manner.

Dress.

The dress, like that of the Turks and Hindoos, is long, often with large trowsers, a girdle of embroidered leather, and a knife, or dagger. Over the shoulder is worn a large piece of fine linen, originally designed to keep off the sun, or the rain. The head-dress seems oppressive, consisting of several bonnets, from ten to fifteen, some of linen, others of cotton and woollen, the outmost being often richly embroidered with gold; and around this multitude of bonnets is wrapt
what

what they call a *fasch*, being a large piece of muslin, with fringes of DRESS. silk or gold, which hang down behind. This thick covering for the head, which seems at first glance incongruous, may be necessary to secure them from what are called strokes of the sun: and the like form is visible in the ancient monuments of Egypt, where a labourer will often strip himself naked, and place his cloaths upon his head. The chief dress is commonly a large shirt, either white, or striped with blue; while the common Arabs have only a piece of linen girt about the loins, with the belt and dagger; and another piece of linen over the shoulder; and two or three bonnets. The feet are often naked, and the soles become excessively hard; but in the mountains they are protected with sheep skin. Some shave the head, while others wear their hair. The common women are dressed in the large shift and trowsers: in Hejaz, as in Egypt, the eyes are exposed between coverings of linen, but in Yemen large veils are worn, with rings, bracelets, and necklaces of false pearls: sometimes in addition to ear-rings there is a nose-ring, as in Hindostan. The nails are stained red, and the feet and hands of a yellowish brown, with henna: the eye-lashes are darkened with antimony, as in many other oriental countries; and every art is exerted to render the eye-brows large and black. Polygamy is confined to the rich; and throughout the whole Mahometan regions is far less general than is commonly supposed in Europe.

The language of the Arabs was, even in ancient times, divided into Language: several dialects, as may be suspected from its wide diffusion; and Niebuhr says that the modern Arabic contains perhaps more dialects than any other tongue. Even in Yemen there are subdivisions; and polite people use a different enunciation from the vulgar. The language of the Koran is as different from the modern speech of Mecca, that is taught in the colleges there, as the Latin is at Rome. That of the frontier mountains of Yemen and Hejaz is thought to approach nearest to the ancient standard. Our learned author is induced to think that under the Tobba kings, the characters called Persepolitan were used in Arabia; but these letters are more probably of Assyrian extract, and hence belong to the Arabs themselves. These characters were succeeded by the Hamiaric, so called from a race of kings; and

LANGUAGE. these were followed by the Cufic. The Arabian authors seem to have magnified the ignorance of their country before the time of Mahomet, in order to enhance the illumination diffused by their prophet; for it is probable that the idolatrous literature then known was abolished by the fanaticism of the new sect. The chief poets are now found among the wandering Arabs in the country of Jof or Mareb, adjoining to Yemen on the E.^s Some also appear in the towns, where they amuse the company in coffee houses; in this, as in other respects, resembling the Turkish. The day is divided into twenty-four hours, extending from sunset to sunset. Niebuhr gives curious illustrations of their astronomy and secret sciences, as they are called, or rather fanciful delusions. Physicians are rare, and ill recompensed, the chief medicine being universal temperance: and their skill scarcely exceeds the common terms of art to be found in the writings of Avicenna. The ancient treasures of Arabian literature are well known to the learned world; but few of these noble monuments were composed in Arabia, being mostly produced in the conquered countries from Samarcand to Cordova.

Education. Education is not wholly neglected, and many of the common people can read and write; while those of rank entertain preceptors to teach their children and young slaves. Near every mosk there is commonly a school, the masters, as well as the children of the poor, being supported by legacies. In the large towns there are many other schools, to which people of the middle class send their sons, who are taught to read, write, and accompt. The girls are instructed apart by women. In the chief cities are colleges for astronomy, astrology, philosophy, medicine, &c.; and in the little kingdom of Yemen there are two universities, or celebrated academies; one at Zebid for the Sunnis; and the other at Damar for the Zeidites. The interpretation of the Koran, and the history of Mahomet and the first chalifs, form an extensive study, the records being in a dead language.

**Cities and
Towns.**

Arabia has been compared to a cloke of frize, laced with gold, the skirts alone presenting cities and other marks of civilization, while the great mass of the country is possessed by wandering tribes. The most celebrated cities are Mecca and Medina; but being sacred ground, the

‡ Niebuhr, 93.

infidels

infidels are not permitted to approach; and we are obliged to trust to the inaccuracy and exaggeration of oriental writers. Mecca, to use the emphatic language of Gibben, 'was known to the Greeks under the name of Macoraba; and the termination of the word is expressive of its greatness, which has not indeed, in the most flourishing period, exceeded the size and populousness of Marscilles. Some latent motive, perhaps of superstition, must have impelled the founders, in the choice of a most unpromising situation. They erected their habitations of mud or stone, in a plain about two miles long and one mile broad, at the foot of three barren mountains: the soil is a rock; the water even of the holy well of Zemzem is bitter or brackish; the pastures are remote from the city; and grapes are transported above seventy miles, from the gardens of Tayef. The fame and spirit of the Koreishites, who reigned in Mecca, were conspicuous among the Arabian tribes; but their ungrately soil refused the labours of agriculture, and their position was favourable to the enterprizes of trade. By the sea-port of Gedda, at the distance only of forty miles, they maintained an easy correspondence with Abyssinia; and that Christian kingdom afforded the first refuge to the disciples of Mahomet. The treasures of Africa were conveyed over the peninsula to Gerrha or Katif in the province of Bahrein, a city, built, as it is said, of rock salt, by the Chaldean exiles: and from thence, with the native pearls of the Persian gulf, they were floated on rafts, to the mouth of the Euphrates. Mecca is placed almost at an equal distance, a month's journey, between Yemen on the right and Syria on the left hand. The former was the winter, the latter the summer station of her caravans; and their seasonable arrival relieved the ships of India from the tedious and troublesome navigation of the Red Sea. In the markets of Saana and Merab, in the harbours of Oman and Aden, the camels of the Koreishites were laden with a precious cargo of aromatics; a supply of corn and manufactures was purchased in the fairs of Bosra and Damascus; the lucrative exchange diffused plenty and riches in the streets of Mecca; and the noblest of her sons united the love of arms with the profession of merchandize."

CITIES AND
TOWNS.
Mecca.

CITIES AND
TOWNS.

Other descriptions of this celebrated city are chiefly extended by an account of the Kaba or House of God, which is here reserved for the article of edifices. This city is said to be well built of stone; but of the population and other interesting circumstances there are no details. The veneration paid to Mecca seems to have preceded the age of Mahomet, for Diodorus Siculus mentions a temple in this quarter which was respected by all the Arabs. The government of this holy city is vested in a Sheref, who is a temporal prince; and his revenue is increased by the donations of Mahometan sovereigns.

Medina.

Medina stands about 200 B. miles N. of Mecca, being, as well as the latter, about a day's journey from the shores of the Red Sea. It is, according to Niebuhr, a small town, surrounded with a paltry wall, little remarkable except for the tomb of Mahomet.

Sana.

By the account of Pliny, an ancient city of Arabia, six miles in circumference, called Mariaba, was destroyed by the legions of Augustus;* but in modern times Sana, or Saana, in Yemen, is reputed the chief city of Arabia. It is situated at the bottom of a mountain called Nikkum, near which is a spacious garden. Niebuhr informs us that this city is not very extensive, as one may walk round it in the space of an hour, so that the circuit cannot exceed four miles; and even of this small space a part is occupied by gardens.† The walls are of brick, with seven gates; and there are several palaces of burnt brick, or of stone; but the common houses are of bricks dried in the sun. There are several simferas, or caravanferas, for merchants and travellers. Fuel is extremely rare, though there be some pit-coal and peat; but wood is scarce, even in the Happy Arabia. There are excellent fruits, particularly grapes of many varieties. About six miles to the north there is

* Lib. vi. cap. xxviii. It was a town of the Baramalaces; and, according to D'Anville, of the Homorites, and now Mareb in the N. of Hadramaut. But Ptolemy places it more to the N., and it is improbable that the legions should have penetrated so far, though the city may have been destroyed by a fleet with troops from the Red Sea. D'Anville's ancient Arabia is not sufficiently laboured. It is chiefly founded on Abulfeda's curious description, of which the best edition is at the end of La Roque's (or D'Arvieux) *Voyage dans la Palestine*, Paris, 1717, 8vo. The same author's *Voyage de l'Arabie Heureuse*, 1716, is also interesting.

† Nieb. Desc. 201.

a pleasant dale, enlivened with several rivulets: and to the west is a considerable stream.

CITIES AND
TOWNS.
Other Cities.

When such is the chief city of Arabia, the description of the others cannot be very interesting. Judda, or Jedda, is the sea-port of Mecca. The town of Mocha stands in the Tehama, or plain country of Yemen, and was built about four centuries ago: it is now chiefly frequented by English vessels from Hindostan. Aden is of still less consequence. Kesem belongs to the country called Mahrah: to the sheik of this town, also called Keschin, the noted isle of Socotra belongs, which is celebrated for aloes;⁹ and we are told by the author of the Periplus, that in his time it belonged to the country which produced frankincense. The province of Omon is divided among many sheiks, but Rostak is esteemed the capital. Maskat is however the most considerable town, and the best known to Europeans, having an excellent harbour, and being from early times a staple of trade between Arabia, Persia, and the Indies. It was taken by the Portuguese in 1503, and they retained it for a century and a half. It is visited by English ships from Hindostan; and such is its consequence, that the Imam or prince of Omon is often styled Imam of Maskat.

Maskat.

Lahsa, the capital of the province so called, is a large and well built town, standing on a torrent which falls into a considerable bay opposite to the isle of Bahrin, celebrated for the pearl fishery.¹⁰ Our maps here insert a considerable river called Aftan; but this is probably the stream in Neged represented by D'Anville, and which, according to Niebuhr, is only a *wali* or brook, which runs after rains. Upon this river D'Anville, following some preceding map, and uncertain accounts places a country and city called Jemama or Yemama.* This is the most singular feature in our maps, and is not reconcilable to the ac-

⁹ Niebuhr, 248.

¹⁰ Ib. 294. He, with D'Anville, regards Lahsa as inland, and this city does not appear in his map of the Persian gulf. The isle Bahrain should rather be styled Aual. Ib. 284.

* The maps of the beginning of last century here insert Ayaman, anciently, as they say, called Arabia Felix, thus removing Yemen into the centre of Arabia Deserta! Can this be the real source of Yemama? Gibbon, ix. 356. refers to Abulfeda for an account of Yamanah, which was in ruins in the thirteenth century.

CITIES AND
TOWNS.

counts of Niebuhr. D'Anville, in his map of Asia, says that Jemama is in Al Kardje, which is evidently the great province of Kerjé of Niebuhr, on the E. of Hejaz and Yemen; and in this province, the Danish traveller informs us, is the city of Amamé or Imamé, renowned for the prophet Moseilama, whom Gibbon ascribes to Yemama; and which town is in the district of Surfa. But this cannot correspond with the Jemama of D'Anville, which is clearly in the province of Ared, which is bounded only by that of Lahsa on the E. Niebuhr also informs us that Aijana, a town of Ared, is remarkable for the new prophet Wahheb,* and our illustrious historian seems to have erred when he supposed it the same with Yemama; while the latter is probably a town of Kerjé, not far to the east of Hejaz. However this be, the province and city of Jemama are perhaps mere fictions, which should be dismissed from the maps, with the river of Aftan, which, if it existed, would certainly be followed by the caravans from Lahsa to Mecca, while they seem to prefer a sandy desert.†

Edifices.
Kaba.

Among the chief edifices of Arabia must be named the Kaba, or temple of Mecca; which, according to the representation of Niebuhr, rather resembles the old Asiatic temples of Hindostan and Siam than a mosque, being an open square, encompassed with a colonade, and ornamented with minarets, as the others are with pyramids or obelisks. In this open space, which, as well as that of Medina, it seems improper to call a mosque, there are five or six houses of prayer, or chapels; while in the centre is a small square edifice peculiarly styled the Kaba, in which is fixed a black stone, in all appearance an early object of Arabian adoration, being either a Phallus, or one of those stones venerated by the ancient orientals, who supposed them to have fallen from heaven, such

* See Niebuhr, 299, for the contests between Ared and Lahsa.

† As Niebuhr, p. 297, informs us that Salemia, a town of Kerjé, is on the frontiers of Yemen, while D'Anville places it to the N. of his Yemama, it seems evident that the whole of this province is in a false position, and instead of lat. 25° should probably be in lat. 18°, this error being seven degrees, or not much less than 500 English miles! None of the towns of Ared mentioned by Niebuhr can be found in D'Anville's map, except Jabrin, which is right. But these remarks proceed merely on the supposition that Niebuhr is exact. There is perhaps some confusion of *dijana* and *Imama*, and the former seems like Yamama of Abulfeda.

Salemia must approach to Jof, a province E. of Yemen, full of sands and deserts, and bounded E. by the desert of Omon. Nieb. 239.

stones not being wholly unknown even in modern natural history. For EDIFICES. as there was a temple here prior to Mahomet, it would seem that he grafted his system on the prejudices of his countrymen. Possessed of no architectural pretensions, it is evident that the temple of Mecca owes its entire fame to Mahometan veneration.

The manufactures of Arabia are of little consequence, though the Manufac-
tures. people be most ingenious and industrious, when encouraged by government and opportunities. Even in Yemen the works in gold and silver, and the coin itself, are produced by Jewish manufactories. In all Arabia there are neither wind-mills nor water-mills. Some muskets are made in the country, but they are mere matchlocks of mean execution. At Mocha there is one glass-house: and there are in Yemen some linen manufactures, chiefly coarse. Woollens are here too warm, even for the mountaineers. The ancients vainly assigned to Arabia the Happy Products. many products, which her sons imported from the East Indies, but aloes, myrrh, frankincense, though of inferior kind," constitute with coffee the chief products of Arabia. There are besides cocoa trees, pomegranates, dates, apricots, peaches, almonds, filberts, pears, figs, tamarinds. Such, from the account of Niebuhr, seem to be the chief vegetable products of Arabia; while the best frankincense, with spike-nard, cinnamon, cassia, cardamoms, and pepper, are imported from Hindostan; but being brought from Arabia to Egypt and Europe, it was rashly concluded, in ancient and modern times, that they were products of Arabia, thence called the Happy, while this fortunate country is in truth far inferior to most European regions. The orange trees seem to be from Portugal, and the lemon from Italy; while the mangoes and the cocoa appear, with others, to be imported from Hindostan. The balsam of Mecca is produced by an indigenous tree, called *amyris* by Forskal. Senna is here common as in Egypt: but the cotton plants are inferior to the Indian.

The Arabian intercourse with Hindostan has greatly declined since Commerce. the discoveries of the Portuguese, whose superior skill and maritime force eclipsed the small vessels of the Arabs. From Yemen are exported

" Niebuhr, 126; even this substance was chiefly from Abyssinia and the East Indies.

COMMERCE. coffee, aloes, myrrh (the best of which is from Abyssinia), oliban, or an inferior kind of frankincense, fenna, ivory, and gold from Abyssinia. The European imports were iron, steel, cannons, lead, tin, cochineal, mirrors, knives, sabres, cut glass, and false pearls. Niebuhr regards aloes and frankincense, (the latter chiefly from Hadramaut, which borders eastward on Omon, and must also be included in Arabia Felix,) as the only native articles of commerce before coffee came into use.¹²

¹² P. 245.

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CHAPTER II.

Climate and Seasons. — Face of the Country. — Soil and Agriculture. — Rivers. — Mountains. — Deserts. — Botany. — Zoology. — Mineralogy. — Natural Curiosities. — Isles.

IN the mountains of Yemen there is a regular rainy season, from the middle of June to the end of September; but even then the sky is rarely covered with clouds for twenty-four hours at a time; and during the remainder of the year a cloud is scarcely to be seen. At Maskat, and in the eastern mountains, the rainy season extends from the middle of November to the middle of February; and in Omon there is rain from the middle of February to the middle of April. In the plains of Yemen rain is sometimes unknown for a whole year: and in July and August the thermometer will be 98°, while at Sana in the mountains it is 85°. It sometimes, though rarely, freezes at Sana, while at Loheia the thermometer is 86°. Hence the inhabitants of Yemen live as if they belonged to different climates: and even at a small distance are found fruits and animals which might indicate remote countries. Those meteors called falling stars are common, as in Persia: but the aurora borealis is unknown in the southern countries of Asia. In general the wind from the sea is moist, that from the interior deserts dry: and in the northern deserts are chiefly perceived the disastrous effects of the burning wind called Samiel.

The general aspect of Arabia presents a central desert of great extent, with a few fertile *oases* or isles, as in Africa; while the flourishing provinces are those situated on the shores of the sea, which supplies rain sufficient to maintain the vegetation. In Yemen there are mountains of considerable height, but chiefly barren and unwooded; while the temperature and plants, as has been seen, form a striking contrast with those

^a Niebuhr, p. 4.

CLIMATE
AND SEA-
SONS.
Soil and
Agriculture.

of the plains: yet the want of rivers, lakes, and perennial streams, must diffuse ideas of sterility through the Arabian landscape.

The nature of the soil has not been indicated; but agriculture is occupied in the production of beautiful wheat, maize, *durra* a kind of millet, barley, beans, lentils, rape; with the sugar cane, tobacco, and cotton. Rice seems unknown in Yemen, and oats throughout Arabia, the horses being fed with barley, and the asses with beans. There are also cultivated *uars*, a plant which dyes yellow, and is exported in great quantities from Mocha to Omon; and *fua*, used in dyeing red; likewise indigo. The grain in general yields little more than ten for one; but the *durra* sometimes greatly exceeds that standard. The plough is simple; and the pick is used instead of the spade. The chief exertion of agricultural industry is to water the lands from the rivulets and wells, or by conducting the rains. The harvest is torn up by the roots; and forage cut with the sickle. Barley is reaped near Sana in the middle of July: but the season depends on the situation. At Maskat wheat and barley are sown in December, and reaped in March.

Rivers.

In the defect of rivers strictly belonging to Arabia, the Euphrates and Tigris, which pass through Irak Arabi, have been claimed by some geographers; and the Euphrates may be aptly considered as an Arabian river. But in Arabia Proper, what are called rivers are mere torrents, which descend from the mountains during the rains, and for a short period afterwards. It has been seen that the Aftan of Neged, which in the map seems a considerable river is only a brook of this description. The most important river is probably that which rises near Sana, and joins the Indian sea below Harjiah. The smaller streams of Yemen may be traced in Niebuhr's map of that country. The little river of Krim flows from Mahrah into the same sea; and is followed by two or three brooks in Omon. One or two small saline lakes occur in situations encircled with hills, which prevent the water from passing.

Mountains.

The chief range of mountains seems to proceed in the direction of the Red Sea; towards the N. not more than thirty miles distant, but sometimes in the S. about one hundred and fifty, a circumstance

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stance which imparts extent and fertility to Yemen. The hills of Omon seem a continuation of those on the other side of the Persian gulf; and the isles in the mouth of that gulf may be regarded as summits of that range. In the country of Seger, commonly ascribed to Hadramaut, there is a range of hills remarkable for the product of frankincense.

The direction of the other ranges cannot be ascertained in the imperfect geography of the country. D'Anville has laid down a ridge passing through the centre, S. W. to N. E.; but as he has erred so grossly as to place Ared in the S. W. and Kerjé in the N. E. of this ridge, while the reverse is the truth, as appears from Niebuhr, who is completely silent concerning this chain, it cannot claim any authenticity. That great geographer has also placed the mountains of Shemer, the Schamer of Niebuhr, too far to the S. W., they being within ten days, or 200 miles, of Bagdad,² while by D'Anville's map they are more than seven degrees, or 420 g. miles; and it is probable that they really belong to the Ramleah, or mountains of Sand in D'Anville's map, which is open to most essential improvements in the whole interior parts of this country. In the division called Arabia Petrea the celebrated mountain of Sinai must not be omitted, which presents two sublime summits of red granite, and several other kinds of siliceous rocks.

The sandy deserts of Arabia are more striking objects than the mountains, and might be laid down in the maps with considerable accuracy. From Omon to Mecca the greater part of Neged is one prodigious desert, interrupted towards the frontiers of Hejaz and Yemen by Kerjé, containing the district of Surfa, and some fertile spots and towns, indicated by Niebuhr. The N. W. part of Neged presents almost a continued desert, a prolongation as appears of the other, with an *oasis*, Ared on the W. of Lahfa, including Jabrin, and some other places mentioned by the same author. In this desert there is also the *oasis* of mount Schamer; and perhaps several others, which may remain for a long time unknown to geography.

² Niebuhr, 257.

The

BOTANY.

The greater part of Arabia being composed of dry barren deserts of sand, wholly destitute of rivers, and containing but here and there a few scanty springs of brackish water, offers no adequate recompence to botanical investigations. The vegetables in these districts are of rare occurrence, and consist chiefly of the saline succulent species able to endure the full force of a vertical sun, with no other refreshment than what is afforded by the nightly dews. The greater part of them belong to the genera of aloe, mesembryanthemum, euphorbia, stapelia and sal-sola: they have little external beauty, and when found in more propitious climates obtain notice only from their singularity: here, however, they serve to mitigate the thirst of the parched camel, and to keep up the spirits of the toiling caravan, by breaking in occasionally on the melancholy uniformity of the desert. A more interesting scene however is presented to the botanist on the western side of the Arabian desert; here numerous rivulets descend from the mountains into the Red Sea, and scatter fragrance and verdure with a lavish hand wherever they flow: the mountains themselves too, whence these streams originate, abound in vegetation, so that the plants in this part of Arabia may be conveniently distributed into three classes, namely, those that inhabit the sea shore, the plains, and the mountains. The first of these divisions bears a near affinity to the scanty flora of the desert: a sandy soil impregnated with salt, and an open exposure to the influence of the sun, produce similar effects in both situations. The champain country between the shore and the mountains, though traversed by streams, is yet too deficient in water to support the luxuriant vegetation that distinguishes the plains of India: the lower parts are chiefly occupied by grasses and other humble plants, which afford a most grateful sustenance to the flocks and herds of the pastoral tribes that wander over them. The sides of the rivers, the vallies among the mountains, and the plains at their feet, are far superior to the rest of the country. Here cultivation and nature seem to contend with each other in the richness of their productions; nor is it easy to assign exactly the limits of each: many of the Indian and Persian plants, distinguished for their beauty or use, have been transported hither in former ages, and are now found in a

truly indigenous state; this is probably the case with the tamarind, BOTANY. the cotton tree, the pomegranate, the banyan tree or Indian fig, the sugar cane, and a multitude of valuable species and varieties of melons and gourds. Two valuable trees however are the peculiar boast of Arabia Felix, namely, the coffee, found both cultivated and wild, and the amyris opobalsamum, from which is procured the balm of Mecca, the most fragrant and costly of all the gum resins. There are no proper forests in Arabia, although groves and scattered trees are by no means unfrequent among the mountains. Of the palms, it possesses the date, the cocoa nut, and the great fan palm. The sycamore fig, the plantain, the almond and apricot, the bead tree, the mimosa nilotica and sensitiva, and the orange, nearly complete the catalogue of its native and cultivated trees. The list of shrubs and herbaceous plants does not contain many that would be interesting to the general reader: among these however may be particularized the ricinus, the liquorice, and the fenna, all used in medicine; and the balsam, the globe amaranth, the white lily, and the greater pancratium, distinguished for their beauty and fragrance.*

The horse is the glory of Arabian zoology. According to Zoology: Zimmer- man this animal is found wild in the extensive deserts on the N. of Hadramaut;† at least such may have been the case in ancient times, if it be not rather probable that the wild horse of Tatory has passed through Persia, and only been perfected in Arabia. They are here divided into two great classes, the *Kadishbi*, or common kind, whose genealogy has not been preserved; and the *Kochlani*, or noble horses, whose breed has been ascertained for two thousand years, proceeding, as they fable, from the stalls of Solomon. These will bear the greatest fatigues, and pass whole days without food, living on air, to use the Arabian metaphor. They are said to rush on a foe with impetuosity; and it is asserted that some of this noble race, when wounded in battle, will withdraw to a spot where their master may be secure; and if he fall they will neigh for assistance. The Kochlani are neither

* Forskal, Flora Ægyptiaco-Arabica.

† Zoologia Geographica, 1777. 4to. p. 140. from Leo Afric.

ZOOLOGY. large nor beautiful, nor is their figure at all regarded; their race, and hereditary qualities being the sole objects of estimation. They are chiefly reared by the Beduins, in the northern deserts between Persia and Syria. The preservation of the breed is carefully and authentically witnessed; and the offspring of a Kochlani stallion with an ignoble mare is reputed *Kadibi*. The Arabian steeds are sometimes bought at excessive rates by the English at Mocha. There is also in this country a superior breed of asses, approaching in form and qualities to the mule, and sold at high prices.

This region, or Africa, seems also the native country of the camel, emphatically styled by the orientals the ship of the desert; being, by the expansion of its feet, the faculty of bearing thirst and hunger, and other qualities, peculiarly adapted by the author of nature to perambulate the sandy wastes, which would otherwise remain unpassable. Niebuhr observed camels of different kinds, and seems to decide the question concerning the dromedary, by saying that this animal in Arabia and Egypt has always one hunch only, and can otherwise scarcely be distinguished from the camel, but in being more light and speedy. "As to dromedaries with two hunches I never saw any, except three in a town of Natolia, and they had been brought from the Crimea: they were so big and heavy that they might rather be ranged under a particular species of camels, than of dromedaries."⁴

The buffalo seems unknown, being an animal which delights in mud and water; but the cattle have generally a hunch on the shoulder. The breed of sheep has not been particularly illustrated; but it would appear that both the wool and mutton are coarse. The rock goat is said to be found in the mountains of Arabia Petrea. The other animals are the jakkal, or chacal; the hyena towards the Persian gulf; numerous monkeys in the woods of Yemen; the jerboa, or rat of Pharaoh in Neged: there are also antelopes, and wild oxen, with wolves, foxes, and wild boars, and the large panther, called in Arabic *nemer*, and the *fath*, a small panther. The tiger seems utterly unknown: and the lion only appears beyond the Euphrates. Among the birds may be named the pheasant, common in the woods of Yemen, as the grey

⁴ Niebuhr, 145.

partridge

partridge is in the plains; while the ostrich is no stranger in the deserts. The birds of prey are eagles, vultures, falcons, and sparrow-hawks. A bird of the thrush kind, venerated because it destroys the locusts, is thought to come annually from Corasan. Land tortoises abound; and are eaten by the Christians in Lent. A little slender serpent, called baetan, spotted with black and white, is of a nature remarkably poisonous, the bite being instant death. The locust is too numerous; and the natives esteem the red as a fat and juicy food, and view it with no more aversion than shrimps, or prawns are beheld by us.

The mineralogy of Arabia is of small importance. Having no native gold, the people are still addicted to the infatuation of alchymy. Nor is silver found, except mingled, as usual, in the lead mines of Omon. There are some mines of iron in the district of Saade, in the N. of Yemen; but the metal is brittle. As most of the noted vegetable products of Arabia the Happy are now known to have been imported from Hindostan, so the best precious stones are from the same quarter. Those agates containing extraneous substances, which from the town are called Mocha-stones, are brought from Surat, which also sends great quantities to China. The best carnelians also come from the gulf of Cambay. But Arabia produces onyxes in the province of Yemen; and the brown stone found near Damar seems a sardonix. Rock salt appears near Loheia. Niebuhr also observed in Ajemen pentagonal pillars of basalt; with blueish alabaster, selenite, and various spars. Not one of the gems appears to be produced in Arabia. Near Hamada, in a district of Yemen, called Kaukeban, there is a warm spring of mineral water.

Several of those uncommon appearances which geographers style natural curiosities may, no doubt, be found in this extensive country, when more thoroughly explored. Niebuhr mentions that several springs, which in other countries would become rivulets, here flow for a short space, and then sink into an unknown subterranean course. Amidst the deficiency of water, it is not surprising that the grand re-

¹ Niebuhr, 125. He here remarks that the Turks have mines in the country of Diarbekr and of Sivas.

NATURAL
CURIOSI-
TIES.

fervoir near the ancient city of Mareb, though in a small part a work of art, was regarded as a singular exertion of nature.* Mareb is still the chief town of the province of Jof, about seventy-five B. miles N. E. from Sana, containing about three hundred mean houses, with a wall and three gates. In an adjacent vale, about twenty B. miles in length, were united six or seven rivulets, running from the west and from the south, partly from Yemen; and some said to be perennial streams full of fish. The two chains of mountains, inclosing this vale, approach so near at the east end that the space might be walked over in five or six minutes; or was about a quarter of a mile. This opening being shut by a thick wall the water was retained, and imparted particular advantages to agriculture. But the wall, constructed of large masses of hewn stone, to the height of forty or fifty feet, was neglected after the fall of the Sabean kingdom; and burst in the middle, leaving only the ruins on both sides, so that the water is now lost in the desert on the N. of Hadramaut.

ISLES.
Socotra.

BESIDES several isles of little consequence in the Arabian gulf, there are two islands which deserve particular notice. Socotra, about 240 B. miles from the southern coast of Arabia, appears in all ages to have belonged to that country, and to have been celebrated for the production of aloës, still esteemed superior to any other. Niebuhr says that it belongs to the Sheik of Keschin, a town of Hadramaut, as it did when the Portuguese made discoveries in this quarter; and the author of the Periplus observes that it was subject to the country which produced incense, that is Hadramaut. The inhabitants are clearly of Arabian extract. There are two bays, and some secure harbours; and the isle is also said to produce frankincense, while ambergris and coral are found in the neighbouring seas. The isle of Bahrin is in the Persian gulf, near the Arabian coast, and remarkable for the great pearl fishery in its neighbourhood; but the revenue thence arising to the Sheik of Buseher was diminished by the pretensions of the Houls, a strong Arabian tribe between Gombroon and cape Bardistan, who refused to pay for the permission. The name *Babrin* signifies *two seas*, being seemingly

Bahrin.

* Niebuhr, 240.

an absurd modern appellation; for Abulfeda, as well as the Arabs of ^{ISLES.} Lahfa, call the large isle Aual, a name transferred by D'Anville, who in Arabia seems rather unfortunate, to the peninsula of Ser, about 360 B. miles to the E. The inhabitants of Aual, and the smaller isles, are Arabs of the Chia persuasion. In the large isle there is a fortified town; and in the whole group there may be forty or fifty mean villages.

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ASIATIC ISLANDS.

INTRODUCTION.

General Arrangement of the Asiatic Islands, including Australasia and Polynesia.

HAVING thus completed the description of the wide continent of Asia, so far as the limits assigned to this work would admit, a difficult field of investigation opens in the innumerable Asiatic Islands, and those situated in the Pacific, or more properly Great Oriental Ocean. The topics about to be treated will become more clear from the inspection of Arrowsmith's chart of that ocean, or the Planisphere on Mercator's projection, with that prodigious expanse of water towards the middle. Hence it will appear that, though modern enterprize have failed in the discovery of a supposed Austral continent, (a hope and idea now dismissed from geography,) yet the discoveries may be said to constitute a fifth part of the world; which accordingly Fabri, and other foreign writers of skill in the science, have admitted, under the name of *Austral Lands*, *Southern Indies*, and other denominations, including New Holland, New Guinea, New Britain, New Ireland, New Caledonia, New Zealand, the Friendly Isles, Society Islands, the Marquesas, and even the Sandwich Islands in the north.

These regions are, however, of so wide and distinct a nature, consisting of almost a new continent in the south of Asia, and scattered groups of isles in the Pacific, many of them nearer to South America than to Asia, while they are chiefly not above twenty degrees to the south of the equator, that the name of *Austral Lands* seems very objectionable, and that of *Southern Indies* ridiculous. Nor indeed can they well be

blended under one denomination, as was long since observed by the learned president De Brosses, who, nearly half a century ago, proposed that the countries to the south of Asia, namely New Holland, New Guinea, and New Zealand, &c., should be styled *Australasia*; and the numerous isles in the Pacific *Polynesia*, from a Greek term implying many islands.* The denominations proposed by this learned author have appeared unexceptionable to most men of science; but the absurd names imposed by ignorant seamen and map-makers of all countries have, as usual, prevailed, whence we have new countries which bear not the most distant resemblance of the old, and New South Wales has become a part of New Holland! It is deeply to be regretted that scientific works must continue to be disgraced by names imposed by whim and caprice, and that a Board of Nomenclature was not added to the Board of Longitude, to fix with due deliberation the appellations proper to be conferred. If there be a native name it ought, in every instance, to deserve the preference, as length may be abbreviated, and roughness smoothed; but where a general appellation is unknown to the small savage tribes, the names of monarchs, and other great encouragers of discovery, and those of eminent navigators, may be imposed, with a Latin termination, so as to pass into all European languages, with as little change as possible. It is to be wished that even now a board of this kind were instituted, to be held in London, but attended by learned deputies from Portugal, Spain, Holland, and France, that the claims of prior discovery may be fairly investigated, and the name of the first princely protectors or navigators imposed, to the lasting preservation of their memory. Amidst the choice of denominations, that of *New* should be dismissed, as of all others the most absurd and improper, and calculated to infer resemblances where none exist.

As the name of *Australasia* has been adopted by many men of science, in various extents and applications, it may be proper first to listen to the original inventor.*

"But in this immense extent of regions, which are to form the object of the researches about to be detailed, how numerous are the diffe-

* *Histoire des Navigations aux Terres Australes.* Paris, 1756. 2 vols. 4to.

† *De Brosses, ib. i. 79.*

rent countries, climates, manners, and races of mankind! The sight would be dazzled and confounded if care were not exerted to relieve it, and fix its attention, by divisions marked from distance to distance. These ought to be distinguished with regard to the progress of our knowledge, and at the same time with regard to the natural disposition of the objects. Our globe is composed of three large extents of land, Asia, Africa, and America;* and of three large extents of water, the Ethiopian, or Indian ocean, the Atlantic, and the Pacific. In like manner the austral world may be divided into three portions, each to the south of the three above-mentioned. The first in the Indian ocean to the south of Asia, which in consequence be named *Australasia*: the second in the Atlantic, which I shall call *Magellanica*, from the name of the discoverer, begins at the southern point of the American continent, and comprehends all that may thence extend under the southern point of Africa, where a long undiscovered coast is supposed to exist. I shall comprise in the third all that is contained in the vast Pacific ocean, and shall give to this division the name of *Polyusia*, on account of the great multitude of Islands."

Such were the ideas of that eminent writer, alike distinguished for the extent of his erudition, the elegance and precision of his taste, and the comprehension and clearness of his judgment. But it must be reflected that at the time of his interesting compilation, the discoveries of our immortal Cook had not taken place, and the existence of a Terra Australis, or undiscovered continent in the south, was generally credited. The *Magellanica* of De Brosses may therefore pass into oblivion, as no continent, nor perhaps even isles, exist to the south of America, where indeed of all positions they were the least to be expected. But the two other appellations begin more and more to be admitted among scientific men, from whom they will gradually pass to the people, as ought to be the progress.

While the term *Australasia* may be justly applied to what is called New Holland, and the circumjacent lands, the name of that large island itself, so absurdly joined with New South Wales, might perhaps

* Europe seems here considered by the learned President as a mere elongation of the continent of Asia.

be aptly exchanged for that of *Notasia*, of the same sense with the former, but used in a more limited acceptation.* A description of this country naturally follows that of Asia, and the Asiatic islands in the Indian ocean; and will be properly succeeded by that of Polynesia, or the islands in the Pacific; which are far remote from the American coast, but are connected by brief passages with Australasia, the Sandwich islands alone excepted, which may however be followed by groups to be discovered to the S. W. so as to be connected with Polynesia. The reader needs scarcely be reminded that in this quarter alone of the world this remarkable exception occurs; for the islands belonging to both Americas, to Africa, and to Europe, are sufficiently distinct and appropriated, while the name of Asiatic isles, enormous as Asia itself, might be diffused to such an extent, as to embroil the utmost powers of geographical description, and present only vague confusion, instead of scientific precision.

In the eye of some geologists the isles of Sunda, the Moluccas, and others in the Indian ocean, are gradually enlarging, and may in time, with Australasia and Polynesia, form a vast new continent; while one or other of the ancient continents will be submerged under the ocean; and if the most exhausted and useless must fall, Africa would perish. But such imaginary views are foreign to the present design, which only attempts a precise description of what really exists; and the due connection and relation of the parts to each other; an object attended with many difficulties in this particular region of the globe. Before a proper arrangement can be followed it will be proper to fix some limits between the Indian and Pacific oceans.

As the continent of America divides the Atlantic, or Great Western ocean, from the Pacific, or Great Eastern ocean, (both so termed in relation to the ancient and civilized world,) and as Africa divides the Atlantic from the Indian ocean, so, by parallel usage and deduction, what is called New Holland may be considered as the fixed division between the Indian and Pacific, thus claiming with justice the authority of a continent, washed by the Indian ocean on the west, and the Pacific on the east; while a line drawn from the most prominent central capes,

* From the Greek word *notos*, the south; as *auster* is in the Latin.

in the north and south, may be regarded as a boundary of these two oceans. The southern extension of this imaginary line is of little moment; but in the north it must be considered as a division of great importance to precise discussion, as the isles on the west must be considered as strictly Asiatic, and intimately connected with the description of Asia; while those on the right belong to Australasia, and Polynesia. This division must naturally and unavoidably depend on the observation of the widest channel between the Molucca islands,* and Papua, or New Guinea: and the degree of longitude, 130° from London, seems nearly to amount to a boundary. Hence Amboyna belongs to the Asiatic isles, while Timor-laut belongs to Australasia. The meridian of boundary passes through Ceram; but the proximity of that isle to Amboyna may properly connect it with the Asiatic isles, with which Mysol may also be classed. From the N. W. extremity of Papua, or rather some small islands lying at that extremity, a clear line may be drawn, following the same meridian, and leaving Gilolo among the Asiatic isles on the W. and those of Pelew among the Polynesian in the Pacific. This line then bending N. W. would include the Philippine islands and the Bashees, passing to the S. of Formosa; the other limits and appellations being sufficiently clear.

Such may therefore be the assumed boundary between the Indian ocean, and Chinese, &c. sea on the W. and the Pacific on the E. and between the Asiatic isles, and Australasia and Polynesia. The boundary between the two latter great divisions may be traced in consonance, as would seem, with the ideas of M. de Broffes, by regarding what is called New Holland as a continent, or great leading island, with which those most adjacent must be regarded as connected. Hence Papua belongs to Australasia: and a line drawn in the latitude of three or four degrees to the N. of the equator, and then passing S. in the meridian of 170° E. from Greenwich, so as to include the New Hebrides, thence in the parallel of 30° S. gradually stretching to 175° W. from Green-

* This name, originally confined to five small islands, has been extended by the French geographers to a large group between Borneo and New Guinea.

Mr. Forest, p. 31, regards Gilolo as the boundary between the Indian ocean and Pacific.

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wich, including New Zealand, and the isle called Chatham, will present the natural and precise boundary of Australasia.

That division called Polynesia, by far the most extensive, adjoins on the W. to the line above drawn around the Asiatic isles; thence it ascends about lat. 18° long. 128° E. in a north-east direction, so as to include the isle called Rica de Plata, long. 161° , and thence curving S. E. and encompassing the northern Sandwich islands, where our great navigator fell,* and the Marquesas, and extending to 120° W. from London. Any isles to the N. E. or E. of this line of demarcation may be regarded as belonging to North or South America.

The southern boundary of the Asiatic isles may be considered as sufficiently ascertained by the wide channel between them and New Holland; while the N. W. extremity of Sumatra may present a meridian of separation on the W. between the Asiatic isles, eminently so styled, and those in the Indian ocean. The same western boundary may be assigned to Australasia.

The southern limits of the last, and of Polynesia, alone remain; but as few or no islands have been discovered to the S. of New Zealand, the parallel of 50° S. lat. may be laxly assumed as the boundary of both.

Polynesia will thus extend from 50° S. lat. to about 35° N. lat. that is 85° , or 5100 g. miles:† while the breadth taken from long. 170° E. from Greenwich, to 130° W. upon the equator itself, will yield sixty degrees, or 3600 g. miles.

The length of Australasia may be computed from 95° of the same longitude to 185° , that is 90° in lat. 30° , or nearly 5000 g. miles; while the breadth, lat. 3° N. to lat. 50° S., will be 3180 g. miles.

Even the smallest division, that of the Asiatic isles, in what has been called the Oriental Archipelago, is of great extent from 13° S. lat.

* There are other Sandwich islands, lat. 59° S., or beneath the parallel of Cape Horn. Such is the perplexity of the received nomenclature.

† This length is increased by more than a third, as it extends from the N. W. to the S. E. but position is a more important consideration than extent, when measured on the ocean.

to 22° N. lat. that is 35°, or 2100 g. miles; while the length from 95° E. long. to 132°, yields 37 degrees not far from the equator, nearly corresponding with the breadth.*

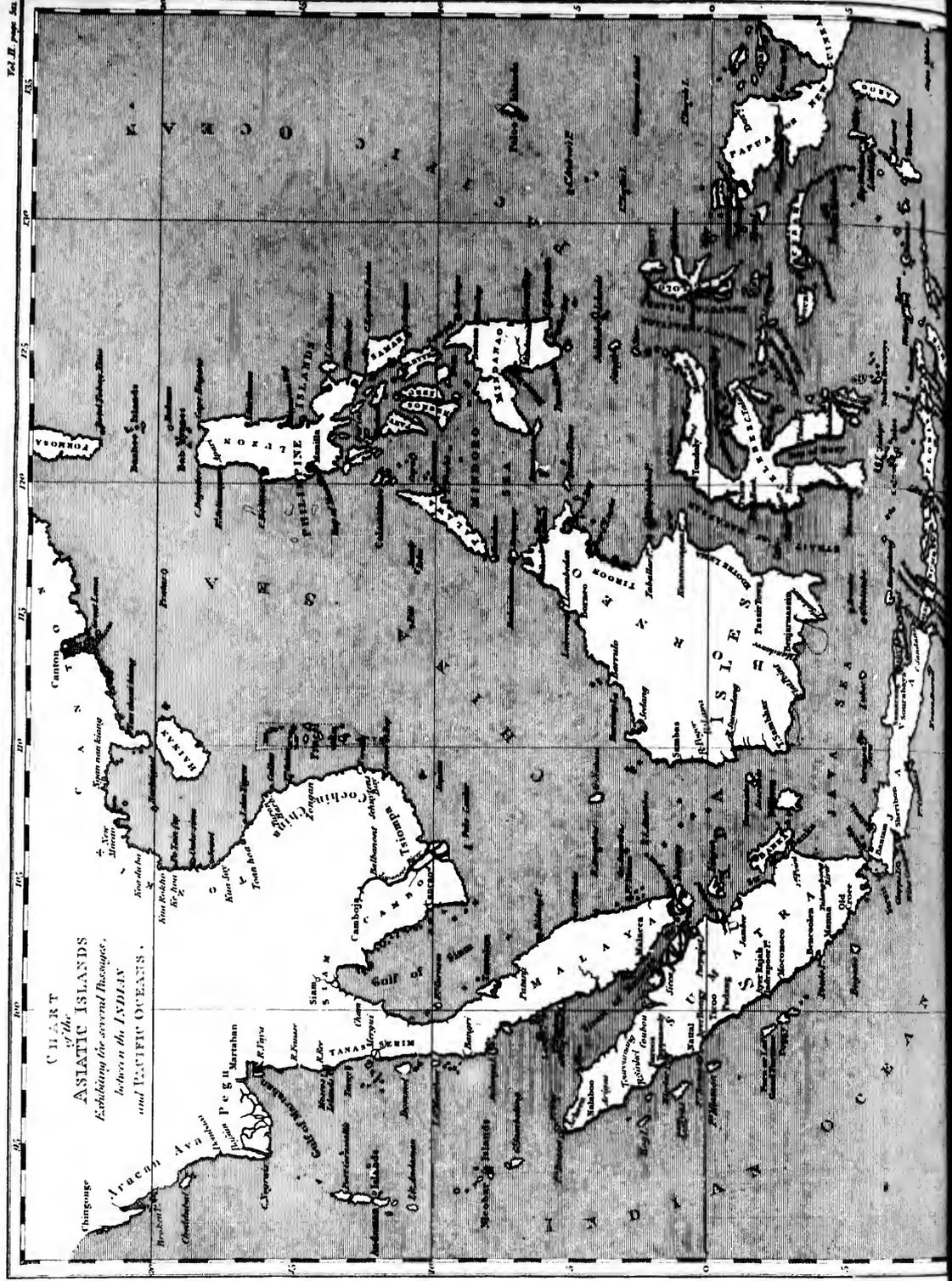
The several groups of islands which compose each of these grand divisions, will more properly be considered under each, in the separate descriptions, so far as the most recent discoveries will allow, after premising that they are submitted, with the preceding remarks, to the public candour, as mere opinions and topics of inquiry, which may instigate judicious men to further discussion, so as gradually to produce a scientific arrangement of universal acceptance, which is greatly wanted in this large portion of the globe.

* If however Australasia and Polynesia be not admitted as grand divisions, they must fall under the ASIATIC ISLANDS.

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ASIATIC ISLES.

Arrangement of those in the Oriental Archipelago.--1. Isles of Sunda, or Sumatran Chain.—2. Borneo.—3. Manillas.—4. Celebezian Isles.—5. Spice Islands.

THIS division, as already explained, comprehends what are called the Isles of Sunda, the Moluccas, and the Philippines. The isles of Sunda are so called from the Sound, or Strait, between Sumatra and Java; and consist of these two islands, with Borneo; and some include Celebez, which others ascribe to the Moluccas. Some geographers consider the line of islands, forming as it were an elongation of Java, as belonging to those of Sunda, while D'Anville rather regards these as part of the Great Moluccas.

An able naturalist, impressed with this confusion, has attempted a new nomenclature.¹ Under the name of *Malayan* isles, he arranges Sumatra, Java, Borneo, by an appellation sufficiently vague, and inapplicable, as the Malays extend to innumerable other islands. Another great division, that of the Philippine islands, he terms the *Manillas*, including Mindanao, whence he passes to the Sooloo islands, those of Sangir, and to Celebez, here seeming to lose sight of arrangement. From Balli, on the E. of Java, what he calls the *Timorian chain* includes Sumbava (the Cumbava of D'Anville,) Florez, Timor, &c. but when he adds Timorlaut, he again forgets precision; and his whole chain is so intimately connected with Java that the separation cannot be applauded. Our ingenious author next describes *New Holland*; and returns to what he calls the *Spicey Islands*, beginning with Arroo, an

¹ Pennant, *Outlines of the Globe*, vol. iv.

appendage of New Guinea, and which, by his own account, produces sago, not spice. The isles of Banda follow, with Amboyna, Ceram, Bourro, &c. Mr. Pennant next describes the Molucca islands, including Gilolo. His *Papuan islands* are on the N. W. part of *Papua*, or *New Guinea*, which follows with some other isles; and after describing *New Britain* and *New Ireland*, he again returns to *Papua*. If the ingenious author had sedulously endeavoured to render confusion more confused, he could not have followed a better plan: but what precision can there be in the geography of these regions, in which a most able and intelligent writer has been recently so much bewildered?

An inspection of the maps and charts of this part of the globe will shew that a great chain of islands, connected with much proximity, extends from Sumatra N. W. to Laekal or Laehal S. E. This chain includes Sumatra, Java, Balli, Sumbava, Florez, and Timor, as the chief isles; with Sumba in the S., and in the N. Madura, Billiton, Banca, &c. This chain, divided and distinguished by the hand of nature, might either be termed the Sumatran islands, from the chief, or the received name of Isles of Sunda may be extended and restricted to this group; which, besides the strait so called, presents many other sounds or passages, from the Indian ocean towards the Pacific and the Chinese sea.

Borneo, an island of vast extent, should not be considered as belonging to any group; but the small isles around it may be termed the Bornean islands, as the Sooloos, Pulo Laut, Anamba, Natuna.

The Philippine islands may already be regarded as the most regular and precise group in these seas, including the Bashees, and other little groups in the north, and Mindanao and Palawan in the south.

There remains the large island of Celebez, which may be considered as grouped with Shulla, Boutan, Salayar, &c., and the whole may be termed the Celebezian isles.

The Molucca islands, an ancient and venerable name, are properly only five of small size, on the west of Gilolo; but it seems proper to extend

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extend this appellation to Gilolo, Mysol, Ceram, Amboyna and Banda.* The remaining isles in the S. E. belong to Papua in Australasia.

These five divisions, 1. the Sumatran isles, or those of Sunda: 2. Borneo, and the Bornean isles: 3. the Philippines: 4. the Celebezan isles: and 5. the Moluccas, or Spice Islands, are not only indicated by the hand of nature, but seem sufficient for a description of this vast archipelago.

1. THE ISLES OF SUNDA, OR THE SUMATRAN CHAIN.

This division, as already explained, comprises Sumatra, Java, Balli, Lombok, Sumbava, Florez, and Timor; with several isles of less note in the vicinity of these.

SUMATRA is an island of great extent, being not less than 950 B. ^{Sumatra.} miles in length, by about 200 in breadth; for on so vast a scale are the regions connected with Asia, that Great Britain, if situated in the oriental archipelago, would only in size rival Sumatra and Borneo. The English settlement of Bencoolen in the S. E. part of this island, has occasioned particular attention to its nature and productions, especially since Mr. Marsden published an ample and intelligent account of this interesting island, from which this brief description shall be abstracted.²

It was certainly unknown to the ancients, the information of Ptolemy terminating, as before mentioned, considerably to the north, and the mountain of Ophir, whence some have supposed this country known to Solomon, is a modern European denomination. The conquests and discoveries of the Mahometans, in Asia and Africa, remain a most important object of geographical investigation; and it is certain that the Arabs in the ninth century had discovered regions little known in Europe till the sixteenth. Among these was Sumatra; which seems also, by an unaccountable depravation, to be the *Lesser* Java of Marco Polo;†

* Even Magindano, or Mindanao, is by the natives called Molucca Bazar, or the great Molucca; Forest, p. 305: so there can be no solid reason for restricting the term to the Little Moluccas.

² History of Sumatra, 1784, 4to. 2d edit.

† Marsden, p. 2. and 280. This ingenious writer says that the Arab travellers, 1173, call this isle Ramni, for which he quotes Herbelot. In this he mistakes the date of the manuscript for the date of the journey, which was A. D. 851.

but

SUMATRA. but his Greater Java may probably be Borneo, for he describes it as being 3000 miles in circuit, while the lesser is 2000.

A chain of mountains runs through the whole isle, the ranges being in many parts double and treble, generally nearer to the western coast, where they approach within twenty miles of the sea; but the height is not so considerable as to retain snow. Mount Ophir, immediately under the equinoctial line, is 13,842 feet above the sea, only yielding about 2000 feet to mount Blanc. This seems almost the only Asiatic mountain which has been accurately measured; and it is not improbable that the northern mountains of Tibet, and even those of Caucasus, would be found greatly to exceed the highest Alps, the mountains being probably on as grand a scale as the rivers and other features of that immense continent. Between the ridges of mountains are elevated plains, with lakes and water-falls, one of which is from the summit of a conic mountain. There are many rivers on the western coast, but commonly impeded by sand banks, so as to present few means of navigation.

In the midst of what is called the torrid zone, the thermometer seldom rises above 85°, while in Bengal it attains 101°; and inland the inhabitants of the mountains (which alone form zones) use fires to dispel the morning cold; yet frost, snow, and hail are unknown. Thunder and lightning are frequent, particularly during the N. W. monsoon. The year has two divisions, called the rainy and dry monsoons, the S. E. or dry, beginning about May and ending with September; the N. W., or wet, beginning in November and ending about March; the intermediate months, April and May, October and November, being variable: on the west coast the sea breeze begins about ten in the forenoon, and continues till six in the evening; being succeeded by the land breeze during the night.

The soil is generally a stiff reddish clay, covered with a layer of black mould, the source of perpetual verdure; but three quarters of the isle, especially towards the south, present an impervious forest. On the west, between the mountains and the sea, there are large swamps; but even here the face of the country is remarkably broken and uneven.

There

There seem to be many mines of gold,* though mostly neglected; SUMATRA. and the copper is mingled with that metal. There are excellent ores of iron and steel: and that rare mineral, tin, is one of the chief exports, being principally found near Palimbang on the eastern shore, a continuation probably of the rich beds of Banca. Gold is found near Bencoolen, and in other places, but of inferior quality. The little island of Poolo Pisang, close to the foot of mount Poogong, is mostly a bed of rock crystal. The *nappal* seems a kind of soap rock: and petroleum also appears. There are several volcanic mountains in Sumatra, as in most of the other islands of the oriental archipelago, but eruptions are unfrequent. After an earthquake a rent was observed in the ground for a quarter of a mile, from which a bituminous matter is said to have swelled. On the shores are many ledges of coral rocks, a circumstance frequent in this quarter of the world. The effects of the surf are singular, and have been minutely detailed by Mr. Marsden, who ascribes them to the trade, or perpetual, winds, between the parallels of 30° north and south.

The inhabitants are vaguely divided into the Mahometans of the coast and the inland Pagans: but our author has considered the various races with more exact detail. The Malays, now so called, seem to be recent settlers, and their language a dialect of a speech most widely extended, from Malacca, and perhaps the south of Hindostan, nearly as far as the western coasts of America, through the innumerable islands of the Pacific. By the account of Mr. Marsden there are inland races, of whom the Googoo are covered with long hair, and little superior to the Ourang Outangs of Borneo. The chief native sovereignty is that of Menang Cabow, but the Rejangs seem to retain the purest race and manners. They are rather short and slender: the noses of infants are flattened, and their ears extended; but the eyes are dark and clear, and among the southern women often resemble the Chinese. The complexion is properly yellow, being without the red tinge, which constitutes a tawney or copper colour: but the superior class of women fair, and commonly of not unpleasing countenances, and the nails are often tinged red as in Mahometan countries. In the mountainous parts large

* Chiefly near Padan, ib. 133. What he styles white rock or marble is quartz.

SUMATRA. wens or goitres are frequent, as in the mountains of Hindostan and Tibet, proceeding perhaps from the dense mists, which affect the glands of the throat and occasion tumours, that, from the constant repetition of the cause, become irremovable.

The chief distinction between the natives and the Malays of the coast seems to be, that the former are fairer and stronger. The original cloathing is made of the inner bark of trees, as in Otaheite; but the drefs of the Malays consists of a vest, a robe, and a kind of mantle, with a girdle, in which is the *crees*, or dagger. They wear short drawers, and there is no covering for the legs or feet: a fine cloth is wrapt round the head, which on journies is covered with a wide hat. Both sexes file their teeth, and stain them black. The villages are commonly on hills, and surrounded with fruit trees, the balli, or common hall, being in the centre. The houses are of wood and bamboos, covered with leaves of palm, standing on pillars, and scaled by a rude ladder. The furniture is of course simple, and the common food rice; sago, though common, being less used than in the islands further to the east.

For the agriculture, and other interesting circumstances, our author may be consulted, who observes that the Malay countries, though beautiful in appearance, are generally of an unfertile soil, when applied to purposes of useful cultivation: and the facts which he mentions seem to leave no doubt of this unexpected truth. The horses are small, but well made, and hardy: the cows and sheep also diminutive, the latter probably from Bengal. Here are also found the elephant, rhinoceros, hippopotamus, tiger, bear, otter, porcupine, deer, wild hog, civet cat, with many varieties of the monkey. The buffalo is employed in domestic labour. Among birds, the Sumatran or Argus pheasant is of distinguished beauty. The jungle fowl, or wild poultry, also appear; and there is a breed in the south of remarkable height, likewise found in Bantam on the west of Java, which gives name to the well known small breed. The house lizard will run on the ceiling of a room, being the largest animal that can walk in an inverted position; and insects swarm, particularly the destructive termites.

The most abundant article is pepper, the object of our settlement; being produced by a creeping plant resembling a vine. The white

pepper is procured by stripping the outer husk from the ripe grains. SUMATRA.
 Camphor is another remarkable product, being found in the tree in a concrete crystallization: camphor oil is the product of another kind of tree. Benzoin is the gum or resin of another tree; and cassia, a coarse kind of cinnamon, found in the central parts of the country. Rattans are exported to Europe as walking canes. There are three kinds of cotton, the annual, and the perennial or shrub. "The silk cotton (*bombax ceiba*) is also to be met with in every village. This is to appearance, one of the most beautiful raw materials the hand of nature has presented. Its fineness, gloss, and delicate softness, render it, to the sight and touch, much superior to the labour of the silkworm; but owing to the shortness and brittleness of the staple, it is esteemed unfit for the reel and loom, and is only applied to the unworthy purpose of stuffing pillows and mattresses. Possibly it has not undergone a fair trial in the hands of our ingenious artists, and we may yet see it converted into a valuable manufacture. It grows in pods from four to six inches long, which burst open when ripe. The seeds entirely resemble the black pepper, but are without taste. The tree is remarkable, from the branches growing out perfectly straight and horizontal, and being always three, forming equal angles at the same height: the diminutive shoots likewise grow flat; and the several gradations of branches observe the same regularity to the top. Some travellers have called it the umbrella tree, but the piece of furniture called the dumb waiter exhibits a more striking picture of it." Coffee trees are universally planted, but the fruit is not excellent. The ebony tree abounds in the forests, and the banian tree spreads as usual to a vast extent, as it drops roots and fibres from certain parts of the boughs.

The commerce is chiefly with Hindostan and China. The Malays excel in gold and silver fillagree, and in weaving silk and cotton; but other manufactures are imperfect, and the sciences little cultivated. Besides the Malay, several languages are spoken, which seem however to have a manifest affinity among themselves, and with that widely diffused speech which may be called the Polynesian, as it is diffused through innumerable islands in the Pacific. The Rejang and Batta are the chief

Mariden, 127.

SUMATRA. internal languages, written in characters totally distinct, a singular circumstance, and which seems to overturn the ideas concerning the supposed difficulty in the invention of alphabets.

Widely removed from the savage tribes of Africa and America, even the rudest tribes of Sumatra and the other Asiatic isles, as far as the utmost bounds of Polynesia, display a certain degree of civilization. The panjeran or prince presides over many magistrates; but his government is limited, his power being confined by his poverty. Laws are unknown, the chiefs rendering judgment according to customs; but the English residents have drawn up a little code of laws, regulated by the usages. Most crimes are compensated by money, murder itself not excepted. The difficulties attending marriage form an exception to the general customs of uncivilized countries, and the general chastity seems remarkable. The celebration is commonly in the balli or village hall, and is accompanied with dances and songs. Polygamy is practised, seeming to be connected, as Mr. Marsden has observed, with the idea of purchasing a wife, instead of receiving a dowry with her. Combats of cocks and quails are among the most favourite amusements, with pyrrhic dances, dice, and other games. The use of opium is extensive, but rarely leads to other excesses. What is called a *muck*, by the natives *mongamo*, rather proceeds from revenge, or a sense of oppression, than from intoxication; and the native ferocity requires no stimulant. Parturition is here brief and easy; and the mother in a few hours walks to the bath. The dead are buried, and the graves never disturbed.

The Rejangs, according to our author, have no religion; but they believe in angels or spiritual beings, and seem to have some idea of the transmigration of souls. The sea is an object of particular veneration, as natural among islanders. The Christian religion is unknown in Sumatra, the missionaries having unaccountably neglected this large island, while St. Francis Xavier, called the apostle of the Indies, converted many thousands in the more eastern islands, where however the light vanished with the apostle.

The manners of the Lampons, in the southern part of the isle, are more licentious than in the other provinces. For an account of Menang Cabul, the principal Malay state, though the sultan be scarcely superior

to a raja, the ingenious author so often quoted may be consulted.³ The SUMATRA. people seem the same with those of Malacca; but the author has strangely embroiled the question, by supposing that the Malays never planted any colony before they became Mahometans. The English possess two settlements in the country of Batta, where human flesh is still eaten, but restricted to that of prisoners taken in war and capital offenders, an observation which perhaps extends universally wherever this practice is known to exist.

The kingdom of Acheen in the N. W. extremity of the island carries on a considerable trade with the coast of Coromandel. The natives are more stout and tall, and of a darker complexion than the other Sumatrans. After Gama had passed the Cape of Good Hope in 1497, the importance of the city of Malacca became known, and it was soon after seized by these invaders, whose proximity led to several discussions and contests with the northern powers of Sumatra, in consequence of which the kingdom of Acheen became remarkable in the history of these regions; and in 1615 the monarch attacked Malacca with five hundred small ships, but was defeated: nor is this petty sovereignty unnoted in the subsequent transactions of the Dutch and English.

Several small isles encompass Sumatra. BANCA is particularly celebrated for its tin.* Of BILLETON little is known; nor of the isles that lie between Sumatra and Malacca called Pitti, and other names, with the common addition of *Pulo*, which in these seas appears to imply an island, being probably a Malay term.† On the W. the NASSAU or Pogy isles have been lately noted for their inhabitants, dissimilar from their neighbours, and approaching the Otaheitans in the amiable simplicity of their manners, as well as in their personal appearance; while their colour, like that of the Malays, is light brown or copper.⁴

³ Marsden, 281.

* The industrious translator of Stavorinus, vol. i. p. 357, says that these mines were only discovered in 1710 or 1711, and though the Dutch receive about three millions of pounds weight, the veins seem inexhaustible.

† This is confirmed by Thunberg's vocabulary of the Malay, so that *Pulo* is a ridiculous addition in maps: In Howison's Malay Dictionary, p. 145, an island is *pooloo*; an island *orang pooloo*.

⁴ AG Ref. vi. 77

JAVA.

The large and interesting work of Mr. Marsden has led to those details concerning Sumatra; but the account of the other islands must be more restricted. JAVA is not only an extensive island, about 650 B. miles in length by about 100 of medial breadth, but is remarkable for the city of Batavia, the celebrated capital of the Dutch possessions. This island, like the former, abounds with forests, and presents an enchanting verdure. It seems also intersected by a ridge of mountains, like a spine pervading its length.¹ Batavia is strongly fortified with walls, and a citadel towards the sea. There are many canals about four feet in depth, and the town is large, and well built of stone. This metropolis of the oriental archipelago presents many nations and languages; and the Chinese constitute the greater part of the inhabitants, being contented for the sake of gain to forget the tombs of their ancestors, and the laws of their country against emigration.* The Malay language, the French of the east, is here universally understood. The streets are planted with large trees, which practice, with the Dutch canals, probably contributes to the unhealthiness of this spot. The heat is not so intense considered in itself, being between 80° and 86°, as from the low situation of the town, and the murky exhalations from the bogs, canals, and a muddy sea, whence, from nine o'clock till four, it is impossible to walk out, and it is usual to change linen twice a day. The sun being nearly vertical, rises and sets about six throughout the year; but the nocturnal repose is infested by mosquitos. In the evening, from six to nine, parties are formed, and intemperance assists the poison of the climate. The water is also of a bad quality; and it appears absolutely unaccountable that a people possessed of common judgment should have selected this among ten thousand preferable situations in the various isles.

Batavia.

“The town is strongly fortified, intirely surrounded with walls, and furnished with several gates, near which a number of soldiers lie on guard, and which are locked at night. The walls, however, are not particularly strong, nor very thick. The citadel is situated at one end

¹ Thunberg, ii. 213. For a tolerable map of Java see the Voyage of Stavorinus, 1798, v. i. p. 313, where there is also a long and minute description of the island.

* The Dutch Governor General displays a pomp approaching to royalty.

of the town, and near the sea side, is tolerably large, and contains the BATAVIA. town-hall, a dwelling-house, a warehouse, and several other necessary buildings.

“ Without as well as within the town there are canals, the sides of which are lined with brick. Through these boats pass, both large and small, and convey pot-herbs, fruit, and other articles for sale, to different parts of the town, as also fresh grass for horses. The canals are seldom above four feet in depth, and empty their water into the road.

“ The town is remarkably large and well built; the houses are mostly of stone, and are elegant, with spacious rooms, which are open to the free air, in order that they may be refreshing and cool in this burning climate. The streets are not paved; as the stones being heated by the scorching rays of the sun, would hurt the feet of the slaves, who go barefooted, as also of the horses, which here are not shod. A row of flat stones, however, is frequently laid for the accommodation of the Europeans.

“ Here, just as in Amsterdam, is to be found a mixture of all nations and languages. Here are some of almost every nation in India, who carry on a profitable traffic in this capital of the East Indies.

“ Exclusive of the Javanese, who are the original inhabitants of the island, the Chinese constitute the major part of its inhabitants, and live not only in the town and its suburbs, but also in the country. These people carry on, like the Jews in Holland, a very extensive trade, and cultivate most of the arts and handicraft professions. They dress for the most part here in the same manner as in China, in frocks, with their heads shaved, and only a round spot left at the crown, the hair of which is platted into a long queue.

“ It is true, Dutch is the current language of the Europeans here; but the slaves and other Indian nations chiefly use the Malay tongue, which is so common all over the eastern and some of the western parts of the East Indies, that a man can make his way with it every where, as is the case with the French language in Europe.”*

“ All the streets in the town were planted on each side with large trees, which, in the heat of the day, afforded a cool and refreshing shade.

* Thunberg's Travels, vol. ii. p. 216.

These

BATAVIA.

These trees were generally the *Inophyllum calophyllum* and *calaba*, *Canarium commune*, and some others still scarcer. In the yards I saw very high and thick trees of the *Guettarda speciosa*. The largest tree I ever saw was a *Casuarina equisetifolia*, which stood near the rivulet, and extended its spreading branches to a vast distance.

“ Although the heat, as appears from Farenheit’s thermometer, which generally stands between eighty and eighty-six degrees, is not so very intense, it is nevertheless exceedingly troublesome and disagreeable; first, from the situation of the town which lies low near the water-side, and then, in consequence of the exhalations from the sea and bogs flagging the air, and from there being little or no wind to disperse these vapours and purify the atmosphere. Towards the evening, indeed, a light breeze springs up from the land, but of little or no signification. Hence one has but a weary life of it here; as it is impossible to be out, or at least to walk, between nine and four o’clock in the day, without being quite overcome with heat and dissolved in sweat, though one’s dress be ever so light and airy.

“ The cloths worn by the Europeans are made exactly in the European fashion; but the waistcoat and breeches are generally of white cotton, or of black sattin, and the frocks of thin Indian silk. Though the whole dress sometimes does not weigh above a pound or two, yet one’s coat is a heavy burthen in this hot climate; and the violent perspiration renders it necessary for one to change one’s shirt and drawers once or twice a day, although they be made of fine cotton, which absorbs the perspirable matter.

“ All the people in office, after they have been at the governor-general’s levee, whither they go at a very early hour, transact their business, it is true, between nine and twelve o’clock; but then it is within doors, where it is in some degree cool. And, if they are obliged to be out during that time, they use coaches. These coaches are small and light, furnished with thin silk curtains instead of windows, which keep out the rays of the sun and admit the air. The horses used here are for the most part small. Some content themselves with one horse chaises.

“ As in every other thing, so likewise in their equipages, great attention is paid to etiquette, and none, except such as are of certain rank, are

are allowed gilt carriages; others that are inferior to these use painted, BATAVIA.
 or even plain, coaches. The gentlemen of the council have running
 footmen.

“ Many of the Europeans here, it is true, wear wigs, but most of
 them wear their own hair, and that in general quite plain, and without
 any frisure; and a powdered head is seldom seen in this country.

“ The ladies here wear neither caps nor hats, but tie up their hair,
 which is only anointed with oil, and has no powder in it, in a large
 knot on the crown of their heads, and adorn it with jewels and wreaths
 of odoriferous flowers.

“ In the evenings, when the ladies pay visits to each other, they are
 decorated in a particular manner about the head, with a wreath of
 flowers of the *Nyctantbes sambac*, run up on a thread. These flowers
 are brought every day fresh to town for sale. The smell of them is in-
 conceivably delightful, like that of orange and lemon flowers; the whole
 house is filled with the fragrant scent, enhancing, if possible, the charms
 of the ladies' company, and of the society of the fair sex.

“ In so scorching a climate as this, we cannot wonder, that a general
 custom prevails among the Europeans, of taking a nap for a couple of
 hours in the afternoon, during the hottest part of the day. At this time
 a slave generally stands before the sofa, who, with a large fan, keeps off
 the gnats, and procures his master agreeable and cool repose.

“ The days and nights are nearly of an equal length the whole year
 round, and the sun passing almost vertically over head, rises and sets
 about six o'clock morning and evening. And as the sun sets perpendi-
 cular, here is no pleasing appearance of twilight after sun set, as there is
 in the northern countries. As soon as the sun is below the horizon
 it grows immediately dark, and the air is cooler throughout the whole
 night.

“ The great pleasure which the coolness of the evenings would other-
 wise afford, is indeed here almost totally destroyed by the uneasiness and
 trouble which the musquitos generally occasion. These insects not
 only disturb one's repose by a continual buzzing in one's ears, but their
 sting is venomous, and occasions large tumours, in consequence of which
 the face and hands are totally disfigured, and sometimes a temporary

BATAVIA. blindness ensues. This circumstance is attended with another inconvenience; which is, that the doors and windows of the bed-chambers are obliged to be kept shut, or, if they are left open, the musquitos must be driven out in the evening. It is remarkable, that strangers are more than others liable to be pestered by these musquitos, and suffer more from their sting; but after a few weeks stay in the country, they are less persecuted by them. The musquitos either must find their scorbutic fluids more relishing, or else their saline and fowl humours must occasion a greater swelling.

“ The bed-clothes consist generally of a matras, some few pillows, a sheet, and a counterpane of fine cotton.

“ In the evenings, from six to nine, parties are formed among the Europeans throughout the whole town, who then banish their cares by conversation, incessant smoking, and a good glass of European wine, generally red. Every one calls on his friend without invitation; and, as soon as the clock strikes nine, each retires to his respective home, unless he is asked to stay supper. When a gentleman goes to pay a visit, he generally has a coat, wig, hat, and sword on, a stick in his hand, and is attended by a slave, who carries a large umbrella. As soon as the usual compliments are passed, he takes off his wig, and puts on his horn head a thin white cotton night-cap; after which he takes off his coat, and gives his sword, hat, and stick, to his slave, who carries them home again. The evening is then spent on an elevated platform within the steps, and on the outside of the house. The first reception is generally a glass of Dutch ale, after which the health of every person in company is drank round, till each has emptied his bottle, or fourteen glasses, and sometimes more, but seldom less. If a stranger should happen to come in at such times, he is always welcome. Sometimes a card-party is formed. When it strikes nine, one or more slaves arrive, if it be dark, with torches, to light their master home.

“ Hospitality is in great esteem here. The better sort of people keep open table once or twice a week, to which both the invited and not invited, are welcome. A stranger, who is to stay a short time, needs only hire a small house, and buy a slave to attend him. And, after having formed one or more acquaintances, he needs not take much care about

food, because, besides having free access to his patron's table, he will always be asked to dinner, if he pays a visit to any body between eleven and twelve o'clock. At this time the place-men return home from their offices, when they take a whet, either of arrack, geneva, or white French wine, or else Japanese sacki.

"The water is not very wholesome, nor good to drink, being impregnated with saline particles, which generally occasion diarrhœas, and sometimes even the bloody flux, in strangers who are newly arrived, and afflicted with the scurvy. The inhabitants of the town, therefore, let it stand to settle for some time in large Japanese earthen jars, after which they plunge red-hot iron bars in it, when it may be drank without any bad consequences, and it is for the most part used for making tea or coffee, or drank mixed with red wine.

"The suburbs, which lie to the land side, are very large and handsome, and are inhabited by Europeans, as well as Chinese, and other Indian nations.

"Somewhat further up the country, stand a great number of pleasure houses, with the finest gardens to them, where the most respectable and wealthy part of the inhabitants pass their leisure hours, the air being here more pure and wholesome than in the town. At several of these houses I saw large earthen vessels filled with water, in which several beautiful gold fish, displaying their resplendent forms, glide sportively along under that singular herb the *Pistia stratiotes*, which had been planted there in order to afford the fishes shade. This herb, the roots of which do not take fast hold in the ground, I saw in great plenty floating in all the pools and ditches.

"The Europeans are commonly waited on by slaves from several Indian islands, of whom they keep great numbers in their houses, as the heat of the climate will not permit two slaves to do as much as one at the Cape. The ladies especially, are attended by a great number of female slaves, and seldom pay a visit without a whole retinue of these attendants.

"The Javanese, the original inhabitants of the country, are pretty tall, of a yellow complexion, and their lineaments not disagreeable. They are not suffered to be made slaves, but are a free people, governed

BATAVIA. by their own emperor, kings, and governors. They speak a language different from the Malay, and for the most part profess the doctrine of Mahomet, which is kept up among them by their own national priests, of whom some have visited Mecca, and others not.

“ Besides Dutch, the language in current use here is the Malay, which is a dialect of the Arabic,* and is written with Arabic characters. Into this language the Bible is translated, various vocabularies and grammars have been drawn up, and prayer books, and other books of a religious nature written in it. The language is easy to learn and to speak; quite simple and artless, and pleasing to the ear. The Company has built a church, and keeps priests in the town, for the different nations who understand this language, and profess the Christian religion. The Company likewise keeps in its service a translator both of the Malay and the Javanese language. A kind of broken Portuguese is also spoken here, as well as in most of the Indian settlements, where the Portuguese used formerly to trade, and whither they had diffused their language; on which account there is still a Portuguese church and congregation in the town, besides one supported at the Company's expence, to which a number of black Christians resort, who have several doctrinal books printed in that language.”†

Upon his return to Batavia 1777, our ingenious traveller found, that of thirteen people, whom he had met at one house, eleven had been carried off by the climate, or rather the imprudent situation of the town.

The rainy months are reckoned from December to March, during which time the air here is cool, and fewer disorders prevail, and this season is what they generally call their winter. After this follows the warmer season, when the heat is scorching and intolerable, and the sky clear, with a continual succession of dry weather.

“ Although the climate is extremely unhealthy, especially in the town, the Europeans, with very little exception, lead here a very irregular life. At dinner they inflame their blood with ale and wine, and

* Certainly not.

† Thunberg's Travels, vol. ii. p. 220.

after dinner, with smoking tobacco, drinking ale and wine. At half BATAVIA. past two in the afternoon they go to bed, and take their rest till five o'clock. The evening is spent in company, and with ale, wine, cards, and that altogether indispensable article of life, the tobacco-pipe. At half past nine in the evening, they again sit down to table to eat, at the same time, that they drink profusely of ale and wine. After supper is finished, recourse is again had to the delicious pipe, which had only been laid aside during the repast, and which is now a second time lighted up, to burn till eleven o'clock, its fires being all the while mitigated with continual libations of ale and wine, till rendered giddy with the heat and these liquors; and, at the same time, half drunk with the smoke of tobacco, weary and drowsy, they at length retire to bed, to enjoy a restless sleep and comfortless repose."*

Nor must the recent observations of Mr. Barrow on this important city be omitted.

"The coast of Java, on this side of the island, is so very flat, and so thickly covered with tamarind, cocoa nut, canary, and a variety of trees, that no part of the city of Batavia, except the cupola of the great church, is visible from the ships in the bay, although the distance is little more than an English mile. The great plain on which this city stands, seems indeed to be of alluvious production, and appears to be extending in such rapid progression that, with the assistance of the coral-making insects, it may not require the lapse of many centuries before the whole bay, together with the sweep of islands that encompass it, will become united with the Java continent. The mouth of the river, which emptied its waters into the bay, has obviously travelled downwards more than a hundred yards, in the short space of time which the Dutch have held the settlement. To prevent inundations, and to keep open a free communication with the bay, they found it necessary to run out two stone piers five hundred yards in length; and the land has now advanced nearly to their extreme points; so that it may again be expedient, before the expiration of half a century to come, to extend the work still far-

* Thunberg's Travels, vol. iv. p. 129.

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BATAVIA. ther into the bay. The *Water Castle*, with its four bastions, so called, from its being once insulated, has long been left on the western bank of the river, in seamen's language, *bigb and dry*, where, however, it still appears to be no less useful than before, as a work of defence to the entrance of the river.

“ In making choice of the present site of the city of Batavia, the predilection of the Dutch for a low swampy situation evidently got the better of their prudence; and the fatal consequences that have invariably attended this choice, from its first establishment to the present period, irrefragably demonstrated by the many thousands who have fallen a sacrifice to it, have nevertheless been hitherto unavailing to induce the government either altogether to abandon the spot for another more healthy, or to remove the local and immediate causes of a more than ordinary mortality. Never were national prejudices and national taste so injudiciously misapplied, as in the attempt to assimilate those of Holland to the climate and the soil of Batavia. Yet such has been the aim of the settlers, which they have endeavoured to accomplish with indefatigable industry. An extended plain of rich alluvial land, with a copious river serpentine through it, in a stream of so easy and gentle a current, that the water with great facility was capable of being conducted at pleasure; a tract of country holding out such easy means of being intersected by canals and ditches, and embellished with fish ponds; of being converted into gardens and villas, where draw-bridges for ornament and *trek schuts* for pleasure and convenience could be adopted, presented temptations too strong for Dutch taste to resist. Nothing, however, can possibly be more gratifying to the eye than the general appearance of the country which surrounds Batavia. Here no aridity, no sterility, no nakedness, even partially, intervene, between the plantations of coffee, sugar, pepper, rice, and other valuable products, which are inclosed and divided by trees of the choicest fruits. In the immediate vicinity of the city, the extensive gardens of the Dutch, embellished with villas in the Oriental style, furnished with every convenience that a luxurious and voluptuous taste can suggest, are charming to behold from a little distance, but do not improve by nearer acquaintance. The vitiated taste of Holland, delighting in strait avenues, trimmed hedges, myrtles, and other evergreens
cut

cut into the *walls of Troy*, and flower-beds laid out in circles, squares, and polygons, are no less offensive to the eye, than the numerous ditches and fish-ponds, from their stench and exhalations, are injurious to the health, besides being the nurseries of an innumerable host of frogs and musquitos.

" In carrying into execution the plan of their new city, the first operation of the Dutch was to divide the river into two branches, in such manner as to insulate a quadrangular space of ground; and just within these new channels, which served as a wet ditch, to erect a wall of the height of about twenty feet, chiefly of coral rock. This wall they flanked with twenty redoubts, or irregular projections, some of them mounting three guns, some two, and others none. Four great gates, with as many draw-bridges, communicated with the four suburbs. The citadel, or the castle, stands on the north side, or that next to the bay, without the walls of the city, being surrounded with its own wall from twenty-five to thirty feet high; and its four bastions, to denote the wealth and magnificence of the settlement, bear the splendid names of the Diamond, the Pearl, the Sapphire, and the Ruby: their materials, however, like those of the city wall, are chiefly composed of calcareous coral rock. The government house, a neat chapel, and nearly all the public offices, are within the inclosure of the castle. The different canals that surround and intersect the town, uniting just below the citadel, form a wide navigable river, that flows in a gentle current into the bay. Across this river is thrown a wooden boom, a little below the castle, and opposite to the custom-house; and at a short distance farther down, on the west side, is the *Loo fort*, mounting seven or eight guns, all pointing down the river. On the opposite, or eastern side, there is also a battery, as well as an extensive line, flanked with several redoubts, intended to cover the various magazines and stores, the gunpowder mills, saw-mills, timber-yard, foundery for casting cannon, with all the work-shops of the different artificers belonging to this once splendid establishment.

" All these works have evidently been planned with the view rather of keeping the natives in awe, than as adequate defences against the attack of European troops. The best defence, indeed, which may be reckoned

BATAVIA. reckoned upon, against such an enemy, is that which the ravages of this destructive climate would almost immediately occasion among unseasoned troops; and, it is to be hoped, that this consideration will always operate with the British government as a sufficient reason for not attempting to wrest it out of the hands of the Dutch. For as the shipping may, at any time, be taken out of the bay, by a superior naval force, their possession of the town and garrison cannot be of material injury to the interests of Great Britain, provided we have a strong and active squadron in the Indian seas.

“Batavia, though not of an extraordinary size, nor embellished with buildings that are worthy of particular notice for elegance of design, or magnificence of dimensions, may nevertheless be considered to rank among the neatest and the handsomest cities in the world. The ground plan is in the shape of a parallelogram, whose length from north to south is 4200 feet, and breadth 3000 feet. The streets are laid out in straight lines, and cross each other at right angles. Each street has its canal in the middle, cased with stone walls, which rise into a low parapet on the two margins. At the distance of six feet from this parapet wall is a row of evergreen trees, under the shade of which, on this intermediate space, are erected little open pavilions of wood, surrounded with seats, where the Dutch part of the inhabitants smoke their pipes, and drink their beer in the cool of the evening. Beyond the trees is a gravelled road from thirty to sixty feet in width, terminated also on the opposite side by a second row of evergreens. This road is appropriated for the use of carriages, horses, cattle, and, as particularly pointed out by proclamation, for all *slaves*, who are strictly prohibited from walking on the flagged causeway in front of the houses, as they are also from wearing stockings and shoes, in order that their naked feet may be the means of making their condition notorious. This *trottoir*, or footway, is at least six feet wide; and as the breadth of the canals is generally the same as that of the carriage road, the whole width of the Batavian streets may be considered to run from 114 to 204 feet; and the city is said to contain twenty of such streets, with canals in the middle, over which they reckon about thirty stone bridges. The trees that embellish the streets are of different kinds, but the most common are two species of *Callophyllum*,

called by botanists the *Inophyllum*, and the *Calaba*, the *Canarium Com-* BATAVIA.
mune, or canary nut tree, the *Guettarda Speciosa*, with its odoriferous
 flowers, and the free, elegant, and spreading tamarind tree.

“ In the style and architecture of the public buildings there is little to
 praise, and much to condemn. The Dutch, both at home and abroad,
 have hitherto resisted, with an obstinacy which indeed on most occa-
 sions influences the conduct of this nation, the introduction of the Greek
 and Roman models of architecture. The large octagon church is con-
 sidered by the inhabitants as a master-piece of elegance in its design, and
 of neatness in the execution, and is carefully pointed out to the notice
 of visitors. The annexed engraving will enable the reader, in some
 measure, to form a judgment how far its merits are correspondent to the
 high notions they bestow on it. The inside, however, is fitted up with
 great neatness, and a magnificent and fine toned organ occupies com-
 pletely a side of the octagon. The pulpit of teak wood is a laborious
 piece of workmanship, which is executed in a good style of carving.
 The expence of finishing this church is calculated to have amounted to
 eighty thousand pounds. The other public buildings consist in a Lu-
 theran and a Portuguese church, a Mahomedan mosque, and a Chinese
 temple; the Stadt-house, the spein-house, the infirmary, the chamber
 of orphans, and some other institutions of inferior note; beside a very con-
 venient and extensive market for butchers' meat, poultry, fish, grain,
 and vegetables. The private houses of the inhabitants, and particularly
 of those in the service of the East India Company, are generally of great
 dimensions; the rooms are lofty, the doors and windows large. Most
 of the wood-work, and the furniture within, are painted of a light cho-
 colate brown, and all the mouldings are gilt. The ground floors are
 flagged with smooth blue stones, or square brown tiles, which, being
 frequently washed in the course of the day, communicate a refreshing
 and an agreeable coolness to the lower apartments.

“ From a register that is kept of the taxable dwelling-houses in the
 city and suburbs of Batavia, it appears that there are,

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BATAVIA.	“ Within the walls	-	-	-	-	1993
	In the south suburbs	-	-	-	-	508
	In the suburbs near the Rotterdam gate	-	-	-	-	732
	In the suburbs near the Utrecht gate, chiefly inhabited by Javanese and free Malays	-	-	-	-	760
	In the Chinese town on the western side	-	-	-	-	1277
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					Making in the whole	5270

“ Which, together with the villages and villas, within a circuit of ten miles round Batavia, contain a population of about 116,000 souls, consisting of

“ East India Company’s servants of every description	800,					
and with their families		-	-	-	-	3,300
Burghers, or free citizens, 1138, and with their families						5,660
Javanese and free Malays		-	-	-	-	68,000
Chinese		-	-	-	-	22,000
Slaves		-	-	-	-	17,000
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Total 115,960

“ But the total population within the extent of the government of Batavia, is reckoned at 150,000 souls; that of all the other Dutch settlements on Java collectively at 230,000; and of the whole island, which, however, is little better than a guess, at 2,000,000.

“ The mortality of Europeans in Batavia is far beyond what is known in any other settlement, exceeding, in the best of times, that in the most fatal of the West India Islands. Of persons newly arrived, the usual calculation is that three in five will die the first year; and, of the remaining survivors, the mortality is never considered to be less than from nine to twelve in the hundred, which is the usual proportion of seasoned Europeans, exclusive of infants. Among these, likewise, are not included either troops or seamen. The havoc which this pernicious climate, added to their debaucheries and irregular conduct, occasion among these thoughtless people, is truly deplorable. The register of deaths in the military hospital in 62 years, amounted to 78,000 persons, or 1258 every

every year; and as the establishment of European troops seldom exceeded 1500, and was generally less than half that number, it may fairly be concluded, that every soldier who has been sent out to Batavia has perished there, which is, I believe, literally the fact. In 1791, a detachment of troops, hired by the Dutch from the Duke of Wirtemberg, was sent from the Cape of Good Hope to this place, contrary to the express terms on which they agreed to enter. It consisted of six officers and 270 men. The following year five of the officers and 150 privates had fallen a sacrifice to the climate. The condition of a German soldier, thus lent out by his mercenary master, to fight the battles of a foreign power in the most destructive of all climates, is equally deplorable with that of a negro slave; and the petty princes who raise a revenue, for the support of their spendor, by such unwarrantable and inhuman means, deserve to be considered, in this respect, in point of view, not more favourable than the common traffickers in negro slaves.

“ Of the 115,960 inhabitants of Batavia and its neighbourhood, the mortality is rarely less than 4000 souls. The account is probably not kept with much accuracy, but the following numbers of the several classes of inhabitants may be considered as pretty nearly the truth.

	Deaths.	
Dutch, half-cast, and families	796	being 9 per cent.
Chinese	769	— 3 $\frac{3}{4}$
Natives and Malays	1485	— 2 $\frac{1}{2}$
Slaves	1326	— 7 $\frac{1}{2}$

Deaths in one year 4376 in 115,960

Exclusive of the military, seamen, and slave children, who are not registered. So that the effects of the climate, or, perhaps, more strictly speaking, the circumstances under which the different descriptions of people live in this climate, are most destructive to the European settlers and their families, and to their slaves—to those who are most intemperate in their living, and to those who are at the complete mercy of the intemperate. The degree of heat is not indeed, by any means so high as might be expected in a large tract of land so little removed from under the equinoctial line, and in a portion of it at a considerable distance from

BATAVIA. mountains or high grounds. The usual temperature, in the middle of the day, is from 34° to 86° , but it fluctuates from 76° to 96° . During night the thermometer seldom sinks below 72° , or rises higher than 76° . It is not, therefore, the great heat to which must be ascribed the destructive effects to the human race, so much as other circumstances connected with the local situation, and the imprudent manner of living. Batavia is built on the midst of a swampy plain, out of which is constantly engendered a foul and contaminated atmosphere, stagnating over it in calm weather, and circulating through it from whatever quarter the wind may happen to blow. On that side of the city which is inland, the industrious Chinese carry on their various manufactures; such as tanning leather, burning shells into lime, baking earthen ware, boiling sugar, and distilling arrack. Their rice grounds, their sugar plantations, and their gardens, well stocked with all kinds of vegetables, surround the city. In these gardens, as in their own country, they sink large tubs, or earthen vessels, into which are collected all sorts of animal and vegetable matter, to be converted by putrefactive fermentation into manure. Nor do the sea breezes, which in most of the tropical situations are cool and refreshing, afford any relief to Batavia. It is true, they set in pretty regularly, about ten in the morning, and continue till four or five in the afternoon; and the land breeze comes from the mountains towards nine or ten in the evening, continuing at intervals till day-break: but, as I have already observed, both the one and the other, in passing over the intermediate marshy ground, are equally impregnated with contagious vapours. The ditches within the city are many of them stagnant, and highly offensive; and the Dutch have the imprudent custom of burying their dead not only within the city walls, but also in the churches. It is not, therefore, in the least surprising, that diseases of a fatal nature should prevail in such a country. The most common of these are dysenteries and putrid and inflammatory fevers, which in the course of a very few days, and sometimes in a few hours, prove fatal, or they terminate in a regular intermittent, which settling in a quotidian, or tertian ague, is afterwards with difficulty got rid of. The predisposition of the body for disease is such, that very slight wounds are frequently attended with gangrene or lock-jaw. Very few sur-

vive the age which is considered in Europe as the middle point BATAVIA.
of life."*

The Javanese are of a yellow complexion, and not unpleasing lineaments: they are generally Mahometans. Their coin is of lead, as in Sumatra and Borneo. The Chinese are the most industrious class, both in trade and agriculture. The air is so unwholesome from fetid fogs, and other causes, that dysenteries and putrid fevers destroy prodigious numbers; and of three settlers it is rare that one outlives the year. The rainy season begins with December, and lasts till March. Crocodiles abound in the rivers, as in most of the oriental isles. Java is divided into three or four principalities, the chief being the emperor of Surikarta. Near Cheribon are a splendid tomb and mosk, ranked among the most magnificent antiquities of the east. Thunberg mentions several volcanoes, one of which had overwhelmed with ashes a great number of coffee plantations. His journey to the interior mountains is interesting to the botanist; but the thickness of the forests appears to have prevented him from any general views of the island which might be serviceable to geography. The products resemble those of Sumatra; and the existence of the poisonous tree, which has supplied Dr. Darwin with a highly poetical description, appears to be completely confuted.

The small isle of Madura, on the N. of Java, had its independent prince, whose sufferings under the tyranny of the Dutch have been repeated by Mr. Pennant^o. The Dutch phlegm seems to have led them to greater cruelties than the fanaticism of the Portuguese or Spaniards; and our ingenious naturalist has observed, that "phlegmatic constitutions never feel for the sufferings of others, their callosity is incorrigible; warm tempers may do wrong, but they soon return to their native milkiness." It is to be regretted that the English had not retained for some years the possession of the Dutch settlements, to convince the Batavians, by example, that conquests may be better maintained by lenity, than by sordid cruelty. The isle of BALLI seems only remarkable for

* Barrow's Voyage to Cochin China, p. 170. 1806, 410.

^o Outlines, iv. 31. See, ib. 28, the massacre of 12,000 Chinese in 1740.

furnishing

JAVA. furnishing slaves, cotton yarn, and pickled pork.⁷ Of LOMBOK, SUMBAVA, and FLOREZ, little is known. TIMOR was discovered in 1522 by the companions of Magalhaens, who found in it alone the white sandal wood.⁸ The Portuguese, after a long struggle, effected a settlement; but were expelled by the Dutch in 1613, who regard this isle as a kind of barrier of the spice trade. Timor is near 200 miles in length by 60 in breadth; and the inhabitants are esteemed the bravest in the oriental archipelago.

II. BORNEO.

Borneo. THIS island is reputed the largest in the world; and even after recent discoveries seems only to yield to Notasia, or New Holland, which, as it rivals Europe in size, may more properly be regarded as a continent. Borneo seems clearly to be the Greater Java of Marco Polo, which he says is 3000 miles in circuit, as it is about 900 miles in length, by 600 at its greatest breadth. That father of oriental geography tells us that the Greater Java is 1500 miles to the S. of Ciamba, probably Siampa, on the S. of Cochin China. From the Greater Java were 700 miles to the isle of Condur, probably Pulo Condor; thence to the S. W. lay the *province* of Boiach, or Loiach, which seems to be Malacca. From that province he passes south to the isle Petan, probably Bentam, or some other small woody isle in that direction: from Petan there were 100 miles to the Lesser Java, or Sumatra, 2000 miles in circuit, which Polo visited, and describes six of its kingdoms. From the Lesser Java, were 150 miles to the island of Necura, probably the most southerly of the Nicobar islands; but his nutmegs and cloves here found seem fabulous. From Necura he passes to Angania, in all appearance the Andamans, and thence S. W. to the great island of Seilam, or Ceylon. From this account it seems clear that the isle now called Java was unknown to Marco Polo, and the name which probably implies only a large island, as Pulo a small one, was indifferently applied by the Malays to many

⁷ See Forest, 170.

⁸ Premier Voyage autour du Monde par Pigafetta. Paris, an 9. p. 213, 214.

countries;

countries; and happened to be retained by the Portuguese for a third BORNEO. Java, or large land, unknown to the great European traveller, whose writings deserve illustration, as not only interesting in themselves, but as they led to the discovery of America, and other grand events of modern history.*

The interior parts of the great island of Borneo are little known, though a considerable river flow from the centre of the country almost due south, forming the harbour of Bender Massin; and the names of several villages on the banks are laid down by D'Anville. "The far greater part of Borneo next to the sea, especially the northern, consists of swamps, covered with forests of trees of numberless species and great sizes, which penetrate for scores of miles towards the centre of the island. These unstable muddy flats are divided by rivers, which branch into multitudes of canals, and are the only roads into the interior parts. Lofty mountains are said to rise in the middle of the island; many are volcanic, and often occasion tremendous earthquakes." The houses are often built on posts fixed in rafts, which are moored to the shore, and on the Banjar river experience the rise and fall of the tide, a difference of twelve feet. These singular villages are moved from place to place according to the convenience of the inhabitants. The coasts are held by Malays, Moors, Macassars from Celebez, and even Japanese. The natives in the interior are blacks, with long hair, of a middle stature, feeble and inactive; but their features are superior to those of negroes. Their religion, a kind of Mahometanism, and there are several kingdoms, the chief being at Tatas in the S. on the great river,

* The numerals are very corrupt, but in the account of the globe of Behaim, at the end of Pigafetta's voyage the isle of Petan is called Pentan, which seems to resemble Bentam. Pigafetta, p. 216, mistakes modern Java, which the natives, as he says, called Jaoo, for the Greater Java of Marco Polo; just as he finds Japan S. of the Philippines and the Taprobana of the ancients in Sumatra. He adds that the Lesser Java is the isle of Balli! This gross ignorance of the Portuguese mariners at first led to great confusion, which is not even now completely expelled.

Of the island called Greater Java, there is an account in the travels of Odoricus Utinensis, A. D. 1320, published at Venice 1761, 4to. p. 60.: he says, it was divided into eight kingdoms, of which one was predominant; and among the products are reckoned camphor and nutmegs.

† Pennant's Outlines, iv. 52.

which

countries;

BORNEO.

which for many miles is twice as broad as the Thames at Gravesend, and bordered by trees of most stupendous height. This river is greatly frequented by the Chinese junks; but European settlements have been unsuccessful, the adventurers having been massacred. The best accounts of Borneo seem still to be derived from the voyage of Beeckman, published in 1718. Pepper abounds in the interior country, with the gum called dragon's blood, camphor, and sandal wood. A superstitious value is attached to the bezoar, a kind of concretion found in the monkies. Edible birds' nests are abundant. Gold is found in the interior country; where there are also said to be diamonds, but inferior to those of Golconda. The Ourang Outang abounds, and is said to light a fire by blowing with its mouth, to broil fish and boil rice, so that man is not the only cooking animal. The natives are called Biajos, but their language has not been explained: they are said to offer sacrifices of sweet scented wood to one supreme beneficent deity; and the sentiments of piety, or in other words, of delightful gratitude, are accompanied by laudable morals. The Biajos come down the great river of Banjar to the port of Masseen* in rude boats, with gold dust, and other articles, among which diamonds are mentioned, the Moors called Banjareens being the factors. These Biajos are tattooed blue, with a small wrapper about the loins. The chiefs extract one or two of the fore teeth, substituting others of gold; and strings of the teeth of tigers, a real badge of knighthood, or courage, are worn round the neck. These animals abound in the island, and probably alligators; a deplorable consequence of the metempsychosis preserving their numbers in the east, where in many regions these creatures are venerated, as being animated with the souls of heroes. The town called Borneo on the N. W. consists of about three thousand houses, floating as above described: it was greatly frequented by the Chinese, who probably continue to be the chief traders to Borneo.

The following account of the island of Borneo is given in the Dutch edition of the *Histoire Generale des Voyages*,† and appears to be ex-

* D'Anville calls the river Bisjos, and the town Bender Massin, from a confusion of names and circumstances.

† Tom. xv. 1757, 4to. p. 136.

tracted

tracted from Valentyn's large history of the Dutch possessions in the East Indies, where a curious map of this island may be found. BORNEO.

" This island, which is the largest of all in the East Indies, extends to four degrees and a half S. lat. and to eight degrees beyond the equator on the north; forming in all twelve degrees and a half in latitude. Its circumference is computed at more than 530 Dutch miles.*

" This island is not only of great extent, but extremely opulent, though the interior be little known. There are only six or seven kings, who are designed by the names of the principal places, Banjar-Massin, Succadana, Lamba, Sambas, Hermata, Jathou, and Borneo. The king of Banjar-Massin is supposed to be the most powerful, and his country is also the best known.

" The name of a city is generally given to the chief place, which is only a village in the southern part of the island, in four degrees of latitude, near a large river, which forms some isles. More than three days are required to pass, in a boat, from the mouth to this place. Banjar-Massin contains many houses, mostly built of bamboos, though there be some of deal. They are mostly so large, that one would be sufficient to lodge a hundred families in separate apartments.

" The inhabitants of the sea-coast derive their origin from several neighbouring nations, whose language is there retained. They are remarkable for perfidy and cruelty. The mountaineers of the interior appear to have better dispositions; and, besides the principal riches of the island, they possess the most beautiful women, celebrated for the fairness of their complexions, and the acuteness of their understanding. The kings and princes do not disdain to demand them in marriage.

" A considerable trade is carried on in this island with many foreign nations, both of Europe and India. The chief products of the island are great quantities of gold, either in powder or in ingots, but of different qualities; diamonds, above all, in the kingdom of Succadana; pearls on the northern coast; pepper every where, with some cloves and nutmegs on the mountains, camphor in the kingdom of Succadana; benzoin, dra-

* In geographical descriptions the use of the geographical mile is always preferable, while the reader is constantly embarrassed by the use of the mile peculiar to the country of the traveller.

BORNEO.

gon's blood, calambac wood, eagle wood, canes, iron, copper, tir, bezoar stones from monkeys and goats, fine coffers made of reeds, wax, and other commodities. Those which find the readiest sale are red agates, bracelets of copper, coral of all kinds, porcelain, rice, opium, salt, onions, sugar, and linen.

“ There arrive annually from China, Siam, and Johor, ten or twelve junks, which exchange these merchandises for others, the Portuguese of Macao having led the way. Ambassadors also arrive loaded with rich presents for the king of Banjar-Massin, who pretends to the title of Emperor of Borneo, though all the other kings be independent.

“ His states furnish pepper in abundance, and there is found abundance of gold in the mountains, among the sand of the large rivers; and above all, in some pools, where our author asserts, that this precious metal is found in lumps, sometimes weighing from ten to twenty pounds and more; but the islanders are averse to draw it from the water, which is as cold as ice, and they even do not touch the large pieces, which they idly regard as the matrices of the lumps. The mines belonging to the king, are situated many days' journey from his residence; and the journey, which begins by water, and ends by land, is not a little difficult. There is a governor at Bonnawa Asan, who is charged with the inspection of these mines, and with the right of levying the duties of the sovereign. That part of the country also produces iron, copper, and tin. At the distance of five days' journey, further to the north, is a high mountain, whence are brought quantities of rock crystal, and among them are sometimes beautiful diamonds, but the natives do not know the difference.

“ The kingdom of Banjar-Massin extends for about three degrees to the north, while its width on the west to the river of Cataringa is only forty-five Dutch miles,* although the voyage may be a hundred by sea, even when there is little wind, because of the rapidity of the contrary currents. The principal places on this route to the west of the river of Banjar-Massin, are Tatas, Cota-Tengah, where the king usually resides,

* The Dutch mile used by Valentyn is the German, of fifteen to the degree, each about four and two-thirds English miles.

Caljong Campang of which the environs furnish much gold, and Mandaway, the name of a town, and of a very large river, which runs into a country equally rich by its mines of that precious metal, and its dragon's blood, wax, bezoar, canes, and works in reeds. Some miles thence, still proceeding westward, you arrive at the river Sampit, the mouth of which is not less than two Dutch miles and a half in width, terminating in a spacious bay, where a thousand vessels might ride secure from all the winds. On this coast there is also carried on a great trade in gold and other merchandize; and the mountains in that quarter produce nutmegs, not inferior to those of Banda, and cloves equal to those of Amboyna: but, if the Dutch author be credited, these spices are not found in sufficient quantity to become an object of commerce. The inhabitants of the shore purchase them at a low price from the mountaineers, and sell them with advantage to the Chinese. Ponboang and its river abound in gold, and beautiful canes; but Cataringa, the last place in the monarchy of Banjar-Massin, greatly surpasses in riches all the other places of that coast, which may raise for the royal service seven thousand two hundred armed men.

" You then enter the states of the king of Succadana, whose power is not comparable to that of the king of Banjar-Massin, not having above one thousand soldiers; but he is richer in regard to diamonds and camphor, which are not found in the other country. In Succadana diamonds are sometimes found as large as a pigeon's egg; and though they were believed to be softer than those of the mines of Golconda, experience has proved the contrary. In order to secure this trade the king has stationed some armed barks at the mouth of the river, so that the intercourse with strangers being prevented, his subjects are obliged to bring him all the diamonds, for which he pays at his own pleasure. Yet many were secretly sold to vessels from Bantam, Johor, and other places, who enter the river without regarding these barks. This river may be ascended in shallops for a space of forty Dutch miles. The town of Succadana, situated on its principal or southern outlet, at one degree and a half of S. lat. presents nothing remarkable, being composed of five or six hundred houses, built like those Banjar-Massin. Twenty-five leagues due west of Succadana, and opposite the gulf, is the island of Crimataja,

BORNEO.

which yields a considerable quantity of iron for the use of the country; and some other islands less remarkable.

“ The kingdom of Landa, begins immediately on the north of the equator. The town of the same name, situate on the great river Lauwe, is tolerably built, and the residence of the king. In this monarchy are also the rivers of Moira Sambas, Mampaha, and some others. This kingdom anciently belonged to the king of Sourabaja, in the island of Java; and the king of Succadana had afterwards usurped the greater part, but in the time of Valentyn there was an independent prince.

“ Further to the north, under the second degree of N. lat. you first reach Hermata, a town which lends its name to another maritime kingdom, and afterwards enter the territory of the king of Sambas, which is inland. He is a powerful prince; and there are found in his country beautiful diamonds, and other precious articles, which he buys at a low price of the mountaineers.

“ Due north, or rather N. N. W. the king of Borneo resides in a town of that name, situated on a beautiful river, near a large bay, on both sides of which are islets surrounded with banks of sand. Before this bay, at twelve Dutch miles from the shore, are three other islands, of which the chief is called Pulo Tiga, with a large bank of many miles in extent. The environs of the town of Borneo are very marshy, and almost always under water, so that boats are used to approach the houses, reputed to be two or three thousand, mostly built of deal, without reckoning those dispersed in the surrounding country. The inhabitants of the low country never quit their arms, which consist of a bow and poisoned arrows. They are robust and bold, but their perfidious character, prevented any confidence, as the Dutch have been frequently deceived.

“ Between Sambas and Borneo, the coast forms two large recesses, intersected with many rivers, but there are few habitations throughout this space, which extends for forty Dutch miles. Fronting the first recess are the isles of Comados, Slakenburg, and a volcano not far from the shore. On the other side of the town of Borneo, that is to the N. E. are a number of villages, rivers, points, and creeks, which are

little

little remarkable; the river Sandanoan forming the frontier of this BORNEO kingdom.

“ The country of Marudo advances towards the north between four great points, of which the first called Sanfaon, is at the distance of eleven Dutch miles from the second, which is called Tandjong Mater; after which follows the bay of Marudo, with a town of the same name, situated at its bottom. At some distance from the shore, are discovered four large isles, and some smaller. The two other points on the east of the bay are Pulo Avigo, and Punta Corpaon, between which there are also some little isles.

“ From this last point the coast bends to the east, and forms a large bay, called that of St. Anne.”

Our author proceeds to give a dry detail of the names of other places on the coast, which would little interest the reader.

“ It is to be wished we had more information concerning the interior parts of this vast and interesting island, but it is only known that it is full of high mountains and unpassable forests. The kingdom of Lava, which is the centre of the island, is only known by name; and little more has been discovered concerning the interior parts of Succadana, Lamba, Hermata, and Sambas, where it is presumed there are many deserts. The country of Marudo, in the north of the island, is particularly remarkable for forests and mountains; one of the latter, on the south of the town of Marudo, called by the Portuguese or Dutch, the mountain of St. Peter, is of prodigious height. These wild countries are peopled with an infinite number of monkeys, besides the *Orang Hötans*: these real satyrs walk on their hind legs, and have a perfect resemblance of mankind; other species are found white as snow, and some entirely black. The best bezoars are found in the bodies of these monkeys, and those of goats are inferior as well as more common; but the best are from a kind of hedge-hog or porcupine, which is very rare. The Portuguese have thence called them *pedra de porca*; and ascribed to them great virtues. If we could penetrate further into the country, what rarities of natural history, what treasures might be discovered, which are as yet unknown!

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BORNEO.

"The inhabitants of the town of Borneo are reputed the richest of all the islanders, not only because a larger quantity of gold dust is collected in their province, but because the gold is finer than elsewhere. They are also reputed to have the best camphor of any in the Indies; and they possess other precious articles, which are in much request. Their pirogs are the most beautiful, the strongest and largest to be seen. There are some which are eight or ten feet wide, and forty or fifty in length, with a large tent in the middle, and generally between thirty and forty rowers. Wood abounds for their construction; and the industry of the workmen is highly laudable.

"Paganism prevails in the interior of the island, but there are neither pagodas nor brahmins, each creating his own god, and a form of worship, according to his fancy. Some adore the sun, the moon, and the stars; and others, the first object which appears in the morning when they quit their houses. They are extremely superstitious, and have an infinite number of good and bad omens. If they begin a journey, and a bird, reputed of bad augury, fly towards the place which they have left, they will immediately return; but if the bird fly before them, they continue their journey; and experience cannot destroy these ridiculous prejudices.

"The Mahomedan religion is established on the coast, and gains by degrees the interior parts of the island, where some mosques may be seen. But the mountaineers, who wish to embrace it, are obliged richly to reward the priests.

"After the Portuguese began to carry on their commerce with this island, some of their missionaries employed their efforts to convert the natives to the catholic system. They found the usual resistance among the Mahomedans, but several pagans were baptised. Three or four thousand nominal christians existed on the river Caljong Cajamp, when, about the year 1690, their priests were massacred by the orders of the king of Banjar-Massin, on account of a revolt; and since that time christianity is entirely extinct in the island. A little cross, which some wore on the neck, was the only vestige which remained.

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“ Don George de Mences, governor of the Moluccas, in 1526, was BORNEO. the first who gave orders to Basco Laurens to explore this island; and the Portuguese historians have told us the issue of his commission to the king of Borneo, who appears to have been a weak monarch. Gonzalvo Pereira, the fourth governor of Ternat, landed at Borneo four years afterwards, and made a treaty with that prince. The Portuguese continued to send from time to time some ships, especially those of Macao, to take in pepper, and other precious merchandise.

“ The first Dutchman who appeared at Borneo, was Oliver de Noort, who was followed three years afterwards, that is, in 1604, by the Admiral Warwick, to whom the king of Succadana granted freedom of trade in his states, and sent him eight Dutchmen whom his subjects had taken prisoners.

“ About the year 1607, there was here a Dutch factor called Roef, who eagerly demanded to be recalled, because having amassed a considerable quantity of diamonds, of which the natives had knowledge, he was afraid they would take away his life, in order to seize on his riches. About the same time, the king of Banjar-Massin having attacked a Dutch bark, and assassinated the factor, the Dutch at Succadana retired to Patana.”

Our author proceeds, with his usual minuteness, to relate other incidents of Dutch commerce. The East India Company of Holland, finding the trade did not answer expectation, withdrew the factories in 1623. They sent annually two vessels to buy diamonds and pearls, but the commerce was afterwards suffered to pass into the hands of the Chinese.

In 1701 the English had also a factory at Banjar-Massin, and the inhabitants having formed a design of attacking them, though they only amounted to ten effective men, and forty Buggeses, they seized on the capital and four villages. Valentyn saw, in 1713, at the Cape of Good Hope, one of the chiefs of that factory, who was returning to Europe loaded with diamonds. The English were, however, more successful in Celebez than in Borneo.

Captain Forest supplies some recent remarks on this important island.

BORNEO.

“ The climate puts me in mind of Ceylon, being, from the abundance of woods and verdure, always cool, and not subject to hot land winds, like the coast of Coromandel, nor great heats, as Calcutta in Bengal. Land and sea winds are always cool; not but that particular circumstances of situation, in all countries, affect the air, as the neighbourhood of swamps, or the freedom of ventilation intercepted by woods.

“ Most of this north part of Borneo, granted to the English East India Company by the Sooloos, is watered by noble rivers. Those that discharge themselves into Maludo Bay, are not barred: it has also many commodious harbours, Sandakan, Maludo Bay, Ambong, Pulo Gaya on the main land, and many good harbours on the islands near it; two on Malwally; two, if not more, on Banguay, one of them behind the island Patanuan; two on Balambangan; and one behind Maleangan, near Banguay.

“ Of the two harbours on Balambangan, called the north-east and south-west, the north-east is the larger; but on the south side, where the English settled, the ground is swampy. At the entrance of the S. W. harbour, is great convenience of watering. Fresh water may be conveyed into the lower deck ports of a first rate, lying in five fathom, by means of a hose from a rivulet close by. Here also the soil is rich and fruitful: at the N. E. harbour, it is sandy and barren. Round the island quantities of fish may be caught.

“ On the main land of Borneo, opposite Balambangan, and to the island Banguay, grow forests of fine tall timber, without underwood. Free-stone may be had in abundance. Here are large cattle, called Lisang: flocks of deer, and wild hogs, feed on spacious plains, in no fear of the tyger, as on the island of Sumatra. The country produces all the tropical fruits in proportion, with many known in few places but Sooloo; such as the madang, like a great custard apple, and the balono, like a large mango. In this north part of Borneo, is the high mountain of Keneebaleo, near which, and upon the skirts of it, live the people called Oran Idaan or Idahan, and sometimes Maroots. The mountain is, in old maps, named St. Peter's Mount, and is flat at top.

“ I have conversed with many Sooloos concerning the Idaan, and with many of them who understand Malay. They believe the deity

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pleased with human victims. An *Idaan* or *Maroot* must, for once at BORNEO. least, in his life, have imbrued his hands in a fellow-creature's blood: the rich are said to do it often, adorning their houses with skulls and teeth, to shew how much they have honoured their author, and laboured to avert his chastisement. Several in low circumstances will club to buy a *Bisayan* christian slave, or any one that is to be sold cheap; that all may partake the benefit of the execution. So at *Kalagan*, or *Mindano*, as *Rajah Moodo* informed me, when the god of the mountain gives no brimstone, they sacrifice some old slave, to appease the wrath of the deity. Some also believe, those they kill in this world, are to serve them in the next, as *Mr. Dalrymple* observes. They are acquainted with a subtle poison called *Ippoo*, the juice of a tree, in which they dip small darts. These they shoot through a hollow piece of wood, which the *Sooloos* call *sampit*, whence, is said to issue instant death, to whoever is wounded by them.

“ The *Idaans* pen hogs, and eat pork. They carry their rice, fruits, &c. to the sea side, and buy salt from the *Badjoos*, who make it often in this manner. They gather sea weeds, burn them, make a lye of ashes, filter it, and form a bitter kind of salt in square pieces, by boiling it in pans made of the bark of the *aneebong*. These pieces of salt are carried to market, whither both the *Idaan* and *Mussulmen* resort, and pass as a currency for money.

“ The places granted to the English south of *Pirate's Point*, are named *Pandassan*, *Tampassook*, *Abia*, *Ambong*, *Salaman*, *Tawarran*, *Inanan*, and *Patatan*, as far as *Keemanees*. In this extent of coast are two good harbours, *Ambong*, and behind *Pulo Gaya*, of which hereafter. This coast is better inhabited than the east of *Pirate's Point*, extending a little beyond the spacious harbour of *Sandakan*, to *Towson Abia*, where the grant terminates. The latter is mostly low land, and the inhabitants live up the rivers a good way; whereas, on the former part of the grant, the coast is somewhat higher, and inhabited close to the sea.

“ The *Mahometans* live mostly by the sea-side, at the mouths of rivers, and preclude as much as they can, Europeans from having intercourse with the *Idaan* and *Maroots*: but, at *Balambangan*, and on the island *Labuan*, near *Borneo*, the *Idaan* in their boats, brought hogs, fruits,

BORNEO.

fruits, &c. and were glad to see the English eat pork like themselves. The north part of Borneo is said to have been once under the dominion of China.

“ Mr. Dalrymple, in his plan for settling Balambangan, gives a very particular and just account of this country, which he calls Felicia; and adds, that the Idaan, if well used, would flock from every quarter, to whoever should settle there. This I firmly believe, with that judicious and inquisitive gentleman. I have seen many of them, not only at Balambangan, but on the coast of Borneo, and have conversed with several in Malay;—what the same observer says, about their respecting the Mahometans, is also strictly true. They consider the Mahometans as having a religion, which they have not yet got: and I am of opinion, from the moral character which they deserve, not only that his scheme of civilizing them could be carried into effect, but that our religion could be easily introduced among them. The horrid custom already mentioned, paves the way: the transition, hinted by the author of the Origin of Despotism, sufficiently points it out. The Idaan punish murder, theft, and adultery, with death; and take but one wife. Had our settling in this quarter succeeded, in them would have been a vast acquisition of people to furnish us with pepper and rough materials for exportation, from their many rivers; beside the precious articles of gold and diamonds; and the great benefit a free trade from Indostan hither, would bring to Bengal and Bombay. A race of Lascars (sailors) might be brought up in it, which would employ many vessels, as the commodities are bulky, that return the salt and calicos of Indostan. These Lascars, mixed with an equal number of English sailors, would fight a ship well, as has often been experienced in India, especially on the coast of Malabar. Another advantage would have attended our settling in this quarter: the quick intercourse with Cochin-China, and other places on the west coast of the China seas. To sail thither, from any place already mentioned, or from Balambangan, and to return, the course being nearly N. W. or S. E. either monsoon is a fair wind upon the beam; and Cochin-China would take off, not only many woollens, but many Indostan cottons, particularly Bengal muslins; as I
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learnt from a very intelligent Chinese at Balambangan, who spoke good Malay." * BORNEO.

This large island, as already mentioned, ought not to be arranged with the group, or chain of Sunda, with which it has no connection; and with equal justice might Crete be arranged with the Cyclades, or Rhodes with the Sporades: but it is surrounded with many small isles which, from their relation to this comparative continent, may be termed BORNEAN ISLANDS. Such is the group of SOOLOO in the N. E. of which Mr. Dalrymple, who visited them, has given a good account. They are rich in pearls, for which they were noted in the time of Magalhaens, Pigafetta, his companion, reporting that a Bornean monarch possessed two pearls found here, as large as pullet's eggs.⁹ The chief isle is thirty miles by twelve: the natives rather polished, the government being vested in a sultan, for the Mahometan religion extends thus far.¹⁰ The isle of TAWEE lies between the Sooloos and Borneo. At the northern extremity is BANGUEY, not far from Balabac, the most S. W. of the Philippines; and BALAMBANGAN, remarkable for a settlement attempted by the English in 1773, but evacuated either on account of the unhealthy climate, or of a Dutch invasion.† To the W. of Borneo are the groups of Natuna and Anamba little visited or known; an observation applicable also to several isles in the S. of Borneo; but Pulo Laut, which by D'Anville is represented as an isle, is by later discoveries attached to the continent of Borneo. Bornean
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Sooloo.

III. THE MANILLAS, OR PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.

THIS large group was discovered by Magalhaens in 1521, who called them the archipelago of St. Lazarus; but they were afterwards styled the Philippines, in honour of that infamous tyrant Philip II of

* Forest's Voyage, p. 367.

⁹ Voyage, p. 150.

¹⁰ See also the Voyages of Sonnerat and Forest.

† This affair is explained by Forest, p. 336, but rather in a timid manner. We were expelled by an insurrection of the Sooloos, but were they not infligated by the Dutch?

Spain. The popular name of Manillas seems preferable, as native and ancient, but the appellation seems unknown to Pigafetta, who calls the isle of Luzon, *Luzon*, and does not indicate any other title,* while others term it the isle of Manilla.

LUZON.

LUZON is the largest and most important of these isles, being more than seven degrees, or near 500 B. miles in length, by about 100 of medial breadth. The jealousy of the Spaniards has prevented the acquisition of precise knowledge concerning this important island, which is pervaded in its length by a chain of high mountains towards the east. Gold, copper, and iron are among the certain products; and the soil is reported to be uncommonly fruitful. The natives, who are of a mild character, are called Tagals, like all those of the Philippines, and seem of Malay origin.† They are tall and well made, wearing only a kind of shirts with loose drawers, but the dress of the women is chiefly a large mantle, and their black and beautiful hair sometimes reaches the ground, the complexion being a deep tawney. The houses are of bamboo covered with palm leaves, raised on pillars to the height of eight or ten feet. The chief food is rice, often eaten with salted fish. There are many lakes in the isle of Luzon, the most considerable being that which gives source to the river of Manilla. Several volcanoes occur, and earthquakes are not uncommon. The cotton is of peculiar beauty; and the sugar cane and cocoa tree are objects of particular culture. The city of Manilla is well-built and fortified, but a third part is occupied by convents: the number of Christian inhabitants is computed at 12,000. Between this city and Acapulco, nearly in the same parallel on the W. of Mexico, was conducted a celebrated commerce through a space of about 140 degrees, or about 8400 g. miles, more than one third of the circumference of the globe. The Manilla ships, or galleons were formerly of great size, as appears from the well-known narrative of Anson's voyage, but latterly smaller vessels have been used. The city of Manilla was taken by the English in 1762;

* The Spanish ζ with *cedilla* is often mistaken for the common c , whence D'Anville's Cumbava for Zumbava, and the *Lucon* of Pennant instead of *Luzon*. In like manner the Spanish x , pronounced *sh*, has occasioned our *Xullas* in these seas, instead of *Sbullas*.

† Sonnerat, ii. 108.

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and the ransom remained unpaid. The Chinese were here numerous Luzon. till the beginning of the 17th century, when the Spaniards committed a terrible massacre of that industrious people. In 1769 it is said that they were again expelled from all these isles, by the bigotry of the governor : since which time there has been a great decline in industry and produce.

Monsieur Sonnerat offers the following observations :*

“ Manilla, the capital of all the Spanish settlements in the Philippines, is a tolerably large city. It is well built, the houses are handsome, and there are magnificent churches. It is a fortified city, situated in a most advantageous position, on the banks of a considerable river, which washes its walls, and whose divided branches completely traverse the island of Luzon. The surrounding country is extremely fertile, and fit for any cultivation. But such a treasure is of no advantage in the hands of a people who make no use of it. The inhabitants have neither profited by the position of the city, nor the fertility of the environs. The entrance of the river is shut by a bar, which becomes dangerous when the sea is rough. There was a plan of no great labour to have, instead of the bar, a commodious basin, which would have been perfectly calm and safe. They began it, but, soon fatigued, they abandoned the design. In vain the earth offers its riches ; they do not till it, but leave it to waste without cultivation, and to bear itself the crops which they do not reap. The law itself, which ought to lend its aid, and to second it, prevents the wealth, which Manilla endeavours to afford. Exportation is prohibited, and the treasures of a land too fertile for the small number of inhabitants it supports, perish on the soil which produced them. But if there happens a year in which the variations of the atmosphere, or hurricanes, the rains or great drought render the fecundity of the earth useless, the most dreadful famine desolates a country which ought never to feel want. They neither cultivate nor reap but for their annual occasion, and most dreadful deficiency is sometimes attended with a dangerous security. The inhabitants, without emulation or motive, and yet labouring under the desire, which all men have, of enriching them-

* Voyage a la Nouvelle Guinée, Paris, 1776, 4^{to}, p. 25.

selves,

Luzon.

elves, turn all their views and hopes towards the galleon, which sails every year for Acapulco.

“ This vast and heavy vessel, which never takes any other route but the destined one, pierced for thirty-six guns, without troops, badly provided with provisions for the support of the crew, partly laden with merchandise to the value of four millions of piastres, exposed to the dangers of a long route, not capable of resistance if attacked, often surpris'd at sea by enemies, because it departs without its being known to those who dispatch it, whether their nation is at war in Europe; is so badly provided with the necessaries, that its passage is often lengthened in going to latitudes where there is rain, which the crew receive in their sails stretched out, and with which they fill their jars.

“ This ship often runs the greatest risks, experiencing the misfortunes attendant on negligence, misses its voyage, is seized, or lost in its way. When it departs, the dangers to which it is exposed are so sensibly felt, though they do not attempt to remedy them, that there are public prayers for its safe arrival; if it returns, the news occasions joy throughout the whole island; but if it is delayed, fear and consternation invade all minds, and the report of its loss is a public calamity, which diffuses dejection and despair.

“ The return of the galleon is worth every year at Manilla three millions of piastres, which are soon expended in merchandise, generally purchased of an English vessel under Armenian colours.* This traffic is a real loss to the inhabitants. On the one hand, they buy their merchandise at an exorbitant price; and, on the other, they strip themselves of all the silver which enters their island. The force of habit, the convenience of trafficking with gold instead of merchandise, which is necessarily accompanied with some trouble, makes them prefer trading in money with the English vessels to the commerce with ships from the Isle of France, which would take in exchange the productions of their country, cordage, pitch, tar, cloth, sugar, oil, reeds, canes, indigo, rocou,†

* American.

† The rocou or roucou, is the *Achiote* of the Spaniards, the *Mitella Americana maxima tinctoria*. Others call it *Urucu*, and *Bixa*.

&c.

&c. which nations.

“ I avail settlements of the distressed and civilized; which savage state; embrace which constituted the unconquered support of rage, nor in avidity, for the fertile seat of civilization, reputed among with tears feebleness defend them Manilla the preter. I whom I could armed as with capital, which pearance of silence, a ru shoulders covered naked, a ho silence. The tenance. They they have the idea of which the

&c. which would be a commerce equally advantageous to both Luzon. nations.

"I availed myself of the time we stayed at Manilla to see the different settlements of the Spaniards in the interior of the country. I was aware of the difficulties of the journey; I knew that part of the people oppressed under the Spanish yoke, had some features of a nation half civilized; while the other haughty and independent, was a solely in a savage state; that the former languished in idleness, with ut energy to embrace virtue, or commit excesses; that sloth, apathy, and timidity constituted their character, and misery their habitual state; that the latter unconquered, proud, not able to bear the yoke, disgusted at the idea of constraint, lived at the expence of the former, seizing from them the support of a miserable existence, which these had neither power, courage, nor industry to defend; that dishonesty, audacity, barbarity, and avidity, formed the character of this part of the nation; and lastly, that the fertile and unhappy land I was going to travel over, constantly the seat of civil war, furnished for its inhabitants fruits, which they disputed among themselves, and tore one from the other, bathing them with tears and blood. I was, therefore, obliged to provide against febleness and audacity, in a country where half of the people do not defend themselves, and the other are always prepared to attack. I left Manilla the 25th October, accompanied with six Indians, and an interpreter. I had chosen men, who appeared very resolute, and upon whom I could depend. We travelled on horseback, well mounted, and armed as well as we could be. I was hardly a day's journey from the capital, when I found myself buried in woods; no habitation, no appearance of cultivation met my sight; but nature exhibited in perfect silence, a rugged and awful appearance. Some scattered Indians, their shoulders covered with the skins of wild goats, the rest of the body naked, a bow in their hands, and arrows on their back, interrupted the silence. These men have haggard looks, and a very unprepossessing countenance. They live in continual fear, but independent, and although they have nothing to loie, their terrors continue; perhaps they retain the idea of the yoke which was attempted to be imposed on them, and which the others have undergone. They flee from the face of man; they

Luzon.

they flee from one another; they have no society; they wander alone; they stop when night overtakes them; they sleep in the hollows of trees; they have not even families among them. The invincible force of nature alone bends their untractable character, and constrains the men to sue those females which chance throws in their way, and to whom instinct alone carries them. Thus, love never animates this unhappy country, its charms are here unknown, and its pleasures a yoke imposed by nature.

“ The wood which I traversed led me to a large lake, in the middle of which is an island, where some Indian families have taken refuge; they live by fishing, and preserve their liberty, suffering no one to land on the place, which serves them for an asylum. On the E. S. E. the lake is bounded by high mountains; the soil is fertile, and above all there are a great many fruit-trees: and it is from hence that Manilla is supplied with fruit. These mountains are inhabited by a mild set of people, who employ themselves in making mats, cloth, and different works with the abacca, a kind of banana which bears no fruit, and of which the filaments are very strong. These people have laws, and punish crimes, the chief, in their eyes, being adultery.

“ On the other side of the mountains, which bound the lake on the E. S. E. there are immense plains, traversed by large and deep rivers, which diffuse fertility. A large and happy nation might exist here, by cultivating the country. Yet there are but a few villages seen built at a great distance from each other, sad dwellings, inhabited by men without morals, without virtue, without equity; who, fear each other, and having no protection from laws, trust to the force of arms alone for their safety. They never quit them, not even when they accost each other; and the commerce they have among themselves resembles more a state of continual warfare, than an act of society. Even the rights of blood do not give confidence: parents, brothers, the wife, and husband, live in distrust, and, consequently, in hatred of each other: the father fears his sons, by whom he is equally dreaded. Nevertheless, what is surprising, the arts have entered this savage nation, without softening their ferocious manners. I arrived the 20th November at Calamba, one of the largest villages possessed by the savage nation whose manners I have

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described. The day of my arrival was a great festival among these people: they celebrated it in divers spectacles. Amongst the number, was a tragedy, the action of which, worthy the people who represented it, was continued for three days; the decorations, the declamation, and the performance, were much above what I could have expected of so savage a people. Cock-fights succeeded the tragedy. The women did not assist at all; they were in a separate place, and passed their time at a game called cocos. The men sided with one or other of the combatants, bets were laid, and pretty large sums were lost. An incident had nearly spoiled the sports, and changed the games into combats. One of the bettors, who had lost much, very dexterously took away his neighbour's purse. The other perceived the theft, dragged the culprit before the Alcald, or magistrate; a man who, among a savage and faithless nation, was not without intelligence, and who loved justice. He ordered that the offender should be carried to prison. The news soon spread, and an act of justice caused dissatisfaction among the people. They murmured, and threatened the Alcald, who seeing the storm ready to burst, was obliged to revoke his order; all that could be obtained was, that the culprit should restore the theft.

"I found, two leagues from Calamba, in a village of less extent, a rivulet, whose water was hot or boiling, for the thermometer of Reaumur rose to 69 degrees, though it was plunged in the water a whole league from the source. I imagined, on finding such a degree of heat, that no production of nature could exist on the banks of this rivulet, and I was extremely surpris'd to see three shrubs very vigorous, whose roots were bathed with the boiling water, and the branches surrounded with its vapour, which was so forcible, that the swallows, who ventured to cross the rivulet at the height of seven or eight feet, fell into it, insensible. One of these three shrubs was an *agnus castus*, and the two others *aspalatus*. During my stay in this village, I drank no other water but that of the rivulet, which I left to cool. The taste appeared to me earthy and ferruginous. The Spanish governor thought he perceived great qualities in this water, and has, in consequence, constructed several baths, of which the heat is in proportion to their distance from the rivulet. My surpris'e redoubled, when I, visited the first bath. Living

LUZON.

creatures, fish, swarm in this water; whose heat was so great, that I could not touch it. I did every thing in my power to procure some of these fish; but their agility, and the unskilfulness of the savages prevented me from obtaining even one to determine their species. I examined them swimming, but the vapours of the water did not permit me to assign their class. Nevertheless, I perceived they had brown scales; the length of the greatest was four inches. The reader will no doubt be astonished at this recital, which at first appears incredible; but upon reflection, will it appear more astonishing than to see a man, who in Russia experiences 20 and 25 degrees of cold, support a heat of 60 degrees under the tropics, and of 70 under the equinoctial line? Why then should not an animal, whose degree of temperature is 30, be able to enure itself to that of 50? This fact, though singular, is not extraordinary. Yet I should be embarrassed, were I to be asked, how the fish entered these baths. The Indians tired of seeing me many days in their village, fled to their woods; and, besides, as their dialect was unknown to me, it was impossible to obtain any information. The rivulet is indeed close to the Lagoon; but, if the fish had passed from the lake to the rivulet, and from thence by the conduits to the baths, why did they not return when they felt a heat to which they were unaccustomed? How have these shrubs been able to shoot up, grow, flower, and yield fruit in this burning element?

“ There are still in the interior of the country many nations among whom I have never penetrated. The Spaniards in vain have endeavoured to subdue them; they have in vain employed force, rigour, and torments, to subjugate them, and convert them to their religion; these tribes have fled to a distance, in disgust, and have carried to the residence they have chosen, the remembrance of the ills they suffered, and those with which they were threatened. In their asylum they nourish and swear an implacable hatred against the oppressors of their country; there they meditate and prepare means of vengeance. They issue from thence in mean boats; but fortified by courage, and animated by hatred, they dare to approach to the gates of the capital. Their incursions are a succession of pillages, murders, ravages and rapes. Their haughty enemies, astonished at the boldness of their enterprises, their promptness,

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and the excess of their animosity, endeavour in vain to repulse them. The Luzon. skill of the Europeans is overcome by the hatred of the savage. During our stay at Manilla, the Spaniards attempted an expedition against this nation, their most dreaded enemy. Some small vessels armed for war left this place for the port of Mirabella, situated at the entrance of the bay, which the Moors, or savages, of whom I have just spoken, had pillaged three days before. At the sight of the Spaniards, the Moors advanced to engage them, and supported by their fury, and the fire of their artillery, which they always used with advantage, they obliged them to regain the port from which they came.

"On leaving the village, which is traversed by the rivulet of hot water, of which I have spoken before, I took an easterly route. After three hours' journey, I found myself in an immense plain. A village of little extent, was the only habitation I saw. A rivulet of clear water, light, and wholesome, descended from the top of a neighbouring mountain, crossed the village, spread over the plain, and increased its fertility. Large meadows were enamelled with flowers, whose variety of colour, and perfume, delighted equally the sight and the smell. The imagination can hardly paint to itself so delicious a place; the inhabitants were friendly, and gave me a favourable reception."

Next in size is MINDANAO, a beautiful and fertile island, the chief Mindanao. Spanish settlement being at Sambuang in the S. W." This island is in general mountainous; but the vales consist of a rich black mould, watered with the purest rivulets. The beauty of the scenery is unspeakable, and some idea of it may be formed from the prints in Mr. Forrest's voyage. The Lano is a large inland lake, about 60 miles in circumference. Horses and buffaloes have here multiplied to a surprising degree. In the south there is a volcano of constant eruption, which serves as a sea mark.

According to Captain Forrest, the word *Magindano* is compounded of *Mag*, related to, or near akin; *in*, country, and *dano*, lake: so the

"Sonnerat, ii. 116. For an ample and curious account of this island the reader may consult Forrest's Voyage to New Guinea. The Haraforas, or black natives, are sold with the land.

MINDANAO. whole means, kindred settled in the country about the lake. But the common Spanish Mindanao is not only a more euphonious appellation, but has for a long time been generally received.

“ By what I could learn, the Lano is between fifteen and twenty miles across, and about sixty miles round, its length lying east and west. Towards the south west part, from Gunnapy to Sawir, it is high ground, and there the lake is said to be some hundred fathoms deep. From Sawir towards Taraka, which lies to the S. E. and E. the land being low, is often flooded: here many small rivers discharge themselves into the lake, which has soundings hereabout, ten, twenty, and thirty fathom, according to the distance from shore. On this side are most inhabitants. Moraway is situated towards the N. E. corner of the lake: near it the ground is very high, and extends westward. The only river that runs from the lake to the sea, issues from the foot of the heights of Moraway. This river, after a winding course, and one or more falls, discharges itself into the sea at Eligan, where is said to be a garrison of twenty American Spaniards, beside Bifayans. From Moraway to Madullum, which lies on the N. W. part of the lake, the country is hilly. Near Moraway is Watou, where a mosque of stone, situated on a height, is remarkable in fine weather from Byang, which is on the opposite side of the lake. From Madullum to Gunnapy, may be called the west side of the lake; between them lies Madumba. From Madumba, inland, W. by N. to the high hill of Inayawan, may be about half a day's journey. From Inayawan flows, in a N. W. course, a river, which pours itself into the sea, in the bottom of the bay of Siddum. From Gunnapy, west about six hours, is a small lake called Dapow, whence a small river leads to another lake, named Nunsinghan. Along the east side of the lake, from Taraka to Watou, during the N. E. monsoon, in the morning are fresh winds from the northward; about ten A. M. they die away, and an opposite wind arises. Along the north side of the lake, from Watou to Madullum, in the N. E. monsoon, blows a fresh wind from the hills in the night. From Gunnapy to Sawir, in the N. E. monsoon, all day the wind blows fresh at W. and W. S. W. On the lake are four little islands, Balak, Apou, Nufa, and Solangan. Many fishes are caught around them.”

• Forrell's Voyage, p. 273.

Our author then mentions a phenomenon on the southern coast.

"About ten years ago, one of the mountains, six or seven miles inland from this part of the coast, broke out into fire and smoke, with all the fury of a volcano. It ejected such a quantity of stones, and black sand, as covered great part of the circumjacent country, for several feet perpendicular. Large stones loaded many places, even at the sea side, and at Tubug, near Pulo Ebus, I have seen fresh springs burst out, (at low water) from amongst black stones, of many tons weight, in various parts of that dry harbour. I was told that a river was formerly there, where is not the least appearance of one now.

"At present there seems to be a good deal of mold intermixed with the black sand, which is favourable to vegetation; and the country hereabouts is now covered with long grass, called Calang. In some places are reeds eighteen feet high, in others low trees and bushes. This varied landscape has an aspect the more peculiarly pleasing from the sea, that Malay countries in general, from Atcheen-head, to New Guinea, are burdened with unintermitted woods. Here, in time, a wood may reappear: for, in any warm country, alternate rain and sunshine, with few long dry intervals, must greatly promote vegetation.

"During the eruption of the volcano, the black sand was driven to Mindanao, the ashes as far as Sooloo, which is about forty leagues distant; and the Illanon districts suffered so much, that many colonies went to Sooloo, even to Tampalook, and Tawarran, on the west coast of Borneo, in search of a better country, where many of them live at this day."*

An idea of the manners may be derived from his account of a marriage in Mindanao.

"Next evening, being the 30th, came on the solemnity. A great company being assembled at the Sultan's, Rajah Mudo put the question to the company, if it should be a marriage. All answered, with a loud voice, in the affirmative. A priest then walked into the middle of the floor, to whom Datoo Utu got up, and advanced. The priest, whom they called Serif, took him by the thumb of the right hand, and said to

* Forrell's Voyage, p. 192.

MINDANAO. him certain words, which being explained to me, were to this purpose. The priest asked the bridegroom if he consented to take such a person as his wife, and to live with her according to the law of Mahomet. The bridegroom returned an affirmative. The company then gave a loud shout, and immediately I heard guns go off at Chartow's castle, where I was told himself kept watch. The lady did not appear, and so had no questions to answer. In this they resemble the Chinese.

"Neither Fakymolano, Topang, nor Uku, were present. Topang, no doubt, considered this as a mortal blow to all his hopes; and Fakymolano could not be supposed glad at an event, which to his widow daughter, and grand-child Fatima, must have been an addition to their late loss of Watamama. I had indeed observed, that, since the match was upon the carpet, Fakymolano did not visit at his son Rajah Moodo's so much as formerly.

"About a week before this, having passed by Datoos Uta's apartments, which were in the fort, and in the same tenement where his father dwelt, I remarked, that the large bed, china jar, chest, and so forth, were taken away. Fatima, as her portion, had sent all to her grandfather Fakymolano.

"I failed before the 10th day after marriage, and so did not see the conclusion of it according to their custom. But some time before this, I had been present at the marriage of one of Rajah Moodo's daughters, to the son of an Illano prince.

"A great company was convened at Rajah Moodo's, amongst which were the bride and bridegroom. The priest took the man by the right thumb, and, after putting to him the important question, the latter signified his assent by a small inclination of the head. The bridegroom then went and sat down by the young lady, who was seated towards the farther end of the hall, some young ladies, her companions, rising at his approach, to make room for him. The bride appeared discontented, and turned from him, while he kept turning towards her; both seated on cushions laid on mats on the floor.

"The company smiling at this, I thought it a good opportunity to fix my German flute, and play a tune, having asked Rajah Moodo's permission. The company expressed satisfaction; but the bride still
looked

looked averse to her lover, who was a handsome young man; and she continued so the whole evening. She looked indeed, as I think a woman ought, whose consent is not asked in an affair of such moment. Next evening I found them drinking chocolate together: her look seemed mending; but she did not smile.

"On the tenth night, she was, with apparent reluctance, conducted before all the company, by two women, from where she sat, towards a large bed in the same hall with the company, and was put within a triple row of curtains, other two women holding them up until she passed. The bridegroom following, passed also within the curtains. The curtain being dropt, the company set up a shouting and hollowing, and in about a quarter of an hour dispersed.

"At the Moluccas, the marriage ceremony is thus: the woman, attended by some of her own sex, comes into the mosque, and sits down; then the Imum, or, if the parties are persons of rank, the Calipha, holding the man's right thumb, asks him if he will marry that woman, and live with her according to Mahomet's law. To this he answers "I WILL." Then the priest asks the woman, still sitting, beside the like respective question, if she will obey. Three times must she answer, "I WILL."

"The woman rising, the man and she pay their respects to the company present: the woman is then conducted home. But before she goes out of the mosque, the priest gives the husband the following admonition:—"You must not touch your wife with lance or knife; but if she do not obey you, take her into a chamber, and chastise her gently with a handkerchief." This I have from Tuan Hadjee**

The other chief Philippines are PALAWAN, MINDORO, PANI, BUGLAS, or isle of Negroes, ZEBU, LEYT, or Leiva, and SAMAR, or Samal. On the E. of Zebu is the small isle of MACTAN, where the celebrated navigator Magalhaens was slain. The other little islands might be counted by hundreds. In general this grand and extensive group presents many volcanic appearances; and most of the isles abound with lava, and volcanic glass, sulphur, and hot springs. Such at least are

* Forell's Voyage, p. 285.

MINDANAO. the representations of the French writers, who seem fond of volcanoes, natural and moral. These isles present wild boars, deer, and useful animals of various kinds; and among vegetables the bread fruit must not be forgotten, which first appears on the eastern coasts of Sumatra, and thence extends its benefits through innumerable islands in the Indian and Pacific oceans.

IV. THE CELEBEZIAN ISLES.

THESE islands are by D'Anville classed with the great Moluccas; but an inspection of his map, or of Arrowsmith's chart of the Pacific, will satisfy the reader that this is a violent arrangement, as not only a wide expanse of sea intervenes between Celebez and the Moluccas, but an extreme island, of vast extent, is thus attached to a comparatively small and distant group. If Celebez must be classed with any other island, it ought to be with Borneo, from which it is only separated by the strait of Macassar, being as it were the Ireland of the Bornean Britain. But as these two islands have never been subject, like those of Japan, to one government, there is no common appellation extended to both. It seems therefore preferable to consider Celebez, and the small adjacent isles, as a distinct portion of this vast archipelago.

Celebez.

CELEBEZ is an island of great and irregular length, more than 600 B. miles, but divided into various portions by immense bays, so that the breadth is commonly not above 60 B. miles; but if taken at the centre, where the various limbs unite, may be 140 B. miles to Tolo bay in the east. This island is lofty and mountainous, especially towards the centre, and there are several active volcanoes. Though the Asiatic isles abound in sublime and beautiful scenery, this is depicted as exceeding them all.¹¹ Rivers abound, rising in the high mountains, and precipitating down vast rocks, amidst a sylvan scene of lofty and singular trees. Though this isle seem to have been known to Magalhaens and Pigafetta, under the name of *Celebi*, as Borneo was under that of *Burni*, yet it is said to have been first explored in 1525, not as belonging to the Mo-

¹¹ Pennant, iv. 86.

Luccas, as Mr. Pennant conceives, for Pigafetta restricts this name to CELEBEZ. the five small isles on the W. of Gilolo. The Portuguese obtained a settlement near Macassar in the S. W., being favoured by the king of that region; but were expelled by the Dutch in 1660, who continue to controul the island, the Chinese alone being permitted to trade. The natives, commonly called Macassars,* often degrade their courage in the quality of free-booters, attacking vessels with surprizing desperation, and often with lances, or arrows poisoned with the juice of the notorious tree, or shrub called Upas. Their houses are raised on pillars, as usual, on account of the rainy season, or W. monsoon, from November till March. † They were formerly regarded as cannibals; and the kings of the Moluccas were accustomed to send criminals to Celebez to be devoured. In 1768 the Dutch of the city of Macassar refused to admit Captain Carteret; though employed on a voyage of discovery, and his ship and crew were in the utmost distress. ‡ The Celebezan group might aptly be termed the Isles of Poison, being full of poisonous trees and plants; though the noted Upas be exaggerated and ascribed to Java, where it seems less known. † Nature has thus contrasted the salutary productions of the Spice Islands, with the most pernicious proofs of her power. This large island having been, like Borneo little explored, there is a great deficiency in its natural history. The inhabitants are said to cultivate great quantities of rice.

Some details concerning the island of Celebez are given by Valentyn, from whose work they are extracted in the Dutch edition of the General History of Voyages. ‡ The kingdom of Macassar, on the western side of the island, was conquered by the Dutch in 1669; and the king of Boni became in consequence the most powerful prince in the island, but there are about a dozen other kingdoms. The want of exact maps led

* The most powerful people are the *Bonians*, on the bay of Boni, called *Baggasse* by English seamen, and by other nations *Beugimé*. Stavorus, ii. 68.

† Mandello, l. 493.

‡ See his own account in Hawkesworth's Voyages.

§ The fabulous Feersch plant his enormous Upas twenty-seven leagues from Soura Sharta P'Acule does not indicate this Soura in his map of Java. His account is censured in the *Chitô Embassy*, vol. i. p. 309. The real Upas is the climate of Batavia.

¶ Tom. xv. p. 129. 3c.

CELEBEZ. the Dutch into many mistakes concerning the position and power of these petty sovereigns, which greatly embarrassed their affairs.

The principal articles of trade were rice in great quantities, and the best in India, of which the Dutch loaded large cargoes for the Moluccas and other settlements; gold but of base alloy, sapon and sandal woods, cotton, camphor, some kinds of hardware, arms for the Indians, ginger, long pepper and pearls. The chief imports were scarlet cloths, cloths of gold and silver, cotton from Cambay, tin, copper, and iron with soap and asafetida.*

This island abounds in precious woods, and delicious landscapes of infinite variety: hills and vales covered with evergreens, fruits and flowers in all seasons, and birds of perpetual song, render this island an enchanting residence. † Among the native luxuriant jasmins, roses, tuberoses, lilies, and other flowers, a superior rank is assigned to that which is called *Bougna-Gené-Maura*. This celebrated flower somewhat resembles the lily, but the scent, though more mild, is perceived at a greater distance, and the natives derive from it an essence with which they perfume themselves during life, and which serves to embalm them after death. The stalk, which is about two feet in height, does not rise from a bulbous root like the lily, but from a large and bitter root, which is employed in curing several maladies, above all the purple and pestilential fevers. The most common trees in these delicious plains are the lemon and the orange. Among the birds, of which the number is so great that the air is sometimes darkened with their flight, whether they be native, or that the beauty of the country attract them from the neighbouring islands, that of the most vaunted beauty is about the size of a lark. The beak is red, the plumage of the head and of the back of an emerald green, while that of the belly inclines to yellow, and the tail is of a sapphire blue. This bird lives on a little fish which he chases on the river, guided by instinct to the spots where it is found. He there flutters on the water till the fish leaps at him as a certain prey, but the bird has always the address to prevent him. The fish is seized

* Hist. Gen. des Voy. Tom. xv. p. 135.

† Ib. p. 89.

and carried to his nest serving as food for a day or two, during which the whole occupation of the bird is to sing, till instigated by hunger he return to the chace. This singular bird is called *Ten-rou-joulon*. The lories are also of great beauty. The variety of fruits is prodigious and the palm supplies an excellent wine.

The beeves of Celebez are equal in size to the European, and the cows yield excellent milk. There are also horses and buffaloes; and in the forest deer and wild boars. There are neither tigers nor lions, and the elephant and rhinoceros are unknown; but the apes and monkeys may be said to possess the sovereignty of the island, being distinguished, as with us, into those who wear tails and those who do not. The common people of this singular empire walk on four legs, while the noble apes are distinguished by walking on two; and the white are more dangerous than the black or the brown. This mighty aristocracy has declared war against women. The first who perceives a human creature of that sex, assembles his companions with loud cries, and after having seized and abused their unhappy prey, they strangle her and tear her to pieces. The Eves of Celebez are chiefly protected by the serpents, who pursue the apes as their favourite prey. But the natives are obliged to be constantly on their guard in order to defend their women and their fields from animals equally lascivious and voracious.

Some of the royal palaces and some mosques were of stone; while the other houses were of wood, but sometimes of ebony wrought with great care, and polished to extreme splendour. The markets are not frequented by the men, who are supposed to have more serious occupations, but are crowded with young girls who bring, fish, fruit, and other articles from the neighbouring country.

The following observations are derived from a modern voyager.

"This island, called by the natives and Malays, Neegree Oran Buggefs (Buggefs Mans country), sometimes, Janna Macassar, is situated between the great island Bornco, on the west, and the islands Gilolo, or Halamahera, Ooby, Ceram, and Amboyna on the east; to the south there lies Salayer, divided from it by the strait called the Bugeeroons by the Dutch; further south lie Mungery, Timor, Sambowa; the former, Mungery,

CELEBEZ. Mungery, called in our old maps Land Van Floris; to the north there is a pretty broad sea, where are many islands, Sangir, rather to the N. E. and the Sooloo Archipelago to the N. W. Celebez extends from the latitude of $6^{\circ} 10'$ S. to 2° N., and from the longitude of $116^{\circ} 40'$, to $121^{\circ} 40'$; it is very irregularly shaped, and may be nearly as large as Great Britain. A map of Celebez is published in Postlethwait's dictionary from D'Anville; another was published in 1791, by Mr. Robertson; in neither do they put down any river; they differ also in their latitudes and longitudes.

"The following account I had chiefly from Noquedah Inanke. at Queda, in 1782: he was a Buggefs, a native of Samowa, (a Buggefs colony on the island of that name), a very sensible man, and had then his prow (paduakan), about 40 tons burden, repairing in the river. His account agrees with what I have learnt from other Buggefs I have conversed with in my many eastern voyages.

"There is a deep gulph that runs far into the island from the southward; this deep gulph is called Sewa by the natives, but by the English Buggefs Bay. There is also a deep gulph runs into the N. E. part of the island: its proper name is, I believe, Jominee Bay; but by some it is called Gorantellu, or Gunong-tellu (Hill-harbour). It reaches so deep from the N. E. into the island, that the isthmus Pulos, that divides the bottom of it from the west sea, is very narrow, forming a peninsula. On the W. coast of this peninsula is Manado and Fort Amsterdam, a Dutch settlement, whence they get much gold, in exchange for opium and Indostan piece goods, chiefly blue cloth, fine Bengal collars and hummums, iron and steel. There is also a gulph, not very deep, that runs into the S. E. quarter of the island, called Tolo-Bay. Gilolo has three bays similar to Celebez.

"In the strait that divides this island from Borneo, there is a cluster of thirteen small flat islands, called by Europeans the little Pater-nosters, but by Malays, Pulo Balabatakan (islands behind): they lie nearer Borneo than Celebez, are covered with trees, and have navigable channels between them, but uneven anchorage. I have been on one of them called Pulo Ayr, (Water Island); and here the Boadjoos, called often Oranlout (Men of the Sea), gather much *swallow*, in eight or ten fathoms

fathoms water. The S. E. monsoon blowing through this strait, vessels cannot well work up against it on the Bornean shore, which being low, gives little or no land wind in this season; whereas, on the opposite shore of Celebez, the land being high, there is always a fresh land-wind at night, and a sea-wind in the day, by means of which a vessel can work up to the southward, get round Pulo-lout, and so proceed to Batavia or Europe. The climate of Celebez is very temperate; no violent heats, owing to the country being diversified with mountains, hills, and vallies; well ventilated, and much covered with wood: the three bays already mentioned, going far into the island, make water communication easy, and cause a circulation of cool wind over the whole island, so as never to be so hot as might be imagined from its low latitude. Its population is much the same as the island Java, where the Dutch have numerous possessions, and may be reckoned about 2 or 3 millions. Celebez has three rivers; Chiurana, the most considerable, takes its rise in the country of Warjoo, runs through Bony, and discharges itself by several mouths into the Sewa on its west coast. European ships can get into it, and sail a great way up over a muddy bottom. The second is the river Bole, with three fathoms water on its bar; it discharges itself, after a rapid-winding course, at Bole, on the N. coast of the island; but being confined to the peninsula of Palos, it cannot be very large, and has many shallows in it. The third discharges itself on the west coast of the island, a good way south of Macassar, where there is, within the mouth of the river, an island called Sampang Java, which often gives name to the river; it goes up into the country of Goa. The proper name of the river is Jan-pandan.

"Celebez consists of six divisions, most of which have a particular form of government, &c. with a great mixture of the feudal system in every one of them.

"The first I shall mention is Goa; this is the most ancient, and lies on the W. and S. W. coast of the island, where Macassar is, the seat of the Dutch government. Here is a pretty strong brick fort called Rotterdam, with a garrison of about 300 men.

"In 1763, being in the road on board of a Dutch ship after having lost the vessel I had commanded, the Bonnetta ketch, on some rocks near

to

CELEBEZ.

CELEBEZ. to and in sight of the island Salayer,) though not permitted to go on shore at Macassar, I could perceive many guns mounted on the walls of the fort, from the road. The fort was said to be a square of about 400 feet, with 4 bastions: the road is well sheltered from any swell, by small islands and shoals that lie off it. One island particularly, lies off the S. W. part of Celebez, called Pulo Kaka, about fifteen miles long, with three small islands to seaward of it. There is a jetty like the pier at North Yarmouth, built out from the town, to facilitate the landing of goods. The Dutch captain and officers were very shy of giving me any information. In the road lay a Chinese junk of about 600 tons. Here they catch immense quantities of fish of various kinds.

“ In this division of Goa, which extends a good way along the W. S. W. and S. coast of the island, the Dutch have on the S. coast two wooden forts, where I have been in 1763, called Bulo Combo, and Bontyn with a garrison of 50 men in each. But, notwithstanding repeated attempts from Macassar, with many European and country troops, I have heard from several, that the Dutch have never been able to get possession of the island Sampang Java, lying at the mouth of the river Jan-pandan, south of Macassar; so that Goa is almost independent of the Dutch. The king of Goa was formerly of most consideration on Celebez; and though greatly fallen from his former consequence, he is still the most powerful prince in the island, and the Dutch command but little beyond the fort of Macassar (except Bulo Combo and Bontyn) in the Goa district.

“ The government of Goa is monarchical; the king is called Karwang, sometimes Rajah Goa. Navarette calls him Sambanco; and his empire formerly extended, not only over the whole island Celebez, but also over several adjacent islands, before the Portuguese doubled the Cape of Good Hope.

“ The next district is Bony, or Pony, lying east of Coa, and on the west coast of the great gulph or Sewa, entirely under the influence of the Dutch, who endeavour, but in vain, to make it superior to Goa. Through Bony runs Chiurana river, after coming from the Warjoo country.

†

“ Bony,

" Bony, by the command of the river Chiurana, locks up as it were CELEBEZ. all access to Warjoo by water: but certain agreements exist between the two states, convenient to each, in spite of the Dutch.

" Bony is governed by a prince called Pajong. He is elected for life by seven Orancayos, a fixed number, which may be kept up by the Pajong (but not increased) from the Dyons (certain freeholders); and when an elector dies, a new elector is appointed by the Pajong, his heir not succeeding.

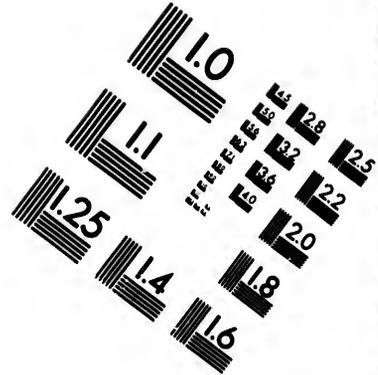
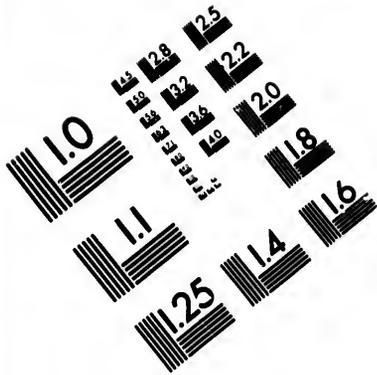
" The Dutch always support Bony against Warjoo, and have made the Pajong almost independent; yet the Pajong is often restrained by a sort of parliament, elected by the freeholders: it consists of 400 members, 200 of which are called Matua, 100 are called Pabicharro, and 100 are called Galarang. But of this I never learnt a distinct account; and I mention it only as a hint for future travellers. And if such a mixed government does exist, it is natural to think the Dutch would endeavour to depress such liberal notions, which, in the end, would so strongly affect their own power and influence.

" The third division of Celebez is Wajoo, Warjoo, or Tuadoo; it is governed also by an elective prince, called Aramatooa. He is elected for life by the four nobles of the highest rank, called Oran cayo Batta bazar (nobles of the great flag), from the body of an inferior nobility, called Oran cayo Batta ampat Pulo, (nobles of forty flags), there being forty in number; and when elected, if he should say, "I am poor," which may be the case, the reply made to him (by the nobleman who presides at the election) is, Warjoo berennee, Warjoo caio, Warjoo quasso; which signifies, Warjoo is brave, rich, and powerful: intimating, no doubt, he shall want for nothing. He then accepts of the government. Besides the four high and the forty inferior nobles, there is still a kind of freeholders called Dyons, as in Bony. The Aramatooa can only keep up the number of the four high, and forty inferior nobility, when they are, by want of heirs, extinct; but he cannot increase the number. In Warjoo only the nobility is hereditary.

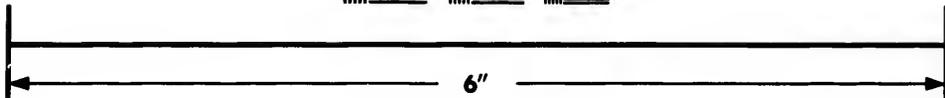
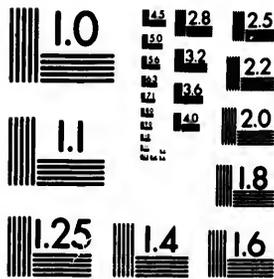
" The fourth division of Celebez is Sopin, where there are very high mountains, near the middle of the island. The fifth is Selindrin, N. W. of Sopin. The sixth is Mandar, on the N. and N. W. coast of the island,

" Bony,





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CELEBEZ.

island, under a kind of republican government : here they manufacture much cloth (cambays). The Dutch are settled in several parts of the Mandar dominions, and get from thence much gold ; yet they, and the people of Warjoo in general, have not only preserved their freedom against the Dutch, but have (the Warjoos especially) emigrated from their own country, and made settlements at Rhio, situated near the east entrance of the strait of Malacca, at Sambowa, an island east of Java, and at Passir, on the east coast of the great island Borneo. They always consider their colonies as emancipated from the mother country, as soon as they are able to defend themselves. Of a revolution that happened at Passir, on Borneo, in 1772, by a Buggefs colony deposing the native Malay king, with great civility and good manners, more will be said ; and I never heard that Warjoo (from whence the colony was settled) in the least interfered. So, history tells us, the Greeks interfered but little with their colonies in the island of Sicily, and elsewhere.

“ Of these six divisions of the island Celebez, Sopin and Selindrim, being inland, are of small consideration, compared with the other four ; yet Sopin, it is said, can muster many fighting men. Goa, Bony, Warjoo, and Mandar are much spoken of in history. They had many bloody wars with the Dutch, not only in former days, but as late as the year 1780, as I learnt from Captain James Scott, of Queda. The Buggefs of Goa, on some misunderstanding, attacked the Dutch fort Rotterdam, at Macassar, but were beat off with great loss of men : they asked leave to bury the dead, which was refused. This caused much sickness among the Dutch of Macassar at the time.

“ The Buggefs in general are a high-spirited people ; they will not bear ill usage. They are also great merchants : their prows called paduakan, go as far west as Atcheen, Salengore and Queda, being very numerous, where in 1763 they took many Chulia ships. I never learnt truly how the affair was, but the gentle Indostaner of Porto Novo, where the Chulias of Queda generally fit out, resisted but faintly the bold Buggefs. They deserve the character given of Malays in general by Monsieur Poivre, in his Travels of a Philosopher, “fond of adventures, emigration, and capable of undertaking the most dangerous enterprises.”

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prifes. The word Buggefs has become among Europeans confont to
 folder, in the east of India, as fevoy is in the west."* OTHER
ISLES.

Around Celebez are many small ifles, as SANGUY in the N. the
 SHULLAS, and PELING in the E., with BOUTAN and SALA in the S.,
 and fome of fmaller note in the W. Even the fmalleft ifles are moftly
 inhabited and governed by chiefs. In Sanguy, and fome others there
 are fmall Dutch garrifons, as advanced guards to protect the Spice
 Iflands. Boutan is probably ftill ruled by a Mahometan Sultan.

V. THE SPICE ISLANDS, INCLUDING THE MOLUCCAS.

The Moluccas, originally and ftictly fo termed, are only five fmall
 iflands on the W. of Gilolo, namely TERNAT, TIDORE, MOTIR,
 MAKIAN, and BAKIAN, or BATCHIAN :⁶ but as the kings of the Mo-
 luccas have poffeffed territory in Gilolo, and other adjacent ifles, and as the
 term *Moluccas* is confidered as fynonymous with that of *Spice Iflands*, the
 appellation has been extended. The French geographers diftinguifh
 them into *Grandes et Petites Moluques*; and the Moluccas of D'Anville,
 as tinged in his map of Afta, include all the iflands in the oriental
 archipelago, except thofe of Sunda, and the Philippines; but this ex-
 tenfion is objectionable, as leading to vague ideas and confufed de-
 fcription, and it feems preferable, as above-mentioned, to include under
 the name of Spice iflands, thofe from Mortay in the N. to Banda in
 the S., and from Myfol in the E. to Bouro and Oubi in the W. Thus
 the chief Spice Iflands will be GILOLO, CERAM, and BOURO, with
 MORTAY, OUBI, MYSOL, BOURO, † that of AMBOYNA, and the
 group of BANDA, with fuch fmall ifles as approximate nearer to thefe,
 than to the Celebezian group, or Sumatran chain. In this defcription
 are fpecially included the five celebrated ifles, originally and peculiarly
 termed the Moluccas.

GILOLO is of confiderable extent; but in the irregularity of form Gilelo.
 fimilar to Celebez. The length is about 230 B. miles; the breadth of
 each limb feldom above 40. The fhores are low: the interior rife to

* Forrest's Voyage to Calcutta, p. 70.

⁶ Pigafetta, 167.

† In the interior forefts of all thefe iflands the fice trees abound. See Stavorinus, ii. 411.

GILOLO.

high peaks, perhaps of granite, and it seems doubtful whether banks of coral can, as conceived, ever constitute a lasting isle, though they may form low and perishable ones, or enlarge those already fixed on the usual basis. Gilolo is said to have been once governed by one sovereign, a sheref from Mecca; but the Sultans of Ternat and Tidore seem now to share this large isle betwixt them, the former possessing the northern part with Mortay, Bakian, Motir, and some Celebeesian isles, and part of Papua; while the Sultan of Tidore holds the southern part, with Mysol, and some other isles.⁷ This circumstance adds to the propriety of including Gilolo in the same description with the Moluccas. One of the chief towns is Tatanay, situated on a point or small promontory of the eastern limb, faced with precipices, so as to be only accessible by ladders. This isle abounds with oxen, buffaloes, goats, deer, and wild hogs; but the sheep are few. The bread fruit is frequent in Gilolo, with the sago tree; and there are probably cloves and nutmegs, in spite of the Dutch eradication, which is defeated by the very birds of the air, while nature loudly exclaims against the infamous attempts of avarice to restrict her bounties.⁸ The natives are industrious particularly in weaving, but their exertions are suppressed by Batavian jealousy.

Ceram.

CERAM is another island of considerable size, being about 190 B. miles in length, by 40 in breadth; low towards the shore, but with inland mountains. Mr. Forrest specially mentions that Ceram produces clove trees; and there are large forests of the sago tree, which forms a considerable article of export: yet this large island has been little explored, and is almost unknown.

Bouro.

As in geographical description the size of an island is a leading feature, the next mentioned must be BOURO, about 90 miles in length, by 50 in breadth. This isle was nominally subject to the king of Ternat; but in 1660 the Dutch built a fort, and, though they burned the exterior woods, seem to have improved the industry of the inhabitants.⁹ The civet weasel is found here, and the curious hog called babiroussa.

⁷ Pennant, iv. 193.

⁸ Mandelstø, i. 404, classes cloves among the products of Gilolo.

⁹ Pennant, iv. 174.

The isle of Bouro rises suddenly from a deep sea, being encompassed as BOURO. with a wall. The interior mountains are so lofty that they may sometimes be descried at the distance of twenty-eight leagues. A green ebony, and a kind of iron wood, are mentioned among the trees; and it is probable that the clove, and perhaps the nutmeg, defy in the mountain recesses, the wild avarice of man.

Of the other large islands Bakian, or Batchian, will be described with the Moluccas strictly so called. Of MORTAY, MYSOL, (Mixoal, or Michoal,) and OUBI little is known. Mortay is a beautiful isle but thinly inhabited, though full of sago trees, which are cut by the people of Gilolo; and is subject to the king of Ternat; it being a singularity in the oriental archipelago that small isles have been sometimes selected for the seats of monarchy, being generally more civilized by the concentration of society, than the large, over which rude tribes are thinly dispersed. MYSOL, the most eastern of this group, is of a triangular shape, with a bold shore. The villages are built in the water upon posts; and there are picturesque forest visited by the birds of paradise, which seem to migrate from Papua, and are caught in considerable numbers. These romantic and beautiful birds strictly belong to Papua, or New Guinea, but their flight extends over most of the Spice Islands, where they always descend as from heaven, and, as the natives believe, float in aromatic air. OUBI abounds in cloves, and the Dutch have a small fort on the west side; but the inhabitants are chiefly fugitive slaves from Ternat.

But the most celebrated and important islands of this group still remain to be described. The MOLUCCAS, strictly so called, in the western extremity; and AMBOYNA and BANDA in the south. The little, or proper Moluccas, as already mentioned, are TERNAT, TIDORE, MORTIR, MAKIAN, and BATCHIAN. It would appear from Pigafetta's account of the expedition of Magalhaens, that the Mahometan settlements in these islands only took place about half a century before his time. In 1510 they were visited by Portuguese navigators from the west: and the fame of the discovery was one of the chief inducements to the first circumnavigation of the Spaniards, conducted by Magalhaens a Portuguese commodore. These two great maritime nations

Moluccas
Proper.

MOLUCCAS
PROPER.

afterwards contested this precious property: but the Moluccas were finally resigned to the Portuguese, who were supplanted by the Dutch about the year 1607. The English also claiming this opulent commerce a treaty was signed in 1619, declaring the Moluccas, Amboyna, and Banda common to both; the English to have one third of the produce, and the Dutch two; each contributing a similar proportion to defend the islands from invaders.²⁰ But in the short course of three years "the Dutch, actuated by their insatiable avarice, determined, by the most diabolical means, to free themselves from all competitors. They forged a plot of the English against their lives and liberties; but such a plot that none but idiots could have been supposed to have projected. The charge was, that ten factors, and eleven foreign soldiers were to seize on the castle garrisoned by two hundred men. A foolish question asked by an Indian soldier, as to the strength of the place, was the foundation of the tragedy. He was seized and put to the most exquisite tortures that hell itself could invent; and in his agonies answered the artful interrogatories in the manner the Fiscal could wish. Our countrymen and the eleven foreign soldiers underwent the same horrid torments, which were continued at intervals during eight days. The means are too dreadful for the humane pen to recite, or the humane ear to bear. The constancy of the poor sufferers was often overcome; they made such answers as they thought would soonest free them from the rack, and which they recanted as soon as the torture ceased. They were then recalled to their torments. At length the record of examination was read, and the greater part were relieved by a speedy execution: those who were reprieved could drag but a miserable life with mangled bodies or dislocated limbs. The sufferers, before death, were confronted with each other, English with Indians: both bewailed their infirmity for accusing the other under the pressure of torture, and mutually exchanged forgiveness. A full account is given of this horrid transaction by the ingenious Campbel, in his collection of travels: we could well excuse his speaking to our eyes by a most horrible print. The foreign soldiers, from good authority, he supposes to have been Koreans, an adventurous naval people even in that early time."²¹

²⁰ Rymcr's *Foedera*, xvii. 170.

²¹ Pennant's *Outlines*, iv. 168.

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The clove is said to have abounded particularly in Makian, but the growth was afterwards confined by the Dutch to Amboyna. The nutmeg specially flourished in the group of Banda: and the Romans appear to have known the clove, but not the nutmeg, which seems to have been brought to Europe by the Mahometans. The largest of the little Moluccas is BATCHIAN, called by D'Anville Bailian, being governed by a Sultan, who is likewise sovereign of Oubi and Ceram, with Goram, a little isle S. E. of Ceram, reputed the most eastern boundary of the Mahometan faith.* This monarch has a pension from the Dutch, either for the destruction or supply of nutmegs, but is otherwise little subservient. Batchian rises into woody hills; and on the shores, as in most isles of this archipelago, there are prodigious rocks of coral, of infinite variety and beauty. MAKIAN is a small isle at a greater interval, to the N. of Batchian, than appears between the other Moluccas, and rises like a high conic mountain from the sea. This was regarded as the chief Dutch settlement before Amboyna became the metropolis of the Moluccas.† Next is MOTIR, formerly, as an old English writer says, the seat of Venus and voluptuousness. The most distinguished of the proper Moluccas are TIDORE and TERNAT. While Portugal was united to Spain the Dutch were defeated near Tidore in 1610, by the Spanish Admiral Sylva; but by the assistance of the king of Ternat the Batavians seized the fort. In Tidore there are twenty-five mosks; and the Sultan, as already mentioned, possesses also the south of Gilolo, and claims tribute from Mysol.

TERNAT is the most northern and most important of the Moluccas, though it scarcely exceed twenty-four miles in circumference. The Sultan controuls Makian, and Motir, with the north of Gilolo, Mortay, and even some Celebebian isles, and part of Papua, whence he received a tribute of gold, amber, and birds of Paradise. Mr. Forrest has published a list of the militia, furnished by the respective territories of the Sultan of Ternat, amounting to ninety thousand seven hundred; nor was the naval force inconsiderable, and the Ternatians and Tidoreans have not shunned maritime conflicts even with Europeans. In 1638

* The little isle of Goram has thirteen mosks. For. 38.

† See in Mandello a View of Amboyna, in which it is called *Capitale des Isles Moluques*.

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TERNAT.

the Batavians formed an alliance with the king of Ternat, and the lesser princes, which has been repeatedly renewed; but garrisons are established to enforce the observance, and the sultans of Ternat and Tidore are watched with great attention. The largest of the *proas*, or small ships, may be about the burden of ten tons: on each side are singular frames, like wings, on which the rowers are placed, yet these vessels move with great swiftness through a smooth sea. Ternat consists chiefly of high land, abounding with streams, which burst from the cloudy peaks; and there is a volcano which displayed great force in 1693. The chief quadrupeds are goats, deer, and hogs, and the birds are of distinguished beauty, particularly the king-fisher, clothed in scarlet and mazareen blue, called by the natives the Goddes. In Ternat the Boa-serpent is sometimes found, of the length of thirty feet; and by its power of suction and constriction is reported sometimes to swallow even small deer.

Amboyna.

Equally distinguished are the most southern Spice Islands of AMBOYNA, and BANDA, cloves being now restricted, so far as Dutch avarice could effect, to Amboyna, and nutmegs to Banda. The Governor of Amboyna makes an annual progress throughout the Spice Islands, to see that treaties are observed, and suppress any new object of jealousy. Amboyna was discovered by the Portuguese about 1515, but was not seized till 1564; and was conquered by the Dutch about 1607. This celebrated isle is about 60 B. miles in length, N. to S., and on the west side there is a large bay, which divides it into two limbs, or peninsulas. On the eastern side is another bay, with a bad harbour, where the Portuguese erected their chief fortress Victoria. The town of Amboyna, the capital of the isle, stands near the S. W. extremity, and is neatly built; the houses, on account of the frequent earthquakes, seldom exceed one floor; but the State House is an edifice of two stories. The face of this island is beautiful, woody mountains, and verdant vales, being interspersed with hamlets, and enriched by cultivation.²¹ The clove tree grows to the height of about forty or fifty feet, with

²¹ An account of the Spice Islands, since they have been in the possession of Great Britain. *Asiatic Register*, 1800. p. 200. There was a most violent earthquake in 1755.

spreading

spreading branches and long pointed leaves. In deep sheltered vales AMBOYNA. some trees will produce thirty pounds weight annually, the chief crop being from November to February. The soil is mostly a reddish clay, but in the vales blackish and sandy. When Amboyna was recently seized by the English,* it was found, with its dependencies, to contain 45,252 souls, of which 17,813 were Protestants, the rest Mahometans, except a few Chinese and savages. The Dutch are tolerably polished, this being the next settlement to Batavia in wealth and consequence. The natives cannot be praised, but differ little from other Malays; and when intoxicated with opium will commit any crime. The dress is a loose shirt, or frock, of cotton cloth; and the chiefs are called Rajas. Cattle, grain, &c. are imported from Java. The Dutch discouraged the growth of indigo, lest the natives should become rich and rebellious; but the sugar and coffee are excellent, and among many delicious fruits is the mangusteen of Hindostan. About eleven years ago nutmegs were permitted to be cultivated in Amboyna, Banda not furnishing a sufficient supply.† The chief animals are deer and wild hogs, and among the birds is the cassowary. The most curious woods are brought from Ceram. The abominable despotism of the Dutch government and laws is exposed in the above account, as only tending to impoverish and emascuate the country. An ample description of the plants of Amboyna has been published by the industrious Rumphius.

BANDA is the chief isle of a group which comprises six or seven Banda. others, *Rossigen*, *Nera*, *Gonong* or *Ganapex*, (in which there is a remarkable volcano,) *Way*, and *Robn*. Banda, or Lantor, does not exceed eight B. miles in length, W. to E., and the greatest breadth at its eastern extremity may be five. The nutmeg tree is chiefly cultivated in *Nera*, *Gonong*, *Ay*, or *Way*, and *Lantor*, or *Lontor*, which last is a particular name for the largest isle, as all the others are indifferently styled *Bandas*; and flourishes, not only in the rich black mould, but

* The islands of Amboyna and Banda were taken without resistance in February and March, 1796, by the English Admiral Rainier.

† The oblong nutmeg is not esteemed, being of a less spicy nature than those cultivated at Banda. *Stavorinus*, i. 342. Cloves have been introduced in the West Indies, and in 1798 about 3000lb. were exported.

† See the above account, where the author has confounded the clove with the nutmeg.

even

BANDA.

even amidst the lavas of Gonong, which is the highest isle, the summit being 1940 feet above the sea. When the English seized these isles in 1796, the annual produce was about 163,000 pounds of nutmegs and 46,000 pounds of mace.* The nutmeg tree grows to the size of a pear tree, the leaves resembling those of the laurel, and bears fruit from the age of ten to one hundred years. "The nutmeg, when ripe on the tree, has both a very curious and beautiful appearance: it is about the size of an apricot, and nearly of a similar colour, with the same kind of hollow mark all around it; in shape it is somewhat like a pear: when perfectly ripe, the rind over the mark opens, and discovers the mace, of a deep red, growing over, and covering in part, the thin shell of the nutmeg, which is black."[†]

The ground being chiefly occupied with these precious plantations, cattle and grain, &c. are imported from Batavia; and the Chinese merchants carry European articles even to Tapua or New Guinea. The inhabitants of the Banda isles were found to be 5763. The Dutch still pay a courteous tribute to the sultan of Ternat, once sovereign of Amboyna and Banda; but from the Moluccas, strictly so styled, little is obtained, except gold dust. The English were expelled from Lantor, and Rohn, or Pulo Rohn, prior to the massacre of Amboyna; but seized the whole Spice Islands in 1796, and restored them to their Batavian masters by the treaty with France 1801.

* The hurricane and earthquake, 1778, almost annihilated the nutmeg trees in Banda, so that the Dutch have become the dupes of their own avarice. From 1796 to 1798 the English East India Company imported 817,512 lb. cloves, 93,732 lb. nutmegs, 46,730 lb. mace, besides private trade, amounting to about a third part of the above. Stavorinus, ii. 418.

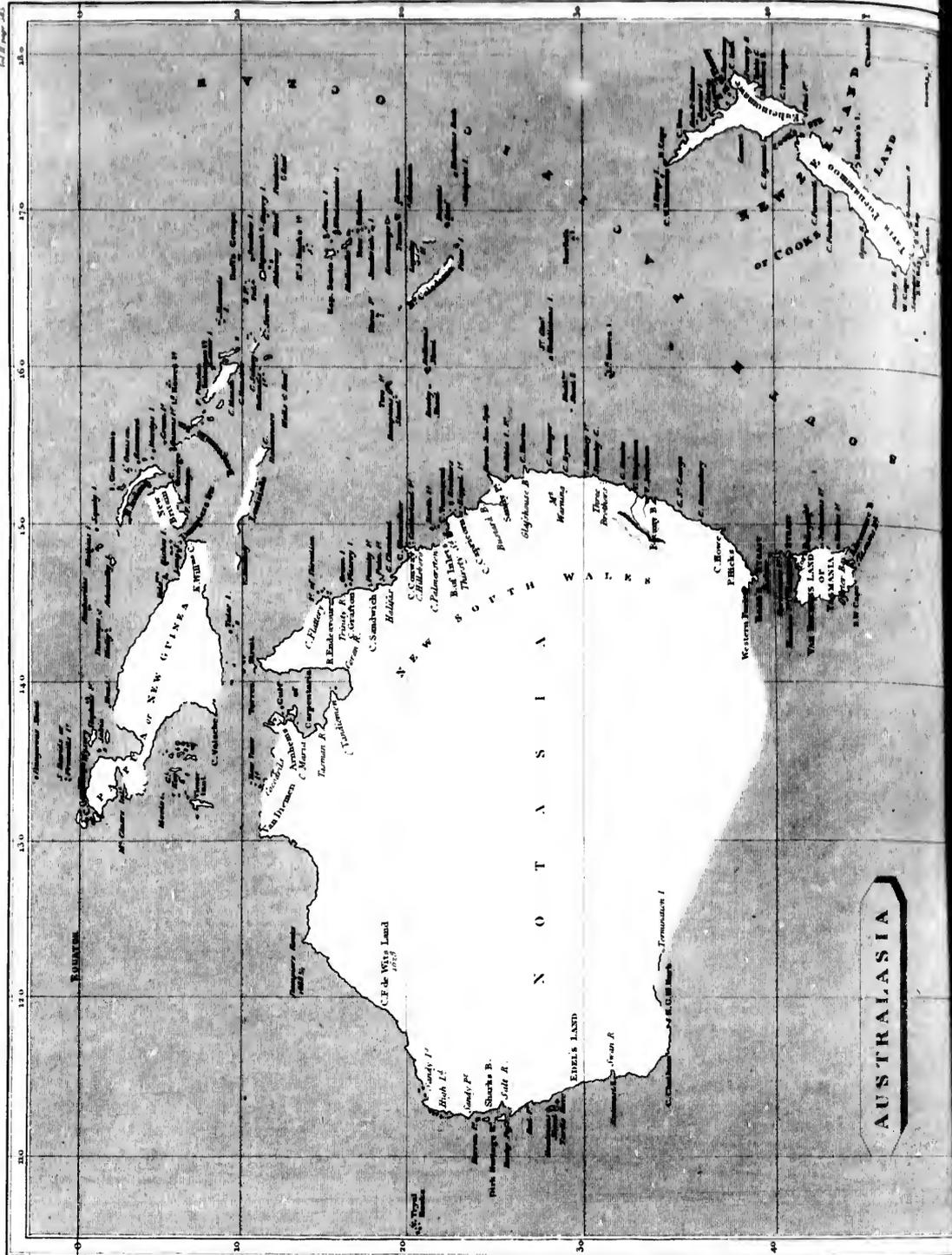
[†] Asiatic Register, 1800, p. 216. In the Moluccas the royal succession was in the female and collateral line, yet the crown was elective, as any collateral was chosen without regard to primogeniture. Hist. G. des Voy. xvii. 59. 4to. Paris edition.

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AUSTRALASIA

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AUSTRALASIA.

IN the introduction to the description of the Asiatic Islands, the reasons for this new division of the earth have been already illustrated. It has also been observed that this appellation cannot be justly extended to the numerous isles in the Pacific Ocean, which may either be admitted as a sixth division of the globe, or considered as a distinct appendage to Australasia. But such is the prodigious extent of the Pacific, that it seems more proper to regard these innumerable islands as a separate grand division, the more especially as to connect them with Australasia would infer that they all lay at least to the south of the equator, while nearly one half is situated to the north of that line. Yet a respect for ancient usage may occasion some delay in the general admission of these new divisions of the earth, and even in this work they are not formally admitted, not intitled, as such, but are arranged as divisions of the Asiatic quarter, with which they have a greater connection than with any other of the admitted portions, not only from their relative position, but because the language and manners indicate, even in the remote isles of Polynesia, a connection with the Malays in southern Asia; the passage from the Asiatic isles being, as it were, step by step; while towards America there is a wide expanse, seemingly destitute of islands, or of consequent communication.*

It

* Some recent German geographers have considered Australasia and Polynesia as *synonymous terms*, in contradiction, as already explained, to the first inventor of these appellations. It is true that this fifth part of the world, as the Germans call it, would not even then exceed the wide extent of Asia or America; but it seems preferable, upon several accounts, to consider Australasia and Polynesia as two great and distinct MARITIME divisions of the globe. The first denomination cannot justly be applied to islands which extend thirty degrees to the north of the equator, being

It will occur to the learned reader that the division even of the other quarters of the word is, in many instances, modern and arbitrary. General Strahlenberg first suggested that the Uralian mountains formed a natural barrier between Asia and Europe, an idea which has been universally followed. Many of the ancients consider Egypt as a part of Asia; but the moderns have fixed a more precise and accurate boundary. It is perhaps to be wished that North and South America had received distinct continental appellations, a defect which cannot now be remedied. But where no general name has yet been imposed, and the novelty would contribute greatly to clearness and precision, there seems no rational objection to its acceptance. The boundaries between Europe and Asia, and between Asia and Africa, may be called arbitrary lines; and even that between Asia and America is only a strait of thirteen leagues. Such being the case there can be no objection from usage to the divisions assumed between Australasia and the islands in the oriental archipelago; or, in like manner, for the western boundaries of Polynesia.*

These considerations being premised, it will be proper briefly to review the boundaries of Australasia; for in a work of science, and still more in one of general instruction, it is more proper to incur the charge of repetition than that of obscurity, especially where the subject is new and has never been properly illustrated. The western boundary, as already mentioned, may be taken in the meridian from the south of Su-

being on the contrary strictly connected with a position at least to the south of the line. Polynesia would be therefore far more proper as a general term, but cannot with equal justice be applied to New Holland supposed to be a continent, and to the circumjacent islands, the characteristic feature of which is not their number, but their size; while in Polynesia, as here accepted, the characteristic feature consists in innumerable small islands. The name of Australasia becomes also the more proper, because it not only implies a continent, but the reminiscence that this region supplies the place of the ideal Terra Australis, after which geographers and navigators so long inquired in vain. The admission of both these divisions seems also the more desirable, as some geographers have regretted that North and South America had not received distinct appellations; for too great extent in any division only leads to laxity and confusion of ideas, and either a vague brevity, or a needless diffusion of expression. Mr. Dalrymple, an excellent judge, approves of these two divisions assigned by De Broëss. (Pref. to Collect. of Voyages.)

* If rejected as divisions of the globe, they must of course be arranged among the Asiatic Islands, in which case the appellations may be still retained.

matra,

matra, or extended to 100°, or even 90°, east from Greenwich ; but as few or no isles of consequence have yet been discovered in that direction, the strict demarcation may be discovered by future circumstances.

A like observation may be applied to the southern boundary of Australasia, which, as including New Zealand, and some isles not far distant, must be extended to the southern latitude of 50°, or even of 60°, where the islands of ice begin to appear.

The most difficult boundaries are those on the north and east. A wide and vacant channel seems to divide the north-west part of Notasia, or New Holland, from the isles of Sunda, or Sumatran chain. From the north cape of Van Diemen, long. 131° E. from Greenwich, a line ascends to the north between the Indian and Pacific oceans, leaving in the former the isles of Banda, Ceram, Mysol, and Gilolo ; while in the Pacific, and belonging to Australasia, are Timorlaut, Waijoo, and other isles immediately connected with Papua. This line being extended in the same direction about two degrees to the N. of the equator, turns east into a wide channel of separation between the Carolines, &c. and New Ireland, and other isles belonging to Australasia. Bending south-east, Sir Joseph Banks's Isles and the New Hebudes are left in Australasia, while a considerable interval leaves the Feejee islands in Polynesia. Thence a wide and open sea gives the line of demarcation an ample sweep, about six or seven degrees to the east of New Zealand, when bending S. W. it joins the southern boundary.

From these indications it will be perceived that Australasia contains the following countries.

1. The central and chief land of Notasia, or New Holland, with any isles which may be discovered in the adjacent Indian ocean, twenty degrees to the W , and between twenty and thirty degrees to the E., including particularly all the large islands that follow :
2. Papua, or New Guinea.
3. New Britain and New Ireland, with the Solomon isles.
4. New Caledonia, and the New Hebudes.
5. New Zealand.

6. The large island called Van Diemen's land, recently discovered to be separated from New Holland by a strait, or rather channel, called Bass's strait.

In the subsequent brief description of these extensive countries, the popular names must be accepted, however capricious or objectionable they may appear.

I. NEW HOLLAND.

SOME suppose that this extensive region, when more thoroughly investigated, will be found to consist of two, three, or more vast islands, intersected by narrow seas, an idea which probably arises from the discovery that New Zealand consists of two islands, and that other new straits have been found to divide lands in this quarter, formerly supposed to be continuous. But on the other hand Papua or New Guinea has been recently ascertained to be continuous; what were formerly thought to be disjunctive straits having been found to be mere inlets and bays. However this be, the most recent and authentic charts indicate New Holland as a country fully entitled to the appellation of a continent. The length from E. to W. is about 43 degrees of longitude, in the medial latitude of 25° , that is about 2340 g. miles, or 2730 British. The breadth from N. to S. extends from 11° to 39° , being 28 degrees, 1680 g. miles, or 1960 British. Europe, the smallest of the ancient continents, is supposed to be about 3300 B. miles in its utmost length, and its greatest breadth 2350, so that Mr. Pennant rather exaggerates when he assimilates the size of Europe and Notasia, the latter being a quarter less than the former. But the proximity of so many large islands recompenses this defect; and the whole of Australasia will probably be found greatly to exceed the European continent. It must at the same time be remembered that New Holland may be discovered to consist of two or more immense islands, so that Australasia is not admitted as a new continent, but merely as a new division of the globe; in which view this and Polynesia may be termed maritime divisions, while the four ancient quarters are strictly terrene.

Extent.

It is probable that the northern parts of Papua were not unknown to the Chinese; but Marco Polo does not seem to indicate even Java, far less any lands to the south or east of that island.* As there is no shadow of evidence that the Chinese had discovered New Holland, there is room to believe that the first civilized people to whom it was disclosed were the Spaniards or Portuguese, the earliest European navigators in this portion of the globe. As in the year 1580 Portugal became subject to Spain, and was incorporated with that kingdom till 1640, the discoveries which happened during these sixty years are indifferently ascribed to the Spaniards or Portuguese. An ancient map now lodged in the British Museum has been thought to evince that a considerable portion of the coast now called New South Wales was known to the Spaniards or Portuguese, but the precise epoch of the map or discovery seems uncertain. † It would indeed be a tedious and fruitless inquiry to

NEW HOLLAND.

* His mention of Arabia, and of the African islands of Zanzibar and Madagascar, seems derived from the Arabian merchants, whom he met with in the east, and affords no argument for his knowledge in this quarter.

† An excellent geographer, M. la Rocheite, informs me that the names are from the Portuguese, and to this people he imputes the earliest discoveries in this quarter, their settlements in the Moluccas, &c. being to the south of the Spanish. But he does not believe that the name supposed to indicate Botany Bay refers to that position.

The author has recently inspected this remarkable map, which formerly belonged to the Earl of Oxford, or in other words, was in the Harleian library, to which it was restored by Sir Joseph Banks in 1790. It is a large vellum roll, on the plan of a Mercator's chart of the world, but without longitudes or latitudes, and is numbered in the MS. Catalogue at the British Museum 5413. Instead of being Spanish or Portuguese, as has been reported, it is entirely French, and the chief names very large and distinct, as in S. America *Terre du Bresil*, &c. &c. It is so constructed that the south point is at the top of the map instead of the bottom, as now usual.

To the south of Asia is a large island, corresponding in position with our New Holland. On the south of Java, which is here placed south of *Samatra* (Sumatra), is a narrow strait between Java and this large island; and Timor appears to the north east. The large island is called *Java la Grande*; and several names are marked on the west and east coasts, among the latter being *Coste des Herbaiges*, or the Coast of Plants (rather herbage or pasture), which has been thought to correspond with Botany Bay, but it is too far to the north, even supposing that this large island represents New Holland. To the south of the *Coste des Herbaiges* are three other names, at considerable distances; first *Coste de Gracal*; then an extensive and very projecting promontory, called the cape *de Fremose*, which is followed at a considerable distance to the south by *Coufre*, that is a gulf, or rather large bay. The terminating line of the map intersects this large island, and leaves its extent uncertain. At a considerable distance to the N. E. appears the *Zipangzi*, or Japan of Marco Polo, which is drawn with an arbitrary outline, and without any names of places.

NEW HOLLAND.

to investigate the claims of various navigators to the mere site of a new region, or even a brief casual visit; and the claim is only admissible in

most

As it has been already shewn that the Great Java of Marco Polo is the island of Borneo, there is vehement reason to suspect that this supposed New Holland is merely the island of Borneo, laid down in a wrong position, which to a person versed in ancient maps will not appear wonderful. Perhaps the draughtsman, who by the writing of the names must have intended the south to be uppermost, had before him a map of the Greater and Lesser Java, in which the north was uppermost, and the error might have happened even if he had already given Borneo its proper situation. In the globe by Martin Behaim, 1492, Java Major is in a corresponding position, as appears from the print in the *Voyage de Pigafetta*, Paris, an. 9, 8vo. This map indeed shows a far superior knowledge in other respects, and seems to have been constructed about 1540: but the appellations of *Java la Grande* and *Zipangri* sufficiently indicate that, in this part, the author laboured under imperfect accounts, and erroneous positions; and the narrow strait between the large island and Java, with the absence of New Guinea, and other circumstances, appear to shew that this supposed New Holland is perhaps the offspring of ignorance and error, being merely a repeated and wrong position of Borneo, the real Greater Java.

Since this note was written Mr. Planta, chief librarian of the British Museum, mentioned to the author a curious manuscript there, Bib. Reg. 20. E. ix. being a set of charts, or rather maps, intitled a *Hydrographie*, by John Rotz, who calls himself servant to Henry VIII; and it is dated at the end 1542, in the thirty-fourth year of that king's reign. This most curious and important MS. is written on vellum in English, but the dedication is in French; and Rotz was perhaps a Fleming, who came over with Ann of Cleves 1540. Besides a calendar, and some instructions for navigation, there are several maps, executed with great care and elegance, particularly a planisphere at the end, which well deserves to be published. In this, and in the second map, New Holland is laid down as it appeared in modern maps after the supposed discovery by Tasman. Other parts are also striking, as the coast of Labrador, with four Portuguese names; *Newfonde Londs*, where men go fishing; and *Cape Bretons*, with several names betwixt it and Florida. There is also *La Bermuda*, with some isles to the N. E. now unknown.

The author collated these maps with the large map above mentioned, but inclines to think that Rotz is the original, as he retains many Portuguese words, which in the other are translated into French. In both the west coast of Borneo appears in its proper place, with *Porto de Borneo* and *Baxos de Borne*, (in the large map *Porte de Borne*, *Basses de Borne*;) and in the same isle *mont de St. P.* and *Ylets de St. Paul*. North of Borneo is *Y. de Polouan* (Palawan); and on the east the Moluccas. In the large map Borneo is an oblong square, much too small in size: and the strait between Little and Great Java, resembling a large river, seems to be called *Rio Grande*, while on the west is *Yjola de Lame*. Rotz calls the supposed New Holland *the land of Java*; and to the north are *Florez* and *Tymor*. His Taprobana is Sumatra; and his Little Java, modern Java; while in Pigafetta's voyage, 1522, Balli is Little Java; and Greater Java is the island now so called. Upon the whole the author inclines to retract his opinion that the Greater Java of these maps may be Borneo: and rather to infer that, in the enthusiasm of enterprize, after the voyage of Magalhaens, and Portuguese mariners had discovered the northern parts of New Holland, more than a century before the pretended Dutch discoveries. But neither interfere with the discovery of the S. E. part by our immortal Cook.

most important instances, such as the landing of Colon or Columbus in America, after he had discovered the West Indies. For it would be invidious to rob that great man of this important and immediate consequence of his prior discoveries.

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The Portuguese being supplanted by the Dutch, the latter are regarded by the learned president De Brosses as the chief discoverers of Australasia, between the year 1616 and 1644.¹ The first discovery he dates in the month of October 1616, when the western extremity was explored by Hartog. The northern part, called *Diemen's Land*, was discovered by another Dutch navigator, named Zeachen, who bestowed the appellation in honour of Anthony Van Diemen, governor general in the East Indies, who returned to Europe with incredible treasures in 1631. It is to be concluded that this governor encouraged such discoveries, for his name was imposed on various regions in this part of the world. In like manner Carpentaria was named from General Carpenter, being discovered in 1628.

In 1642 that celebrated navigator Tasman leaving Batavia with two ships, performed almost a circuit of Australasia, and discovered the southern land of *Van Diemen*, with New Zealand, and some isles of less consequence. It would be foreign to the present purpose to detail the other discoveries which preceded the voyages of Cook in 1768, 1772, and 1776, which, from the superior amplitude and accuracy of the details, may be said to amount to a new discovery.

The eastern coast having been carefully examined by Cook, and justly appearing of great importance, was formally taken possession of in the name of the king of Great Britain 1770. On the close of the American war it being difficult to select a proper place of transportation for criminals sentenced to that punishment by the laws of their country, this new territory was at length preferred in 1786, and the first ship sailed from Spithead on the 30th January 1787, and arrived on the

In the *Bulletin de Littérature* an able geographer, M. Coquebert, has examined this curious question. In an ancient MS Atlas, lately purchased for the archives of the Minister of the exterior at Paris. New Holland is also delineated. The line of demarcation, and the disputes between Spain and Portugal concerning the Moluccas, must have induced the Portuguese to conceal their discoveries.

¹ De Brosses, i. 426.

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20th of the same month in the following year.[†] Botany Bay being found to be a station of inferior advantages to what were expected, and no spot appearing proper for the colony, it was immediately resolved by Governor Phillip to transfer it to another excellent inlet, about twelve miles further to the north, called Port Jackson, on the south side of which, at a spot called Sidney Cove, this settlement is now fixed. Port Jackson is one of the noblest harbours in the world, extending about fourteen miles in length, with numerous creeks or coves.* This new colony met with considerable difficulties in regard to subsistence, and the expence was considered as too great for the object. But men of more extensive and philosophical views beheld with complacence the design of transferring the English race and name to such a distant and important region of the globe, which might supply new objects to commerce and science, and in the course of a few centuries present as it were another America, a country of rising knowledge and civilization, in the midst of a benighted and savage region of the globe. Nor were views of ambition and glory undelighted with this new diffusion of the great and surprising people of a remote European isle, in the most distant extremities of the navigable ocean.

The general eye, however, little accustomed to such telescopic views, only beheld the present difficulties and expediture, and from the degraded character of the mass of the colonists expected nothing but confusion, intestine broils, and consequent dereliction. It is however to be hoped that, as situation is frequently the sole cause of crime, a change in this respect may gradually lead to moral conduct. In all events those periods have elapsed in which children were held contaminated by the faults of their fathers; and in the course of a generation or two the stream may run pure, while the mud of the fountain has subsided. And to the eye of a candid philosopher, who cannot, with the fanatic Rousseau, prefer the crimes of savages to the faults of civilized society, it may perhaps appear that even now the new territory has gained an accession of virtue. For where the murder of innocent children, in

[†] Collins, p. ii.

* Broken Bay is another most capacious inlet, being an estuary of the Hawkesbury, and probably of other rivers, while Port Jackson only receives two or three small streams.

revenge for the faults of their parents, is not only permitted, but practised with attendant circumstances of deliberate and infernal cruelty, an English criminal may comparatively be reputed a virtuous citizen.¹ It is indeed to be lamented that the punishment of death so frequent in England, and so useless in every point of view, is not almost universally changed into transportation; and in the few instances in which it is unavoidable it ought to be accompanied with long and lugubrious solemnity, as in some parts of Germany. In one case, in particular, life is sported with, when it might be of the utmost consequence to a rising colony. A young woman convicted of child-murder is impelled by motives of shame and honour, which despise every human law; but removed from this situation, she may become a fruitful and excellent mother.

Some unexpected misfortunes attended the new colony, the sheep being stolen, while the cattle wandered into the woods. Meanwhile turtle and birds were procured from Howe island, and a small settlement was made in Norfolk island, as a more fertile spot, but especially with a view to the cultivation of the flax plant of the New Zealand kind, from which great expectations were entertained. For a minute account of the progress of this interesting colony till 1797, the reader may consult the work of Mr. Collins, who held an eminent situation in the establishment; and which, from the details of savage life and manners, and the singular character of the colony itself, cannot fail to present most new and important views of human nature and society. A space of about fifty miles around the colony had then been explored, and two rivers called Nepean and Hawkesbury, and some mountains, had been discovered. The cattle were found grazing in a remote meadow, in 1795, after they had been lost for seven years, and had increased to a surprising degree. The most recent accounts seem to authenticate the flourishing state of the colony. The mode of cultivation has been improved, coal and rock salt discovered; and there is room to expect that this wide territory will not be found deficient in the usual riches of nature.

¹ Collins, p. 537.

New Hol-
LAND.
Inhabitants.

These historical outlines being premised, it will be proper to offer a brief and indeed necessarily defective description of this new continent, as it is conceived to be, in its original state. From the accounts of various navigators, there is room to infer that this extensive tract is peopled by three or four races of men, those observed in the S. W. being described as different from those in the N.,* and both from those in the E., with whom alone we are intimately acquainted. These are perhaps in the most early stage of society which has yet been discovered in any part of the globe. They are merely divided into families, the senior being styled Be-ana, or Father, which highest of their titles they also applied to Governor Phillip. Each family or tribe has a particular place of residence, and is distinguished by adding *gal* to the name of the place; thus the southern shore of Botany Bay is called Gwea, and the tribe there Gwea-gal. Another tribe, numerous and muscular, has the singular prerogative of exacting a tooth from young men of other families, the sole token of government or subordination. No religion whatever is known, though they have a faint idea of a future existence, and think their people return to the clouds, whence they originally fell. They may be said to be exactly one degree above the brute creation; and, like monkeys, are great mimics. They are of a low stature, and ill made; the arms, legs, and thighs, being remarkably thin, perhaps owing to their poor living on fish, the only food of those on the coast, while a few in the woods subsist on such animals as they can catch, and climb trees for honey, flying squirrels, and opossums. The features of the women are not unpleasant, though approaching to the negro. The black bushy beards of the men, and the bone or reed which they thrust through the cartilage of the nose, gives them a disgusting appearance; which is not improved by the practice of rubbing fish oil into their skins, as a protection from the air and moskitos, so that in hot weather the stench is intolerable. They colour their faces with white or red clay. The women are marked by the loss of the two first joints of the little finger of the left hand, as they were supposed to be

* Yet the description of our great navigator Dampier, who visited this part in 1688, presents a great similarity with that of the natives in our own colony near Port Jackson. (Vol. i. p. 462.)

† Collins, 550.

in the way when they coiled their fishing lines. It is however not im-
 probable that this practice, and the extraction of a tooth from the boys,
 may be mere initiations, rude lessons that they may learn to bear pain
 with apathy. The children are seldom disfigured except by accidents
 from fire; and their sight is surprisngly acute. Some are nearly as
 black as African negroes, while others exhibit a copper or Malay co-
 lour, but the hair is long, not woolly like the African. Their noses are
 flat, nostrils wide, sunk eyes, thick brows and lips, with a mouth of pro-
 digious width, but the teeth white and even. "Many had very pro-
 minent jaws; and there was one man who, but for the gift of speech,
 might very well have passed for an orang-outang. He was remarkably
 hairy; his arms appeared of an uncommon length; in his gait he was
 not perfectly upright; and in his whole manner seemed to have more
 of the brute, and less of the human species, about him, than any of his
 countrymen. Those who have been in that country will, from this out-
 line of him, recollect old We-rahng." ¹

New Hol-
 LAND.

The huts are most rudely constructed of the bark of trees, in the form
 of an oven, the fire being at the entrance, while within are smoke and
 nastiness. Here they sleep promiscuously, if not interrupted by their
 frequent enmities and assassinations. Fish are killed with a kind of
 prong, or taken, by the women, with lines of bark and hooks of the
 mother of pearl oyster, rubbed on a stone till the proper form be ob-
 tained: the fish are often broiled on a fire laid on sand in the canoe.
 Beasts are taken in a kind of toils. - Caterpillars and worms are like-
 wise articles of food. The canoes are made of bark extended on a tim-
 ber frame.

The gallantry of these savages towards the fair sex Rousseau would
 doubtless have greatly admired. The courtship consists in watching
 the lady's retirement, and then knocking her down with repeated blows
 of a club, or wooden sword; after which the truly matrimonial vic-
 tim is led streaming with blood to her future husband's party, when a
 scene ensues too shocking to relate. The woman thus ravished is called
 a wife; and polygamy is common. Both sexes are naked; and the

Manners and
 Customs.

¹ Collins, 554.

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girls first learned from the Europeans that there was such a thing as shame. Parturition is easy, and a few hours after the mother walks about her usual business. The infant is for a few days placed on a piece of soft bark, but is soon removed to the mother's shoulders, where it sits with its little legs across her neck, securing itself by catching hold of her hair. The name is transferred from some bird, beast, or fish. The boys throw reeds and balls, and amuse themselves with stealing little girls, whom they beat and abuse in imitation of the marriage ceremonies. The solemnity of paying the tribute of teeth seems to be performed every four years, and is represented in many plates published by Mr. Collins, being a truly singular delineation of savage life. In some parts of this ceremony the form and character of man seem despised, and the superiority of brutes acknowledged, by walking like quadrupeds, and the ambitious imitation of a tail. Power is however supposed to be conferred over the dog and the kangaroo, and the other parts seem an initiation in war and pain: but the whole is strangely degrading to the dignity of human nature. *

These poor savages are also slaves of superstition, believing in magic and witchcraft and ghosts, the latter being the nightmare: they have also spells against thunder and lightning, and pretend to foretell events by the meteors called falling stars. They are subject to a disease resembling a violent itch; but for their venereal complaints they seem indebted to Europeans. They have not only personal property in their weapons and fishing tackle, but some are supposed hereditary proprietors of certain spots, perhaps assigned as rewards for public services, or acts of great bravery. They have names for the sun and moon, some few stars, the Magellanic clouds, and the milky way. Young people are buried, but those who have passed the middle age are burnt; a rude tumulus being erected by way of tomb.

Language.

Of the language Mr. Collins has given an ample vocabulary, and it is reported to be grateful to the ear, expressive, and sonorous, having no analogy with any other known language; but the dialects of the va-

* "Is man no more than this? Consider him well—Thou art the thing itself: unaccommodated man is no more but such a poor, bare, forked animal as thou art." Shakespeare's *Lear*, act iii. scene iv.

rious regions seem entirely different. Whether these people be remains of aboriginal tribes from the most southern extremities of Asia, or have passed from Madagascar and the eastern shores of Africa, are matters of future discovery and investigation.

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From its situation on the southern side of the equator, the seasons are like those of the southern part of Africa and America, the reverse of those in Europe; the summer corresponding with our winter, and the spring with autumn. Mr. Collins found the weather in December very hot, but the climate was allowed to be fine and salubrious. The rains were heavy, appearing to fall chiefly about the full and change of the moon; and at intervals there were storms of thunder and lightning. In Norfolk island there is what may be called a rainy season, from February to August. As the south is in this hemisphere the region of cold, there must be great difference in the temperature of this wide continent; which may also be affected as usual by chains of mountains, and other circumstances yet undiscovered.

Climate and
Seasons.

It would be idle to attempt any delineation of the general aspect of this country, of which we only know the mere skirts and extremities; so that a traveller who had landed at Brest, and inspected a small portion of Bretagne, might as well aspire to give an account of Europe, while in fact he knows but little of France. The small particle known seems hilly, but not mountainous, partly covered with tall trees clear from underwood; which last however covers extensive tracts towards the shores, in which large swamps also occur. The soil around Botany Bay, is black and fat, and fertile of plants, whence the name arose; but these favourable appearances were counteracted by great disadvantages. Considerable quantities of maize and wheat have since been raised, particularly on Norfolk island; and it is to be hoped that when experience has indicated the proper means, this may be rendered a productive country.

Face of the
Country.

Concerning the rivers, lakes, and mountains of New Holland there is little information, but they may probably be discovered to be on a very large and extensive scale. A chain of mountains is said to run N. and

Rivers,
Lakes, and
Mountains.

* Pennant's Outlines, iv. 108; but this excellent naturalist seems prejudiced against the country and the colony.

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S. between 50 and 60 miles inland, but not easily accessible on account of numerous deep ravines. Basaltic columns often appear; and in Howe island they rise to such a height as to be visible at the distance of twelve leagues. Mr. Pennant represents the timber of the forests as brittle and entirely useless; but this defect may be remedied by plantations, European fruit trees having already prospered greatly: and it is probable that the interior regions may present a vegetation very different from that of the coast. It is reasonably inferred that the vine might be planted with great success.

Zoology.

This wide country presents a peculiarity in the animals, mostly of the opossum kind, and leaping habitually upon the hind legs: the chief in size is the kangaroo, some kinds of which are elegant. The native dogs are of the chacal kind, and never bark; they are of two colours, black, or white with tinges of red, and some are very handsome. Among the few other quadrupeds yet described are weazels and ant-eaters, with that singular animal the duck-billed platypus, in which nature seems to delight in transgressing her usual law, the jaws of a quadruped being elongated into the complete bill of a bird. Among the birds are the brown eagle, several falcons, and many elegant parrots, ravens, crows, a large king-fisher: there are also bustards and partidges, with some pigeons. A new kind of cassowary must not be omitted, said to be seven feet in length:⁷ it is not uncommon, and the flesh tastes like beef. Among the aquatic birds are the heron, a kind of ibis or curlew, and gigantic pelicans. There are also peculiar ducks and geese; and the black swan is a rare progeny of the new continent. "It is in size superior to the white. The bill is of a rich scarlet; near the tip is a small yellow spot. The whole plumage of the most intense black, except the primaries and secondaries, which are white, the eyes black, the feet dusky: it is found in Hawkesbury river, and other fresh waters near Broken bay, and has all the graceful actions of the white kind."⁸ Among the most singular birds is the *mænura superba*, of which the lofty tail expands in the form of a lyre.

⁷ Collins, 567.

⁸ Pennant, iv. 127.

⁹ Ib. 133. It is mentioned in the *Hist. Gen. des Voy.* xvi. 80, edit. Holl. as observed by Vlaming in 1697.

The tortoises, called green turtle, abound in the isles of Norfolk and Howe; and likewise appear on the coast of New Holland. There are several lizards and serpents. Of the fish may be named dolphins, porpoises, and a singular amphibious kind which leaps like a frog, by the help of strong breast fins; so that nature has not only here blended the bird with the quadruped, but brought fish upon land. The blue crab, of an ultramarine colour, is of exquisite beauty.

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As the interior mountains of this immense region have not been explored, little can be said concerning the mineralogy, which is probably richest in the northern, or hottest parts. In 1797 a ship from Bengal being wrecked on the southern shore, of seventeen men only three reached the settlement, after a journey of eighty days, and on their way discovered immense strata of coal, which may prove far more valuable than mines of gold.* Perhaps the vessels recently sent to explore the southern parts may make other important discoveries, besides completing the geography of the shores.*

Mineralogy.

Amidst the want of materials for a more ample description of this new and interesting continent, the reader may not be displeas'd with the details supplied by Mr. Collins concerning the original inhabitants; the more especially as they are very striking to the philosophical reader, from the new views which they present relative to what may be called the real primitive state of society, concerning which so many dreams have been published by Rousseau and other theoretical writers, who pretended to supply their ignorance of facts by their fertility of imagination.

Government.

"The natives about Botany Bay, Port Jackson, and Broken Bay, were found living in that state of nature which must have been common to all men previous to their uniting in society, and acknowledging but one authority. These people are distributed into families, the head or senior of which exacts compliance from the rest. In the early inter-

* Collins, 617.

* The southern shores are said to have been explored by Peter van Nuitz, in Jan. 1627. De Brosses, i. 433. They seem to recede in the middle and towards the E. a vast bay, with an isle, is said to have been recently discovered.

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course with them (and indeed at a much later period, on the English meeting with families to whom they were unknown) they were always accosted by the person who appeared to be the eldest of the party; while the women, youths, and children, were kept at a distance. The word which in their language signifies father, was applied to their old men; and when, after some time, and by close observation, they perceived the authority with which governor Phillip commanded, and the obedience which he exacted, they bestowed on him the distinguishing appellation of Be-anna, or father. This title being conferred solely on him (although they perceived the authority of masters over their servants) places the true sense of the word beyond a doubt, and proves that to those among them who enjoyed that distinction belonged the authority of a chief.

“ When any of these went into the town, they were immediately pointed out by their companions or those natives who resided in it, in a whisper, and with an eagerness of manner which, while it commanded the attention of those to whom it was directed, impressed them likewise with an idea that they were looking at persons remarkable for some superior quality even among the savages of New Holland. Another acceptance of the word Be-anna, however, soon became evident; for it was observed to be frequently applied by children to men who were known to have no children. On inquiry, however, it was understood, that in case a father should die, the nearest of kin, or some deputed friend would take care of his children; and were by them styled Be-anna. Here, if the reader pauses for a moment, to consider the difference between the general conduct of our baptismal sponsors (to whose duties this custom bears much resemblance), and the humane practice of these uncivilized people, will not the comparison suffuse his cheek with something like shame, at seeing the enlightened Christian so distanced, in the race of humanity, by the untutored savage, who has hitherto been the object of both his pity and contempt? But sorry is the historian to recollect, what as a faithful narrator he is compelled to relate, one particular in their customs that is wholly irreconcilable with the humane duties which they have prescribed to themselves in the above instance; duties which relate only to those children who, in the event of losing
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the mother, could live without her immediate aid. A far different lot NEW HOL-
LAND. is reserved for such as are at that time at the breast, or in a state of absolute helplessness, as will be seen hereafter.

“ We have mentioned their being divided into families. Each family has a particular place of residence, from which is derived its distinguishing name. This is formed by adding the monosyllable *gal* to the name of the place: thus the southern shore of Botany Bay is called Gwea, and the people who inhabit it style themselves Gwegal. Those who live on the north shore of Port Jackson are called Cam-mer-ray-gal, that part of the harbour being distinguished from others by the name of Cam-mer-ray. Of this last family, or tribe, the settlers had heard Ben-nil-long and other natives speak (before they were otherwise known) as of a very powerful people who could oblige them to attend wherever and whenever they directed. They were afterwards found to be by far the most numerous tribe yet discovered. It so happened, that they were also the most robust and muscular, and that among them were several of the people styled Car-rah-dy and Car-rah-di-gang, of which extraordinary personages we shall have to speak particularly, under the article SUPERSTITION.

“ To the tribe of Cam-mer-ray also belonged the exclusive and extraordinary privilege of exacting a tooth from the natives of other tribes inhabiting the sea coast, or of all such as were within their authority. The exercise of this privilege places these people in a particular point of view; and there is no doubt of their decided superiority. Many contests, or decisions of honour (for such there are among them) have been delayed until the arrival of these people; and when they came, it was impossible not to observe the superiority and influence which their number and their muscular appearance gave them.

“ These are all the traces that could ever be discovered among them of government or subordination; and we may imagine the deference which is paid to the tribe of Cam-mer-ray, to be derived only from their superiority of numbers; but this superiority they have probably maintained for a length of time; and, indeed, the privilege of demanding a tooth from the young men of other families must have been of

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long standing, and coëval with the obedience which was paid to them; hence their superiority partakes something of the nature of a constituted authority; an authority which has the sanction of custom to plead for its continuance.

Religion.

“ It has been asserted by an eminent divine,* that no country has yet been discovered where some trace of religion was not to be found. From every observation and inquiry that could be made among these people, they appear an exception to this opinion. It is certain, that they do not worship either sun, moon, or star; that however necessary fire may be to them, it is not an object of adoration; neither have they respect for any particular beast, bird, or fish. Nor could any object ever be discovered, either substantial or imaginary, that impelled them to the commission of good actions, or deterred them from the perpetration of what we deem crimes. There indeed existed among them some idea of a future state, but not connected in anywise with religion; for it had no influence whatever on their lives and actions. On their being often questioned as to what became of them after their decease, some answered that they went either on or beyond the great water; but by far the greater number signified, that they went to the clouds. The author conversing with Ben-nil-long after his return from England, where he had obtained much knowledge of our customs and manners, wishing to learn what where his ideas of the place from which his countrymen came, led him to the subject, by observing, that all the white men at Port Jackson had come from England, and then asked him where the black men (or Eora) came from? He hesitated—Did they come from any island? His answer was, that he knew of none: they came from the clouds (alluding, perhaps, to the aborigines of the country); and when they died, they returned to the clouds (Boo-row-e). He seemed desirous to make it understood that they ascended in the shape of little children, first hovering in the tops and in the branches of trees; and mentioned something about eating (in that state) their favourite food, little fishes.

* Blair's Sermons, Vol. I. Sermon I.

“ If this idea of the immortality of the soul should excite a smile, let the mocker ask himself, if it be more ridiculous than the belief which many among us entertain, that at the last day the various disjointed bones of men shall find out each its proper owner, and be reunited ; the savage hero trades close upon the footsteps of the Christian.

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“ The young natives who resided at Sydney were very desirous of going to church on Sunday, but knew not for what purpose any one attended. They were often seen to take a book, and with much success imitate the clergyman in his manner, (indeed better or readier mimics can no where be found,) laughing and enjoying the applause which they received.

“ An account has appeared in a pamphlet, or a newspaper, of a native throwing himself in the way of a man who was about to shoot a crow ; and the person who wrote the account drew an inference, that the bird was an object of worship ; but it can be with confidence affirmed, that, so far from dreading to see a crow killed, they are very fond of eating their flesh, and take the following particular method to ensnare that bird : a native will stretch himself on a rock, as if asleep in the sun, holding a piece of fish in his hand ; the bird, be it hawk or crow, seeing the prey, and not observing any motion in the native, pounces on the fish ; and in the instant of seizing it is caught by the savage, who soon throws it on the fire, and makes a meal, that for enjoyment, might be envied by an epicure.

“ That they have ideas of a distinction between good and bad, is evident from their having terms in their language significant of these qualities. Thus the sting-ray was (wee-re) bad ; it was a fish of which they never ate. The patta-go-rang on kangaroo was (bood-yer-re) good, and they were very fond of it.

“ To exalt these people at all above the brute creation, it is necessary to shew that they have the gift of reason, and that they know the distinction between right and wrong, as well as between what food was good and what was bad. Of these latter qualities their senses informed them ; but the knowledge of right and wrong could only proceed from reason. It is true, they had no distinction or terms for these qua-

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lities; wee-re and bood-yer-re alike implying what was good and bad, and right and wrong. Instances, however, were not wanting, of their using them to describe the sensations of the mind as well as of the senses: thus their enemies were wee-re; their friends bood-yer-re. On being spoken to, of cannibalism, they expressed great horror at the mention, and said it was wee-re. On seeing any of the people who had ill treated them punished, they expressed their approbation, by saying it was bood-yer-re. Midnight murders, though frequently practised among them whenever passion or revenge dictated, they reprobated, but applauded acts of kindness and generosity; for of both these they were capable. A man who would not stand to have a spear thrown at him, but ran away, was a coward, jee-run, and wee-re. But their knowledge of the difference between right and wrong certainly never extended beyond their existence in this world; not leading them to believe that the practice of either had any relation to their future state: this was manifest from their idea of quitting this world, or rather of entering the next, in the form of little children, under which form they would reappear in this.

Stature and appearance.

“Very few men or women among them could be said to be tall, and still fewer were well made. At one time a dwarf, a female appeared among them, who, when she stood upright, measured about four feet two inches: none of her limbs were disproportioned, nor were her features unpleasant; and she had a child at her back. The other natives seemed to make her an object of their merriment. In general, indeed almost universally, the limbs of these people were small; of most of them the arms, legs, and thighs were very thin. This, no doubt, is owing to the poorness of their living, which is chiefly on fish; otherwise the fineness of the climate, co-operating with the exercise which they take, might have rendered them more muscular. Those who live on the sea-coast depend entirely on fish for their sustenance; while the few who dwell in the woods subsist on such animals as they can catch. The very great labour necessary for taking these animals, and the scantiness of the supply, keep the wood natives in as poor a condition as their brethren on the coast. It has been remarked, that these natives had longer arms and legs than those who lived about Sydney. This might

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might proceed from their being compelled to climb the trees, after honey, and the small animals which resort to them, such as the flying squirrel and opossum, which they effect by cutting with their stone hatchets notches in the bark of the tree of a sufficient depth and size to receive the ball of the great toe. The first notch being cut, the toe is placed in it; and while the left arm embraces the tree, a second is cut at a convenient distance to receive the other foot. By this method they ascend with astonishing quickness, always clinging with the left hand and cutting with the right, resting the whole weight of the body on the ball of either foot. One of the gum trees was observed by a party on an excursion, which was judged to be about one hundred and thirty feet in height, and which had been notched by the natives at least eighty feet.

“ The features of many of these people were far from unpleasing, particularly of the women; in general, the black bushy beards of the men, and the bone or reed which they thrust through the cartilage of the nose, tended to give them a disgusting appearance; but in the women, that feminine delicacy which is to be found among white people was to be traced even upon their sable cheeks; and though entire strangers to the comforts and conveniencies of clothing, yet they fought with a native modesty to conceal by attitude what the want of covering would otherwise have revealed: bringing to the recollection of those who observed them,

“ The bending statue which enchants the world,”

though it must be owned, that the resemblance consisted solely in the position.

“ Both sexes use the disgusting practice of rubbing fish oil into their skins; but they are compelled to this as a guard against the effects of the air, and of musquitoes, and flies; some of which are large and bite or sting with much severity. But the oil, together with the perspiration from their bodies, produces, in hot weather, a most horrible stench. Some of them have been seen with the entrails of fish frying in the burning sun upon their heads, until the oil ran down over their foreheads. To their hair, by means of the yellow gum, they fasten the front teeth of the kangaroo, and the jaw-bones of a large fish, human teeth, pieces of wood, feathers of birds, the tail of the dog, and certain

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certain bones taken out of a fish, not unlike human teeth. The natives who inhabit the shore of Botany Bay divide the hair into small parcels, each of which they mat together with gum, and form them into lengths like the thrums of a mop. On particular occasions, they ornament themselves with red and white clay, using the former when preparing to fight, the latter for the more peaceful amusement of dancing. The fashion of these adornments was left to each person's taste; and some, when decorated in their very best manner, looked perfectly horrible. Nothing could appear more terrible than a black and dismal face, with a large white circle drawn round each eye, wavy lines down each arm, thigh and leg; some with chequers daubed, and lines drawn over each rib: these presented most spectre-like figures. Previous to either a dance or a combat, they were always found busily employed in these necessary preliminaries. Both sexes are ornamented with scars upon the breast, arms, and back, which are cut with broken pieces of the shell that they use at the end of the throwing-stick. By their keeping open these incisions, the flesh grows up between the sides of the wound, and after a time, skinning over, forms a large weal or seam.

"The women are early subjected to an uncommon mutilation of the two first joints of the little finger of the left hand. This operation is performed when they are very young, and is done under an idea that these joints of the little finger are in the way when they wind their fishing-lines over the hand. Very few were to be met with who had not undergone this ceremony, and these appeared to be held in contempt.

"The men too were not without their mutilation, most of those who lived on the sea-coast having lost the right front tooth; but a particular account of the ceremonies used on this occasion will be found hereafter, under the article CUSTOMS AND MANNERS.

"Few deformities of person were noticed among them; once or twice the print of inverted feet have been found on the sand. Round shoulders or hump-backs were never observed in any one instance, yet no women could be more inattentive to their young than these savages; frequent instances occurred of infants rolling into the fire, and being

dreadfully burnt, while their mother slept beside them ; indeed, these people are extremely difficult to awaken when once asleep. NEW HOLLAND.

“ Their sight is peculiarly fine, indeed their existence very often depends upon the accuracy of it ; for a short-sighted man (a misfortune unknown among them, and not yet introduced by fashion, nor relieved by the use of a glass) would never be able to defend himself from their spears, which are thrown with amazing force and velocity.

“ The colour of these people is not in all cases the same : some have been seen who, even when cleansed from the smoke and filth which were always to be found on their persons, were nearly as black as the African negro ; while others have exhibited only a copper or Malay colour. The natural covering of their heads is not wool, as in most other black people, but hair ; this was particularly remarked in Ben-nilong after his return from England, where some attention to his dress had been paid ; he was found to have long black hair : black, indeed, was the general colour, though some few were seen to have it of a reddish cast.

“ Their noses are flat, nostrils wide, eyes much sunk in the head, and covered with thick eye-brows ; in addition to which, they wear tied round the head, a net, the breadth of the forehead, made of the fur of the opossum, which, when wishing to see very clearly, they draw over their eye-brows, thereby contracting the light. Their lips are thick, and the mouth extravagantly wide ; but when opened discovers two rows of white, even, and sound teeth. Many have prominent jaws.

“ Their habitations are as rude as imagination can conceive. The hut of the woodman is made of the bark of a single tree, bent in the middle, and placed on its two ends on the ground, affording shelter to only one miserable tenant. These they never carry about with them. On the sea-coast the huts were larger, formed of pieces of bark from several trees put together in the form of an oven, with an entrance, and large enough to hold six or eight people. Their fire was always at the mouth of the hut, rather within than without ; and the interior was in general the most nasty-smoke-dried place that can be conceived. Besides these bark huts, they made use of excavations in the rock. At the mouths of these excavations was noticed a luxuriancy of soil ; and in turning

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turning up the ground, it was found rich with shells and other manure. These proved a valuable resource to the settlement; as many loads of shells were burnt into lime, while the other parts were wheeled into the gardens.

“ In their huts and their caves they lie down indiscriminately mixed, men, women, and children together; and appear to possess under them much the same enjoyment as may be supposed to be found by the brute beast in his den, shelter from the weather; and, if not disturbed by external enemies, the comfort of sleep.

“ The extreme soundness with which they sleep invites jealousy, or revenge for other wrongs, to arm the hand of the assassin. Many instances of this occurred; one of which was rendered remarkable, by the murderer first taking a sleeping infant from the arms of the father whom he was about to deprive of existence: the child he brought to Sydney to be taken care of.

“ Being themselves sensible of the danger they were in while asleep, they eagerly sought to obtain puppies of the spaniel and terrier breeds from the settlers, which they considered as invaluable guardians during the night.

Made of
living.

“ The natives on the sea-coast, and who are the most known, have little other support than fish. Men, women, and children, are employed in procuring them; but the means used are different according to the sex of the fisher; the men killing them with the siz-gig, while the females use the hook and line. The siz-gig is made of the wattle; has a joint in it, fastened by gum; is from fifteen to twenty feet in length, and armed with four barbed prongs; the barb being a piece of bone secured by gum.

“ The lines used by the women are made by themselves of the bark of a small tree which they find in the neighbourhood. Their hooks are made of the mother of pearl oyster, which they rub on a stone until it assumes the shape that they want. Though these hooks are not barbed, they catch fish with them with great facility.

“ While fishing, the women sing. In their canoes, they always carry a small fire laid upon sea-weed or sand, with which, when desirous of eating, they dress their meal.

“ The

" The woods, exclusive of the animals which they occasionally find in their neighbourhood, afford them but little sustenance ; a few berries, the yam, and fern-root, the flowers of the different banksia, and at times some honey, make up the whole vegetable catalogue.

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" The natives who live in the woods, and on the margins of rivers, are compelled to seek a different subsistence, and are driven to a harder exercise of their abilities to procure it ; one instance of which has been given in the manner of climbing the trees : they have besides, a laborious method of ensnaring animals.

" These wood natives make a paste formed of the fern-root and the ant bruised together ; in the season, they also add the eggs of this insect.

" How will the refined ear of gallantry be wounded at the reading an account of the courtship of these people ! It has been said, that there was a delicacy visible in the manners of the females. Is it not shocking then to think, that the prelude to love should be violence ? Yet such it is in their country, and violence of the most brutal nature. These unfortunate victims of lust and cruelty (it will admit of no better term) are, it is believed, always selected from the women of a different tribe from that of the males, (for they ought not to be dignified with the title of men,) and with whom they are at enmity. Secrecy is necessarily observed, and the poor wretch is stolen upon in the absence of her protectors. Being first stupified with blows, inflicted with clubs or wooden swords, on the head, back, and shoulders, every one of which is followed by a stream of blood, she is then dragged through the woods by one arm, with a perseverance and violence that it might be supposed would displace it from its socket. The lover, or rather the ravisher, is regardless of the stones or broken pieces of trees which may lie in his route, being anxious only to convey his prize, in safety, to his own party, where a scene ensues too shocking to relate. This outrage is not repented by the relations of the female, who only retaliate by a similar outrage when they find an opportunity. This is so constantly the practice among them, that even the children make it a play-game or exercise.

Courtship and
marriage.

" The women thus ravished become their wives, are incorporated into the tribes to which their husbands belong, and but seldom quit them for others.

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“ Many of the men do not confine themselves to one woman. Ben-nil-long, previous to his visit to England, was possessed of two wives, both living with him and attending on him wherever he went. One, named Ba-rang-a-roo, lived with him at the time he was seized and taken a captive to the settlement; and before her death he had brought off from Botany Bay, by the violence before described Go-roo-bar-roo-bool-lo; and she continued with him until his departure for England. It was understood that all the natives on the banks of the Hawkesbury had two wives; and indeed, on the whole, more instances were known of plurality of wives than of monogamy. In no one instance had they been observed to have children by both women; and in general, as might be expected, the two females were always jealous of, and quarrelling with each other; though it was understood, that the first wife claimed a priority of attachment, and an exclusive right to the conjugal embrace; while the second or latter choice was compelled to be the drudge and slave of both.

“ Chastity was a virtue in which, certainly, neither sex prided themselves; yet the females, having discovered, that the white people thought it shameful to be seen naked, became, at least many of them, extremely delicate and reserved in this respect, when before them; but when in the presence of only their own people, they were perfectly indifferent about their appearance.

Custom and
manners.

“ During the time of parturition these people suffer none but females to be present. War-re-weer, Ben-nil-long's sister, being taken in labour while in the town, an opportunity offered of observing them in that critical juncture; of which some of the women, who were favourites of the girl, were desired to avail themselves; and from them were obtained the following particulars:

“ During her labour one female was employed in pouring cold water from time to time on the abdomen, while another, tying one end of a small line round War-re-weer's neck, with the other end rubbed her own lips until they bled. She derived no actual assistance from those about her, the child coming into the world by the sole effort of nature; neither did any one receive it from her; but one of the white women divided the umbilical cord and washed the child, which the mother readily

readily permitted, although the other natives strongly objected to it. NEW HOLLAND.
The poor creature appeared much exhausted.

“ Ben-nil-long’s wife, a few hours after she had been delivered of a child, was seen walking about alone and picking up sticks to mend her fire. The infant, whose skin appeared to have a reddish cast, was lying in a piece of soft bark on the ground.

“ The child thus produced is by the mother carried about for some days on a piece of soft bark, and, as soon as it acquires strength enough, is removed to the shoulders, where it sits with its little legs across her neck; and taught by necessity, soon catches hold of her hair to preserve itself from falling.

“ The reddish cast of the skin soon gives place to the natural hue; a change that is much assisted by the smoke and dirt in which, from the moment of their existence, these little wretches are nurtured. The parents begin early to decorate them after the custom of the country; but as soon as the hair of the head can be taken hold of, fish bones and teeth of animals are fastened to it with gum. White clay ornaments their little limbs; and the females suffer the extraordinary amputation which they term Malgun before they have quitted their seat on their mother’s shoulders.

“ At about a month or six weeks old the child receives its name. This is generally taken from some of the objects constantly before their eyes, such as a bird, a beast, or a fish, and is given without any ceremony.

“ From their earliest infancy the boys are accustomed to throwing the spear, and to the habit of defending themselves from it. They begin by throwing reeds at each other, and are soon very expert. They also, from the time when they can run, until prompted by manhood to realize their sports, amuse themselves with stealing the females, and treat them at this time very little better than they do then.

“ Between the ages of eight and sixteen, the males and females undergo the operation which they term Gna-noong, viz that of having the septum of the nose bored, to receive a bone or reed, which among them is deemed a very great ornament, though the articulation is frequently rendered very imperfect by it. Between the same years also

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the males receive the qualifications which are given to them by losing one front tooth. This ceremony occurred twice while the author of this narrative was in the country; and at the second of these operations he was so fortunate as to be present the whole of the time, attended by a person well qualified to make drawings of every particular circumstance that occurred.

" On the 25th of January 1795, the natives assembled in considerable numbers for the purpose of performing this ceremony; as several youths well known in the settlement, never having submitted to the operation, were now to be made men. Pe-mul-wy, a wood native, and many strangers, came in, but the principals in the operation not being arrived from Cam-mer-ray, the intermediate nights were to be passed in dancing; for which purpose they were ornamented in their belt manner, and certainly displayed a variety of tastes. One was painted white to the middle, his beard and eyebrows excepted, others were distinguished by large white circles round the eyes, which rendered them as terrific as can be well imagined. It was not until the second of February that the party was complete. In the evening of that day the people of Cam-mer-ray arrived, among whom were those were to perform the operation. They were painted after the manner of their country, were mostly provided with shields, and all armed with clubs, spears, and throwing sticks. The place selected for this extraordinary exhibition was at the head of Farm Cove, where a space had been for some days prepared by clearing it of grass, stumps, &c.; it was an oval figure, the dimensions of it 27 feet by eighteen, and was named Yoo-lahng.*

" Being thus entered on "the valued file," they quickly assume the consequence due to the distinction, and as soon as possible bring their faculties into action. The procuring of food really seems to be but a secondary business with them; the management of the spear and the shield, dexterity in throwing the various clubs that they have in use among them, agility in either attacking or defending, and a display of

* For the description of this ceremony which is illustrated with plates the original work may be consulted.

the constancy with which they endure pain, appearing to rank first among their concerns in life. The females too are accustomed to bear on their heads the traces of the superiority of the males, with which they dignify them almost as soon as they find strength in the arm to imprint the mark. Some of these unfortunate beings have been seen with more scars upon their shorn heads, cut in every direction, than could be well distinguished or counted. The condition of these women is so wretched, that it is scarcely possible for a thinking mind to forbear, on seeing a female infant, from anticipating its future miseries, and feeling regret that the Almighty disposer had permitted it to enter a world where its only portion was to be suffering.

“ Notwithstanding that they are the mere slaves of the men, however, it has generally been found, in tracing the causes of their quarrels, that the women were at the head of them, though in some cases remotely. They mingled in all the contests of the men; and one of these, in the beginning attended with some ceremony, was opened by a woman. As they had chosen a clear spot near the town for the scene of action, they were numerously attended from that place. The contending parties consisted mostly of those natives well known at Sydney, and some from the south shore of Botany Bay, among whom was Gome-boak, already mentioned. The visitants repaired to the spot an hour before sun-set, and found them seated opposite each other on a level piece of ground between two hills. As a prelude to the business the Sydney natives, after having waited some time, stood up, and each man stooping down took water in the hollow of his hand, (the place just before them being wet,) which he drank. An elderly woman with a cloak on her shoulders (made of opossum skins very neatly sewn together) and provided with a club, then advanced from the opposite side, and uttering much abusive language at the time, ran up to Cole-be, who was on the right, and gave him a severe blow on the head, which with seeming contempt he held out to her for the purpose. She went through the same ceremony with the rest, who made no resistance, until she came up to Ye-ra-ni-be, a very fine boy, who stood on the left. He, not admiring the blows that his companions received, which were fol-

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lowed by blood, struggled with her; and had he not been very active, she would have stabbed him with his own spear, which she wrested from him. The men now advanced, and gave the lookers-on many opportunities of witnessing the strength and dexterity with which they throw their spears, and the quickness of fight which was requisite to guard against them. The contest lasted until dark, when throwing the spear could no longer be accounted fair, and they beat each other with clubs, until they left off by mutual consent. In this part of the contest many severe wounds were given, and much blood was drawn from the heads of each party; but nothing material happened while they had light enough to guard against the spear.

“ In the exercise of this weapon they are very expert, and have been seen to strike with certainty at the distance of seventy measured yards. They are thrown with great force, and where they are barbed are very formidable instruments.

“ The throwing-stick is about three feet long, with a hook at one end, and a shell at the other secured by gum; and this stick remains in the hand after discharging the spear. There are two kinds of them; one is armed with the shell of a clam, which they use for the same purposes as we do a knife; the other has a hook, but no shell, and is rounded at the end: with this they dig the fern-root and yam out of the earth. They have a variety of spears: some are only pointed, others have one or more barbs, and some are armed with pieces of broken oyster-shell. Of shields they have two sorts: one cut from the bark of the gum tree, which is not capable of resisting the spear like the other, which is made of solid wood, and hardened by fire; but it is not so much used, on account of its great weight. Of clubs they have several sorts: one of which is of very large dimensions. They have yet another instrument, which they call Ta-war-rang. It is about three feet long, is narrow, but has three sides, in one of which is the handle hollowed by fire. The other sides are rudely carved with curved and waved lines, and it is made use of in dancing, being struck upon for this purpose with a club. These, with a stone hatchet, make the whole of their weapons; in which, it was observed, each of the principal tribes had

had something peculiar, by which it was known to what part of the country they belonged. The same peculiarity extended to their fishing lines, nets, and even to their dances, songs, and dialect.

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“ The shedding of blood, among these savages, is always followed by punishment ; the party offending being compelled to expose his person to the spears of all who chose to throw at him ; for in such punishments the ties of consanguinity or friendship are of no avail. On the death of a person, whether male or female, old or young, the friends of the deceased must be punished, as if the death were occasioned by their neglect. This is sometimes carried farther than can be reconcileable with humanity, as the following instance will confirm :

“ A native had been murdered. His widow being obliged to avenge his death on some of the relations of the murderer, and meeting with a little girl, who was someway related to him, took her to a retired place, where, with a club and a pointed stone, she beat her so cruelly that she was taken to the town almost dead. In the head were six or seven deep incisions, and one ear was divided to the bone, which from the nature of the instrument with which she was beaten, had been greatly injured. The poor child died in a few days. The natives to whom this circumstance was mentioned expressed no concern at it ; but seemed to think it quite right, necessary, and inevitable. It was understood that whenever women have occasion for this sanguinary revenge, they never exercise it but on their own sex, not daring to strike a male. The little victim of this revenge had, from her quiet tractable manners, been much beloved in the town ; and, which is a singular trait in the inhumanity of this proceeding, had, from the death of the man, requested that his widow might be fed at the officer’s hut, where she herself resided. Savage indeed must be the custom and the feelings which could arm the hand against this unoffending child’s life. Her death was not avenged, perhaps because they considered it as an expiatory sacrifice.

“ Wat-te-wall, the man who committed the crime for which this little girl suffered so cruelly, escaped unhurt from the spears of Ben-nil-long, Cole-be, and several other natives ; and was afterwards received by them as usual, and actually lived with the murdered man’s widow till he was killed in the night by Cole-be, as has been before related.

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“ It now remains to shew what followed where the person died a natural death.

“ Bone-da, a very fine youth, died of a cold, which settling in his face, terminated in a mortification. It was understood that some blood must be shed on the occasion; and some weeks after a large party of natives belonging to different tribes, being assembled at Pan-ner-rong, (which in the language of the country signifies blood,) the spot which they had often chosen for their battles, and dancing and feasting over night, early in the morning, Mo-roo-ber-ra the brother, and Cole-be, another relation of the dead youth, seized upon a lad named Tar-ra-bil-long, and with a club each gave him a wound in his head which laid his skull bare. The sister of Bone-da had her share in the bloody rite, pushing at the guiltless boy with a short spear, and leaving him in such a state, that the surgeons of the settlement pronounced, from the nature of his wounds, that his recovery was rather doubtful. On being spoke to about the business, he said he did not weep or cry out like a boy, but, like a man, cried Ki-yah when they struck him; that the persons who treated him in this unfriendly manner were no longer his enemies, but would eat, or drink, or sit with him as friends. A few days after a relation of Bone-da (an old man) received a severe wound on the back of his head, given him on account of the boy's decease; neither youth nor age, kindred nor friendship, appearing to afford any exemption from those sanguinary customs.

“ When Ben-nil-long's wife died, many spears were thrown, and several men wounded. Ben-nil-long himself had a severe contest with Wil-le-mer-ring, whom he wounded in the thigh. He had sent for him as a car-rah-dy to attend her when she was ill; but he either could not or would not attend the summons. Ben-nil-long had chosen the time for celebrating these funeral games in honour of his deceased wife, when a whale-feast had assembled a large number of natives together, among whom were several people from the northward, who spoke a dialect very different from that with which they were acquainted at Port Jackson.

“ Some officers, happening once to be present in the lower part of the harbour when a child died, perceived the men immediately retire

and throw their spears at one another with much apparent anger, while the females began their usual lamentations.

“ When Ben-nil-long’s infant child died, several spears were thrown, and Ben-nil-long, at the decease of her mother, said repeatedly that he should not be satisfied until he had sacrificed some one to her manes.

“ A native having wounded a young woman, the wife of another man, and she having some time after exchanged a perilous and troublesome life for the repose and quiet of the grave, a contest ensued on account of her decease; when the offender was severely wounded, and afterwards led to the hospital by the very man from whom he received his wound.

“ A combat, occasioned by a Botany Bay native possessing himself of the wife of a Port Jackson savage, took place, which was attended with more ceremony than usual. The delinquent arrived, accompanied by a large party of his own friends, from the south shore of Botany Bay. Many of his associates in arms were entire strangers at Sydney; but the Yoo-lahng was the place of rendezvous.

“ At night they all danced, that is to say, both parties; but not mixed together: one side waiting until the other had concluded. In the manner of dancing, of announcing themselves as ready to begin, and also in their song there was an evident difference.

“ The Sydney natives appeared to have some apprehension of the event not proving favourable to them; for, perceiving an officer present with a gun, one of them strenuously urged him, if any thing should happen to him, to shoot the Botany Bay black fellows. Some other guns making their appearance, the strangers were alarmed and uneasy, until assured that they were intended merely for the security of those who carried them.

“ The time of this business was just after ten in the forenoon: Carn-ey and Cole-be were seated at one end of the Yoo-lahng, each armed with a spear and throwing stick, and provided with a shield. Here they sat until one of their opponents got up; they then also rose, and put themselves *en garde*. Some of the spears which were thrown at them they picked up and threw back; and others they returned with extraordinary violence. The affair was over before two o’clock, and less

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mischief than usual had been done. It was understood, however, that another meeting would take place on the same occasion.

“ In this, as in all contests among them, the point of honour was rigidly observed. But spears were not the only instruments of warfare on these occasions. They had also to combat with words, in which the women sometimes bore a part. During this latter engagement, when any very offensive word met their ears, they would suddenly place themselves in the attitude of throwing the spear, and at times let it drop on the ground without discharging : at others, they threw it with all their strength ; but always scrupulously observing the situation of the person opposed, and never throwing at him until he covered himself with his shield. The most unaccountable trait in this business was, the party thrown at providing his enemy with weapons ; for they repeatedly, when a spear flew harmless beyond them, picked it up and flung it carelessly back to their adversary. Whether this was done in contempt, or from a scarcity of spears, is uncertain.

“ This rigid attention to the point of honour, when fairly opposed to each other, is difficult to reconcile with their treacherous and midnight murders.

“ They have great difficulty in procuring fire, and are therefore seldom without it. The process of procuring it is attended with infinite labour, and is performed by fixing the pointed end of a cylindrical piece of wood into a hollow made in a plane ; the operator twirling the round piece swiftly between both his hands, sliding them up and down until fatigued, at which time he is relieved by another of his companions, who are all seated for this purpose in a circle, and each one takes his turn until fire is procured.

“ Most of their instruments are ornamented with rude carved-work, effected with a piece of broken shell ; and on the rocks are frequently to be seen various figures of fish, clubs, swords, animals, and branches of trees, not contemptibly represented.

Superstition.

“ Like all other children of ignorance, these people are the slaves of superstition.

“ The car-rah-days may be termed the high-priests of superstition. The share which they had in the tooth-drawing scene was not the only instance

instance that induced this belief. After Cole-be was wounded, he accompanied Governor Phillip to the banks of the Hawkesbury, and met with a car-rah-dy, who, with much gesticulation and mummery, pretended to extract the barbs of two spears from his side, which never had been left there, or, if they had, required rather the aid of the knife than his incantations to extract them; but his patient was satisfied and thought himself perfectly cured.

" During the time that Boo-roong, a native girl, lived at Sydney, she paid occasional visits to the lower part of the harbour. From one of these she returned extremely ill. On being questioned as to the cause, for none was apparent, she said that the women of Cam-met-ray had made water in a path which they knew she was to pass, and it had made her ill. These women were inimical to her, as she belonged to the Botany Bay district. On her intimating to them that she found herself ill, they told her triumphantly what they had done. Not recovering, though bled by a surgeon, she underwent an extraordinary and superstitious operation, where the operator suffers more than the patient. She was seated on the ground, with one of the lines worn by the men passed round her head, one taking care to fix the knot in the centre of her forehead; the remainder of the line was taken by another girl, who sat at a small distance from her, and with the end of it fretted her lips until they bled very copiously; Boo-roong imagining all the time that the blood came from her head and passed along the line until it ran into the girl's mouth. This operation they term be-anny, and it is the peculiar province of the women.

" Another curious instance of their superstition occurred among some of our people belonging to a boat that was lying wind-bound in the lower part of the harbour. They had procured some shell-fish, and during the night were preparing to roast them, when they were observed by one of the natives, who shook his head, and exclaimed, that the wind for which they were waiting would not rise if they roasted the fish. His argument not preventing the sailors from enjoying their treat, and the wind actually proving foul, they, in their turn, gave an instance of their superstition by abusing the native, and attributing to him the foul wind which detained them. On questioning the savage

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respecting this circumstance, it appeared that they never broiled fish by night. These people tell a story of a rock falling on and crushing some natives who were whistling under it; for which reason they make it an invariable rule never to whistle when beneath a rock.

“ Among their other superstitions was one which might be naturally expected from their ignorance, a belief in spirits.

“ Of this belief there were several accounts obtained. Ben-nil-long, during his first acquaintance at the settlement, described an apparition as advancing to a person with an uncommon noise, and seizing hold of him by the throat. It came, he said, slowly along with his body bent, and the hands held together in a line with the face, moving on till it seized the party to whom its visit was intended. A general idea prevails among them, that by sleeping at the grave of a deceased person, they would, from what happened to them there, be freed from all future apprehensions respecting apparitions; for during that awful sleep the spirit of the deceased would visit them, seize them by the throat, and opening them, take out their bowels, which they would replace and close up the wound. They acknowledged that very few chose to encounter the darkness of the night, the solemnity of the grave, and the visitation of the spirit; but that such as were so hardy became immediately car-rah-dys, and that all those who exercised that profession had gone through this ceremony.

“ To the shooting of a star they attach a great degree of importance. Of thunder and lightning they are also much afraid; but believe that by chaunting some particular words, and breathing hard, they can dispel it.

Diseases.

“ Those natives who live on the sea-coast, from chiefly feeding on fish, are subject to a disorder greatly resembling the itch; they term it Djee-ball-djee-ball. It is sometimes very virulent, and renders those afflicted with it extremely loathsome.

“ In the year 1789 they were visited by a disorder which raged among them with all the appearance of the small-pox. The number that it swept off, by their own accounts, was incredible. A native who at that time resided at Sydney, on going down to the harbour to look for his former companions, was described by those who witnessed his emo-

sions as suffering the extreme of agony. He looked anxiously into the different coves that they visited; not a vestige on the sand was to be found of human foot; the excavations in the rocks were filled with putrid bodies of those who had fallen victims to the disorder: not a living person was any where to be met with. It seemed as if, flying from the contagion, they had left the dead to bury the dead. He lifted up his hands and eyes in silent agony for some time; at length he exclaimed, "All dead! all dead!" and then hung his head in mournful silence, which he preserved during the remainder of their excursion. Some days after, he learned that the few of his companions who survived had fled up the harbour to avoid the pestilence that so dreadfully raged. This poor fellow's fate has been already mentioned. He felt a victim to his own humanity, when several of his countrymen were taken to the town covered with eruptions of the disorder, which had not confined its effects to Port Jackson; for on visiting Broken Bay the path was in many places covered with skeletons, and the same spectacles were to be met with in the hollows of most of the rocks of that harbour.

"Notwithstanding the town of Sydney was at this time filled with children, many of whom visited the natives that were ill of the disorder, not one of them caught it, though a North American Indian belonging to Captain Ball's vessel died of it.

"To this disorder they gave the name of Gal-gal-la: and that it was the small-pox there was scarcely a doubt; for the person seized with it was affected exactly as Europeans are who have that disorder; and on many that had recovered from it were seen the traces, in some the ravages on the face.

"Whenever they feel a pain, they fasten a tight ligature round the part, thereby stopping the circulation, and easing the part immediately affected. It has before been mentioned, that they rapidly recover from their wounds: even a fractured skull confines them but a short time. That their skulls should be frequently fractured can be no matter of wonder, when it is recollected that the club seems to be applied alone to the head. The women who are struck with this weapon always fall to the ground; but this seldom happens to the men.

"Their

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Property.

“ Their spears and shields, their clubs and lines, &c. are their own property ; they are manufactured by themselves, and are the whole of their personal estate. But, strange as it may appear, they have also their real estates. Ben-nil-long gave repeated assurances, that the island Me-mel (known at the settlement by the name of Goat Island), close by Sydney Cove, was his own property ; that it had been his father's, and that he should give it to By-gone, his particular friend and companion. To this little spot he appeared much attached. He likewise spoke of other persons who possessed this kind of hereditary property, which they retained undisturbed.

Dispositions.

“ They are revengeful, jealous, courageous, and cunning. Their stealing on each other in the night for the purpose of murder must not be imputed to them as a want of bravery ; but as the effect of the diabolical spirit of revenge which is thus sought, to make surer of his object than it could have done if only opposed man to man in the field. Their conduct when thus opposed, the constancy with which they endured pain, and the alacrity with which they accepted a summons to the fight, are surely proofs of their not wanting courage. They disclaim all idea of any superiority that is not personal ; for when Ben-nil-long had a shield, made of tin and covered with leather, presented to him by Governor Phillip, he took it down with him to the harbour, whence he returned without it, saying that he had lost it ; but, in fact, it had been taken from him and destroyed by his countrymen, it being deemed unfair to cover himself with such a guard.

“ They might have been honest before the white people came among them, not having much to covet from one another ; but from their new friends they stole every thing that they could. While they only pilfered what could gratify their appetites it was not to be wondered at ; but they would take articles of which they could not possibly know the use. Early in the settlement one of them stole a case of instruments from the pocket of one of the medical gentlemen ; and could he have been watched to his retreat, there is not a doubt but he would have been seen to lay his booty upon his head, as an ornament, the place to which at first every thing given to them was usually consigned.

" That they are not strangers to the occasional practice of falsehood, is apparent from the words truth and falsehood being found in their language ; but independent of this, proofs are not wanting of their being adepts in the arts of evasion and lying ; and when doubts have been entertained of some of their tales, they would with much earnestness assert the truth of them ; and when speaking of other natives they have as anxiously wished to prove that they had told nothing but lies.

" Their talent for mimicry is very great. Even the children made it a favourite diversion to mimic the peculiarities of those whom they saw, which they did with the happiest success.

" They are susceptible of friendship, and capable of feeling sorrow ; but this latter sensation they are not in the habit of encouraging long. At the funeral of a native boy, the father's tears were seen to fall plentifully, though silently, down his sable cheek ; but in a little time they were dried, and the old man's face indicated nothing but the lapse of many years which had passed over his head.

" With attention and kind treatment, they certainly might be made a very serviceable people ; they were frequently employed in the boats belonging to the settlement, and were as handy and as useful as any other persons could have been ; some of them were likewise engaged in taking the farmer's stock into the woods, and never failed to bring home the right numbers, though they have not any knowledge of numeration beyond three or four.

" Their acquaintance with astronomy is limited to the names of the sun and moon, some few stars, the Magellanic clouds, and the milky way. Of the circular form of the earth they have not the smallest idea ; but imagine that the sun returns over their heads during the night to the quarter whence he begins his course in the morning.

" As they never make provision for the morrow, except at a whale-feast, they always eat as long as they have any thing left, and, when satisfied, stretch themselves out in the sun to sleep, where they remain until hunger or some other cause calls them again into action. The men frequently indulge a great degree of indolence at the expence of the women, who are compelled to sit in their canoe, exposed to the fervour of the mid-day sun, hour after hour, chaunting their little song,

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and inviting the fish beneath them to take their bait; for without a sufficient quantity to make a meal for their tyrants, who are lying asleep at their ease, they would meet but a rude reception on their landing.

“ The first peculiarity noticeable in their funeral ceremonies is, the disposal of their dead: their young people they consign to the grave; those who have passed the middle age are burnt. Ben-nil-long burnt the body of his first wife Ba-rang-a-roo, who was, at the time of her decease, turned of fifty. The interment of Ba-loo-der-ry, the boy before mentioned, was accompanied with many ceremonies. From being one day in perfect health, he was the next taken to the hospital extremely ill, and attended by Ben-nil-long, who was found singing over him, and making use of those means which ignorance and superstition pointed out to him to recover his health. The patient lay extended on the ground, appearing to be in much pain. Ben-nil-long applied his mouth to those parts of the boy's body which he thought were affected, breathing strongly on them, and singing: at times he waved over him some boughs dipped in water, holding one in each hand, and appearing much interested for him. On the following morning he was visited by a carah-dy, who had come express from the North Shore. This man threw himself into various distortions, applied his mouth to different parts of his patient's body, and at length, after appearing to labour much, and to be in great pain, spit out a piece of bone (which he had previously procured). Here the farce ended, and the car-roh-dy withdrew to partake of such fare as the friends of the sick lad had to give him. During the night Ba-loo-der-ry's fever increased, and he died early in the following morning. This was immediately notified by a violent clamour among the women and children; and, Ben-nil-long soon after going to Government house, it was agreed between him and his Excellency that the body should be buried in his garden.

“ In the afternoon it was deposited in a hut near the spot, set apart for its reception; several natives attending, and the women and children lamenting and howling most inharmoniously; when, without any provocation, two of the men had a contest with clubs; at the same time a few blows passed between some of the women: spears were also thrown, but evidently as a part of the ceremony, and not with intention

tion of doing injury to any one. At the request of Ben-nil-long, a blanket was laid over the corpse, and Cole-be, his friend, sat by the body all night, nor could be prevailed on to quit it.

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“ They remained silent till one in the morning, when the women began to cry, and continued for some time. At day-light Ben-nil-long brought his canoe to the place, and cutting it to a proper length, the body was placed in it, with a spear, a sizz-gig, a throwing-stick, and a line which Ba-loo-der-ry had worn round his waist. Some time was occupied in adjusting this business, during which the men were silent; but the women, boys, and children, uttered the most dismal lamentations. The father stood alone, and unemployed, a silent observer of all that was doing about his deceased son, and a perfect picture of deep and unaffected sorrow. Every thing being ready, the men and boys all assisted in lifting the canoe with the body from the ground, and placing it on the heads of two natives; some of the assistants had tufts of grass in their hands, which they waved backwards and forwards under the canoe, while it was lifting from the ground, as if they were exorcising some evil spirit. As soon as it was fixed on the heads of the bearers, they set off, preceded by Ben-nil-long and another man, both walking with a quick step. Mau-go-ran, the father, attended them, armed with his spear and throwing-stick, while Ben-nil-long or his companion had only tufts of grass, which, as they went, they waved about, sometimes turning and facing the corpse, at others waving the tufts of grass among the bushes. When they fronted the corpse, the head of which was carried foremost, the bearers made a motion with their heads from side to side, as if endeavouring to avoid the people who fronted them. After proceeding thus to some little distance, Ben-nil-long's companion turned aside from the path, and went up to a bush, into which he seemed to look very narrowly, as if searching for something that he could not find, and waving about the tufts of grass which he had in either hand. After this fruitless search, they all turned back, and went on in a somewhat quicker pace than before. On their drawing near the spot were the women and children were sitting with the other men, the father threw two spears towards, but (evidently intentionally) short of them. Here Ben-nil-long took his infant child in his arms and held it up to

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the corpse, the bearers endeavouring to avoid it, as before described. Bè-did Bè-did, the brother of the deceased, a boy of five years of age, was then called for, but came forward very reluctantly, and was presented in the same manner as the other child. After this they proceeded to the grave, which had been prepared in the Governor's garden. Twice they changed the bearer who walked the foremost; but his friend Collins carried him the whole of the way. Yel-lo-way levelled the earth, and then strewed some grass in it; after which he stretched himself at his length in the grave, first on his back and then on his right side. Some drums had attended at the request of Ben-nil-long, and two or three marches were beat while the grave was preparing; he highly approving, and pointing at the time, first to the deceased, and then to the skies, as if there was some connection between them at that moment. On laying the body in the grave, great care was taken so to place it, that the sun might look at it as it passed, the natives cutting down for that purpose every shrub that could at all obstruct the view. He was placed on his right side, with his head to the N. W. When the grave was covered in, several branches of shrubs were placed in a half circle on the south-side of the grave, extending them from the foot to the head of it. Grass and bows were likewise laid on the top of it, and crowned with a large log of wood. This log appeared to be placed there for some particular purpose; for, after strewing it with grass, the placer laid himself on it at his length for some minutes, with his face towards the sky. Every rite having been performed, the party retired, some of the men first speaking in a menacing tone to the women. Cole-be and Wat-te-wal, who seemed the most particular persons at this ceremony, were painted red and white over the breast and shoulders, and distinguished by the title of Moo-by; and it was understood, that while they were so distinguished they were to be very sparing in their meals.

“ The spectators were enjoined on no account to mention the name of the deceased; a custom which they rigidly attended to themselves whenever any one died.

“ Such were the ceremonies attendant on the interment of Ba-loo-der-ry. When Ba-rang-a-roo Da-ring-ha, Ben-nil-long's wife, died, he

determined at once to burn her, and requested the governor, the judge New Hol-
 advocate, and the surgeon, to attend him. He was accompanied by his LAND.
 relations and a few others, mostly females.

“ Collins, the native, prepared the spot whereon the pile was to be constructed, by excavating the ground with a stick, to the depth of three or four inches; and on the part so turned up were first placed small sticks and light brush-wood; larger pieces were then laid on each side of these; and so on till the pile might be about three feet in height, the ends and sides of which were thus formed of dry wood, while the middle of it consisted of small twigs and branches broken for the purpose and thrown together. When wood enough had been procured, some grass was spread over the pile, and the corpse covered with an old blanket, was borne to it, and placed with the head towards the north. A basket, with the fishing apparatus and other small furniture of the deceased, was placed by her side; and Ben-nil-long having laid some large logs of wood over the body, the pile was lighted by one of the party. Being constructed of dry wood, it was quickly all in a flame, and Ben-nil-long himself pointed out to his Sydney friends a black smoke which proceeded from the centre of the pile where the body lay, and signified that the fire had reached it. The spot was abandoned long before the last billet was consumed, and Ben-nil-long appeared during the day more cheerful than had been expected, and spoke about finding a nurse from among the white women to suckle his child.

“ The following day he invited the same party to see him rake the ashes of his wife together, and they attended him to the spot unaccompanied by any of his own people. He preceded his companions in a sort of solemn silence, speaking to no one until he had paid Ba-rang-a-roo the last duties of a husband. In his hand he had the spear with which he meant to punish the car-rah-dy for non-attendance on his wife when she was ill, with the end of which he raked the calcined bones and ashes together in a heap. Then, laying the spear upon the ground, he formed with a piece of bark a tumulus that would have done credit to a well practised grave-digger, carefully laying the earth round, smoothing every little unevenness, and paying a scrupulous attention to the exact proportion of its form. On each side the tumulus he placed a log

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of wood, and on the top of it deposited the piece of bark with which he had so carefully effected the construction. When all was done, he asked his friends "if it was good," and appeared pleased when assured that it was so.

"His deportment on the occasion was solemn and manly, and expressive silence marked his conduct throughout the scene. The gentlemen attended him as silently, and with close observation. He did not suffer any thing to divert him from the business that he had in hand, nor did he seem to be in the least desirous to have it quickly dispatched; but paid this last rite with an attention that did honour to his feelings as a man, as it seemed the result of an heart felt affection for the object of it, of whose person nothing now remained but a piece or two of calcined bone. When his melancholy work was ended, he stood for a few moments with his hands folded over his bosom, and his eye fixed upon his labours in the attitude of a man in profound thought. Perhaps in that short interval of time many ideas presented themselves to his imagination. His hands had just completed the last service that he could render to a woman, who, no doubt, had been useful to him; one to whom he was certainly attached, and one who had left him a living pledge of some moments at least of endearment. Perhaps under the heap which his hands had raised, and on which his eyes were fixed, his imagination traced the form of her whom he might have fought for, and whom he was now never to behold again. Perhaps, when turning from the grave of his deceased companion, he directed all his thoughts to the preservation of the little one that she had left him; and when he quitted the spot, his anxiety might be directed to the child, with the idea that he might one day see his Ba-rang-a-roo revive in his little motherless Dil-boong.

"In conformity to their custom of not pronouncing the name of the deceased, two females called Ba-rang-a-roo lost that, and took other names. One of these (Cole-be's wife) survived her but a short time, dying of a consumption brought on by suckling a little girl who was at her breast when she died. This circumstance led to the knowledge of a curious but horrid custom which obtains among these people. The mother died in the town; and when she was taken to the grave, her

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corpse

corpse was carried to the door of every hut and house that she had been accustomed to enter during the latter days of her illness, the bearers presenting her with the same ceremonies as were used at the funeral of Ba-loo-der-ry, when the little girl Dil-boong and the boy Bè-dia Bè-dia were placed before his corpse.

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“ When the body was laid in the grave, the by-standers were amazed to see the father himself place the living child in it with the mother. Having laid the child down, he threw upon it a large stone, and the grave was instantly filled up by the other natives. The whole business was so momentary, that the visitors had not time or presence of mind to prevent it; and on speaking of it to Cole-be, he, so far from thinking it inhuman, justified the extraordinary act, by saying, that as no woman could be found to nurse the child, it must have died a worse death than that to which he had put it. From similar circumstances afterwards occurring, there is every reason to suppose that the custom always prevails among them; and this may in some degree account for the thinness of population which has been observed among the natives of the country.

“ In giving an account of an unwritten language many difficulties occur. For things cognizable by the external senses, names may be easily procured; but not so for those which depend on action, or address themselves only to the mind; for instance, a spear was an object both visible and tangible, and a name for it was easily obtained; but the use of it went through a number of variations and inflexions, which it was extremely difficult to ascertain; indeed the infinitive mood of any one of their verbs could not be fixed with any degree of certainty.

Language.

“ Their language is extremely grateful to the ear, being in many instances expressive and sonorous. It certainly has no analogy with any other known language, one or two instances excepted. The dialect spoken by the natives at Sydney not only differs entirely from that left by Captain Cook of the people with whom he had intercourse to the northward (about Endeavour river), but also from that spoken by those natives who lived at Port Stephens, and to the southward of Botany Bay (about Adventure Bay), as well as on the banks of the Hawkesbury. People from the northward had been met with, who could not

be

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be exactly understood by the Sydney natives; but this is not so wonderful, as that people living at the distance of only fifty or sixty miles should call the sun and moon by different names: such however was the fact.

"A sensible difference was often remarked on hearing the same word sounded by two people; and, in fact, they have been observed sometimes to differ from themselves, substituting the letter *b* for *p*, and *g* for *c*, and *vice versa*. In their alphabet they have neither *s* nor *v*; and some of their letters would require a new character to ascertain them precisely. The following are *The Words of a Song*:

"Māng-en-ny-waw-yen-go-nah, bar-ri-boo-lah, bar-re-mah.

This they begin at the top of their voices, and continue as long as they can in one breath, singing to the lowest note, and then rising again to the highest. The words are the names of deceased persons. E-i-ah wan-ge-wah, chian-go, wan-de-go: the words of another song, sung in the same manner as the preceding, and of the same meaning."*

If

* "The whole of the south west coast of New Holland has been explored by D'Entrecasteaux, who has made correct charts of it, which are actually engraved and will appear with the voyage of this navigator, the publication of which is expected by the learned world. Easterly winds and his water being almost exhausted obliged d'Entrecasteaux to gain the sea in 150° east longitude from Paris, so that his interesting work on this country extends no further; nevertheless it is 10° or 600 miles beyond the part visited by Vancouver. But the translator of this work has strong reasons for believing that English vessels from Port Jackson, have recently explored the south east part, and projected a chart of it, so that if what is already known be published, there will remain little to complete the delineation of the whole coast of this large and new portion of the globe. It is not said whether they have penetrated to the extremity of the great bay, which certainly exists in the south east: which is yet necessary to determine if New Holland be divided into several islands.

"D'Entrecasteaux never anchored but once on the dangerous south-west coast which he has explored. Legrand Bay, where he stopped is in 33° 55' lat. and 119° 32' east longitude from Paris. According to Labillardiere, it is a large basin in which more than twenty islets, rocks, and shoals, scattered in a space of about 60 square miles, serve for shelter. Some of these islets are composed of a beautiful granite, in which quartz, felspar and mica predominate; this last is found in thin plates of a blackish colour; some needles were also observed of black schorl. On the most elevated summits of other islets is calcareous stone disposed in beds almost horizontal, of a very fine grain, exhibiting but seldom some small cavities, and without any vestige of shells. The coast of the continent is sandy, and presents a calcareous sand often in heaps; fresh water is found at some distance from the shore. After four hours tolerable quick walking a large lake is found, the shores of which towards the sea with which it communicates are marshy. The plants observed by Labillardiere, in this savage country, so seldom visited by Europeans, are many new species of a new genus of the class

If this account should seem rather too extensive, let it be considered that it describes a new continent, a real Terra Australis, now little known, but which in the year 1900, or 2000, may be found to present such great and singular topics, that a learned and precise pen may dedicate a large volume of geography to this one portion of the globe.

II. PAPUA, OR NEW GUINEA.

This country is one of the most interesting in Australasia, as partaking of the opulence of the Moluccas, and their singular varieties of plants and animals. The land of Papua is said to have been first discovered by Saavedra, a Spanish Captain, in 1528, who had sailed from Mexico by the command of Cortez, to explore the Spice Islands from that quarter." It is asserted that Saavedra imposed the name of New Guinea, as believing that this region was under the same meridian with the African Guinea; but as it is scarcely possible that a mariner should be so much deceived, it is more likely that this appellation, which

class of thymalæa, to which Forster has given the name of *bankia*, a species which our naturalist who has given a particular description of them, has called *bankia nireva* and *repens*; some new species of *rumex*, *lobelia* and *bulwerium*; the *eucalyptus cornuta*, new species (t. i. p. 402. pl. 17); a genus and new species of papilionaceous plants *chorizema ilicifolia* (t. i. p. 404. pl. 21); another plant, which approaches to the class of iris, designated by the name of *anigozanthos rufa* (t. i. p. 411. pl. 22) on the sandy shores of the sea; the gramineous plant, well known by the name of *Spinifex squarrosus*; lastly a beautiful species of *leptospermum*, remarkable for its silvery leaves. Among the animals the little *phoca* of Buffon; but the head is less than the neck; and its ears are conical and not open, as represented by this naturalist. The *göland bourgmestre* of Buffon, *larus fuscus*; the penguin called *apterodyta minor*, also met with at New Zealand by Cook; *muscipapa*; the *psittacus moluccensis*; swans; caowaries; such are the birds observed by our voyagers. Riche, who was cast away, saw also kangaroos of the large kind. In December, which is a summer month in these countries it was sufficiently cold to light a fire; and rainy. Several savages were perceived, but they fled; they were quite naked. All this south east coast of New Holland is in general represented as very barren and dangerous: but by leaving Cape Van Diemen, and not sailing from west to east, as Vancouver and d'Entrecasteaux did, seamen would not be opposed as they were by the winds which constantly blow from the east; and favoured on the contrary by these winds, it will be easy to sail along the coast without danger." Walckenaer's Notes on this Geography, French Ed. Tom. v. p. 334.

" De Brosses, i. 159.

some

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some say was only given by Le Maire near a century after, was merely considered as synonymous with another, that of the "Isles of Gold." Other Spanish navigators enlarged this discovery; and the strait between this country and New Holland was explored by Cook, while the learned President De Brosses, and even Bougainville the French circumnavigator, had doubted whether such a passage existed.¹¹ This extensive island is still far from being completely investigated. On the north what was formerly conceived to be a strait is delineated with the soundings in Mr. Arrowsmith's chart of the Pacific, under the name of Maclure's inlet: and an opposite large bay on the E. was also conceived to insulate another portion. In the S. E. Dampier's strait divides Papua from New Britain; but it is not improbable that in this direction the Louisiad of Bougainville may be discovered to be joined, at least in part, with Papua, while other parts may consist of detached isles. It is thought that the unfortunate La Perouse was completing this discovery when fate terminated his labours. Amidst this uncertainty Papua is conceived to be a vast island, extending from the Cape, absurdly styled of Good Hope, in the mariner's very confined vocabulary, but more properly White Point, in the N. W., probably to Cape Rodney in the S. E., a length of more than 1200 miles, by a medial breadth of perhaps 300, and thus far superior in size to Borneo, formerly reputed the largest of islands.

Original
Population.

On this extensive territory, in a situation so highly favoured by nature, and probably enriched with the choicest productions, there is no European settlement. The inhabitants of the northern part are called Papous, whence the name of the country. The traditions bear that they are brethren of the Moluccans, and the language seems to have no affinity with that of New South Wales, but is probably connected with that of Borneo, &c. on the west, and that of New Britain and the isles on the other side, being part of the wide Malay diffusion.¹²

¹¹ Introduction to Cook's last voyage (by Bishop Douglas, p. xvi.). The reader who wishes for more particular details concerning the progress of discoveries in the Pacific may be referred to the work of De Brosses, often quoted; and to Mr. Dalrymple's Collection of Voyages in the Pacific, 1770, 4to. The learned French publication was translated by John Callander, Edin. 1766, 3 vols. 8vo, who seems disposed to pass it as an original under the title of *Terra Australis Cognita*.

¹² See Vocabularies in De Brosses, i. 410.

The inhabitants are black, and even said to have the woolly hair of PAPUA. negroes; but this last circumstance will probably be discovered, as in New Holland, to proceed from art, and in some parts it would seem that the inhabitants have the true Malay complexion and features. In the interior is a race called Haraforas,* who live in trees, which they ascend by a notched pole, drawing it after them, to prevent surprise. The appearance of the Papuans and their habitations is grotesque, the latter being built on stages in the water; in which however they resemble the Borneans and other nations in the Asiatic Isles. The women seem the most industrious in making mats, and pots of clay, which they afterwards burn with dry grass, or brush wood; nay they will even wield the axe, while the men are indolent, or preparing for the chase of wild hogs."

"The aspect of these people is frightful and hideous; the men are stout in body, their skin of a shining black, rough, and often disfigured with marks like those occasioned by the leprosy; their eyes are very large, their noses flat, mouth from ear to ear, their lips amazingly thick, especially the upper lip; their hair woolly, either a shining black or fiery red: M. Sonnerat imagines the last to be owing to some powder. It is dressed in a vast bush, so as to resemble a mop; some are three feet in circumference, the least two and a half; in this they stick their comb, consisting of four or five diverging teeth, with which they occasionally dress their frizzled locks to give them a greater bulk; they sometimes ornament them with feathers of the birds of Paradise; others add to their deformity by boring their noses, and passing through them rings, pieces of bone, or sticks; and many, by way of ornament, hang round their necks the tusks of boars. The heads of the women are of less size than those of the men, and in their left ear they wear small brass rings. The men go naked, excepting a small wrapper round their waists, made of the fibres of the cocoa. The women use a covering, in general of the coarse Surat *bastas*, tucked up behind, so as to leave

* Forrest, p. 109, says that some of them have long hair, but they are mostly mere Papuans of a lower class.

"Forrest's Voyage to New Guinea. Pennant's Outlines, iv. 203.

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their bodies and thighs exposed to view. The children have no sort of cloathing."¹¹

The religious tenets of the Papuans have been little examined. They make tombs of the rude coral rock, sometimes with sculptures. The chief commerce is with the Chinese, from whom they purchase their instruments and utensils. Their returns are ambergrease, sea slugs, tortoise shell, small pearls, birds of Paradise, lories, and other birds, which the Papuans dry with great skill. Some slaves are also exported, probably captives taken in intestine wars. Some were offered to Captain Forrest at a low rate, but he had before bought an eminent linguist.

Our great navigator Dampier, whose work bespeaks wonderful intelligence for that period, made several discoveries on the coast of Papua, and the adjacent isles. He was particularly struck with the proas, which are picturesque and well-managed. As this country has been little explored, even recent accounts are very imperfect.

The coasts of Papua are generally lofty, and, inland, mountain rises above mountain, richly clothed with woods. The shores abound with cocoa trees, and the whole country seems to have impressed every navigator with delight, and well deserves more cultivated and industrious inhabitants. But by a singular fatality many extensive and beautiful portions of the globe are thinly inhabited by a few savages, while cold and barren provinces are the crowded seats of civilized nations. Could a whole nation be transferred from the north of Europe to Papua, what a change in situation and sentiments, what an accession of private plenty and happiness, and what an increase of public power :

The natural history of this country is little known, but the zoology is striking and romantic. Papua is the chosen residence of the splendid and singular birds of Paradise, of which ten or twelve sorts are enumerated by Mr. Pennant. They seem to be chiefly caught in the adjacent isles of Aroo, being supposed to breed in Papua, and reside there during the wet monsoon ; while during the dry, or western, they retire to Aroo, migrating in flocks of thirty or forty. During their flight

¹¹ Pennant's Outlines, iv. 202. Sonnerat, ii. 122, says that they resemble the people of Guinea on the African coast, which led to the name of New Guinea.

they cry like starlings, but when surpris'd with a strong gale they PAPUA. croak like ravens, and ascend to the superior regions of the air. They alight on the highest trees, seeming to feed on berries, and according to some on nutmegs and butterflies: and are either shot with blunt arrows, or caught with bird-lime, or nooses. The bowels and breast bone being extract'd, they are dried with smoke and sulphur, sold for nails or bits of iron, and exported to Banda. Papua also boasts of elegant parrots and lories; while the crowned, or gigantic pigeon, almost equals a turkey in size.

Here follows Valentyn's account of the birds of paradise. "The Portuguese first found these birds on the Island of Gilolo, the Papua islands, and on New Guinea; and they were known by the name of *passaros da sol*, i. e. birds of the sun. The inhabitants of Ternate call them *manuco dewata*, the bird of God, whence the name of *manuco diata* is derived, used by some naturalists, (Edwards, f. 110.—Margrav. Brasil. 207.—Rai. Syn. Av. 21. n. 7.—Bris. Av. 2. p. 130. seq. and M. de Buffon himself adopts the name of manucode). Fabulous accounts mentioned that this bird had no legs; and was constantly on the wing, in the air, on which it lived: in confirmation of which, the legs of these birds were cut off when offered to sale. But the inhabitants of Aroo, who resort yearly to Banda, undeceived the Dutch, and freed them from those prejudices. Another reason for cutting off the legs is, that the birds are found to be more easily preserved without them; beside, that the Moors wanted the birds without legs, in order to put them, in their mock fights, on their helmets as ornaments. The inhabitants of Aroo, however, have brought the birds with legs these seventy or eighty years; and Pigafetta, shipmate of Ferdinand Magalhacns, proved, about the year 1525, an eye witness that they were not without legs. However, the peculiar length and structure of their scapular feathers hinders them from settling in high winds, on trees; and when they are thrown on the ground by these winds, they cannot, of themselves, get again on the wing. If taken by the natives, they are immediately killed, as their food is not known, and as they defend themselves with amazing courage and formidable bills. There are about six species of birds of paradise, namely:

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- 1 The great bird of Paradise from Aroo.
- 2 The little bird of Paradise from Papua.
- 3, 4 Two different birds of Paradise, which are black.
- 5 The white bird of Paradise.
- 6 The unknown black bird of Paradise.
- 7 And the little King's bird, which may rank among them.

" 1. The largest bird of Paradise is commonly two foot four inches in length. The head is small, the bill hard and long, of a pale colour. The head, and back of the neck, is lemon coloured, about its little eyes black; about the neck the bird is of the brightest glossy emerald green, and soft like velvet; as is the breast, which is black, or wolf-coloured, (gris de loup, wolfs-geel). The wings are large and chefnut. The back part of the body is covered with long, straight, narrow feathers, of a pale brown colour, similar to the plumes of the ostrich. These feathers are spread, when the bird is on the wing; which is the cause that he can keep very long in the air. On both sides of the belly are two tufts of stiff and shorter feathers, of a golden yellow, and shining. From the rump proceed two long stiff shafts, which are feathered on their extremities. Several other birds of these countries have those long feathers, for instance, the Amboyna arrow-tail (Pylstaart), the king fisher, or Sariwak, and one sort of the parroquets from Papua. Its size is not much above that of a blackbird; the legs are low, with four strong toes. The Ternate people call them Burong Papua, or Papua birds; sometimes Manuco Dewata, and likewise Soffu or Sioffu. The Amboyna natives call them Manu-key-aroo, the bird of the islands, Key and Aroo; because the natives of the two last islands bring them for sale to Banda and Amboyna. At Aroo the people call them Fanaan. Properly these birds are not found in Key, which is fifty Dutch miles east of Banda; but they are found at the Aroo islands (lying fifteen Dutch miles farther east than Key) during the westerly or dry monsoon; and they return to New Guinea as soon as the easterly or wet monsoon sets in. They come always in a flock of thirty or forty, and are led by a bird, which the inhabitants of Aroo call the king, distinct from the little King's bird. This leader is black, with red spots, and constantly flies higher than the rest of the flock, which never forsake him, but settle

as soon as he settles: a circumstance which becomes their ruin, when the king lights on the ground; whence they are not able to rise, on account of the singular structure and disposition of their plumage. They are likewise unable to fly with the wind, which would ruin their loose plumage; but take their flight constantly against it, cautious not to venture out in hard blowing weather, a strong gale frequently obliging them to come to the ground. During their flight they cry like starlings; their note, however, approaches more to the croaking of ravens; which is heard very plainly when they are in distress, from a fresh gale blowing in the back of their plumage. In Aras, these birds settle on the highest trees; especially on a species of small leaved Waringa trees, that bear red berries, on which they chiefly live. (*Ficus Benjamina*. Hort. Malab. iii. f. 55. Rump. Amboin. iii. f. 90). The natives catch them with bird-lime, and in nooses, or shoot them with blunt arrows; but, though some are still alive when they fall into their hands, the catchers kill them immediately; and often cut their legs off, draw the entrails, dry and fumigate them with sulphur or smoke only, and sell them at Banda for half a rix-dollar; whereas, at Aroo, one of these birds may be bought for a spike nail, or a piece of old iron. The Dutch ships voyaging between New Guinea and Aroo, (which are at a distance of eighteen or twenty Dutch miles) frequently see flocks of birds of Paradise flying from the one land to the other, against the wind. In case the birds find the wind become too powerful, they fly straight up into the air, till they reach the region where the effects of the wind are not so strongly felt; and then continue their flight. The Moors use these birds as ornamental crests on their helmets, in war, and in their various mock fights. Sometimes they tie a bird, or part of it, to their swords. During the East monsoon, the tails of the birds are moulted; and, for four months of the western monsoon, they have tails, according to the testimony of the people of Aroo.

" 2. The smaller bird of Paradise from Papua, is about twenty inches long. His beak is lead-coloured, and paler at the point. The eyes small, and enclosed in black: about the neck he is green like an emerald. The head and back of the neck are of a dirty yellow, the back of a greyish yellow; the breast and belly of a dusky colour; the wings small,

and

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and chestnut-coloured. The long plumage is about a foot in length, and paler than in the larger species; as in general the colours of this small bird are less bright. The two long feathers of the tail are constantly thrown away by the natives. This is in all other respects like the greater sort: they follow likewise a king or leader; who is, however, blacker, with a purplish cast, and finer in colour than the rest; though this bird is also different from the 3d and 4th black species. The Papuas of Messowal relate, that these birds do not migrate, but make their nests on the highest trees, where they are found by the Alfoories. The neck and bill are longer in the male, than in the female. In Ternate and Tidore, this bird is called Taffu or Beorong Papuwa, the bird of Papua: the Papuas call it Sheg or Shague: Samaleik is the name given it by the people on East Ceram; and in the island Serghile, in New Guinea, its name is Tshakke. Formerly this bird was thought to be found on Gilolo or Halamahera, and the neighbouring islands to the S. and S. E.; but at this day it is known to be found only on the Papua islands. These islands extend from the south end of Gilolo, and the north coast of Ceram, to the west end of New Guinea. The largest of them are, in the island of Messowal, (which lies to the north of Ceram), and Salawath or Salawat, whose situation is nearest to Serghile, (an island or district of New Guinea) which, in the old Portuguese charts, is wrongly called Ceram, and separated from New Guinea. They roost on the highest trees of the mountainous part, where they are killed by blunt arrows by the natives of Messowal. Others say, the natives infect with cocculi indici the water which the birds are to drink: and that, so stupified, they are caught with the hand. The birds love to feed on the fruit of the Tshampedzh tree, which they pierce with their bills, and out of which they extract the kernel. Some say, these birds finding themselves weak through age, soar straight towards the sun, till they are tired, and fall dead to the ground. The natives draw the entrails, scar the birds with a hot iron, and put them in a tube of bamboo for preservation.

“ 4 and 5. The large black bird of Paradise is brought without wings or legs for sale; so that of this species it is difficult to give an exact description. Its figure, when stuffed, is narrow and round, but stretched

in length to the extent of four spans. The plumage on the neck, head, and belly, is black and velvet like, with a hue of purple and gold, which appears very strong. The bill is blackish, and one inch in length. On both sides are two bunches of feathers, which have the appearance of wings, although they be very different; the wings being cut off by the natives. This plumage is soft, broad, similar to peacocks' feathers, with a glorious gloss, and greenish hue, and all bent upwards; which Valentyn thinks is occasioned by the birds being kept in hollow bamboo reeds. The feathers of the tail are of unequal length; those next to the belly are narrow like hair; the two uppermost are much longer, and pointed; those immediately under them are above a span and a half longer than the upper ones: they are stiff, on both sides fringed with a plumage, like hair, black above, but glossy below. Birds of this kind are brought from no other place than that part of New Guinea called Serghile; its inhabitants carrying them to Salawat, in hollow tubes of bamboo, dried upon a long round stick, in the smoke, and felling them for small hatchets or coarse cloth. The Papuas call this species Shagawa, and likewise the birds of paradise of Serghile; in Ternate and Tidore it is known by the name of Soffoo-kokitoo—the black bird of paradise. Serghile is the northernmost part of New Guinea, tapering to a point, immediately behind, or to the eastward of Gilolo, and the Papua islands; so that the point tends northerly.

“ 4. Besides the large black bird of Paradise, there is another sort, whose plumage is equal in length, but thinner in body, black above, and without any remarkable gloss; not having those shining peacock feathers, which are found on the greater species. This wants likewise the three long pointed feathers of the tail, belonging to the larger black species of the bird of Paradise. The Alfoories, or inhabitants of the mountains in Messowal, shoot these birds, and sell them to the people of Tidore.

“ 5. The white bird of Paradise is the most rare, having two species; one quite white, and the other black and white. The first sort is very rare, and in form like the bird of Paradise from Papua.

“ The second has the fore part black, and the back part white; with twelve crooked wiry shafts, which are almost naked, though in some places

PAPUA.

places covered with hairs. This species is very scarce, and only got by means of the people of Tidore, since it is found on the Papua islands; especially on Waygehoo, called also Wadjoo or Wardjoo. Others are of opinion, that it is brought thither from Serghile, on New Guinea.

“ 6. In the year 1689, a new species of the black bird of Paradise was seen in Amboyna, carried hither from Messowal, only one foot in length, with a fine purple hue, a small head and straight bill; as on the other birds of Paradise, on its back, near the wings, are feathers of a purple and blue colour; but under the wings and over all the belly, they are yellow coloured, as in the common sort: on the back of the neck they are mouse coloured, as in the common sort, and mixed with green. It is remarkable in this species, that there are before the wings two roundish tufts of feathers, which are green edged, and may be moved at pleasure by the bird, like wings. Instead of tail, he has twelve or thirteen black naked wire like shafts, hanging promiscuously like feathers. His strong legs have sharp claws: his head is remarkably small; the eyes are likewise small and surrounded by black.

“ 7. The last species is the King's bird; some reckon it among the birds of Paradise; but, according to Valentyn, it is entirely different. The late Linnæus, as well as Count Buffon, reckon the King's bird among the birds of Paradise; as it has, in general, all the characters of the bill, and the plumage common to all the kind, known by the name of the bird of Paradise.

“ This bird is about seven inches long, and somewhat larger than a tit-mouse. Its head and eyes are small, the bill straight, the eyes included in circles of black plumage; the crown of the head is fire coloured, the back of the neck blood coloured, the neck and breast of a chestnut colour, with a dark ring of the brightest emerald green. Its wings are in proportion strong, and the quill feathers dark; with red shining plumes, spots, and stripes. The tail is straight, short, and brown. Two long, naked, black shafts project from the rump, at least, a hand breadth beyond the tail; having at their extremities, semilunar, twisted plumage, of the most glaring green colour above, and dusky below. The belly is white and green sprinkled, and on each side is a tuft of long
plumage

plumage, feathered with a broad margin; being on one side green, and ^{PAPUA.} on the other dusky. The back is blood red and brown, shining like silk. The legs are in size like those of a lark; having three fore toes, and one back toe.

" This bird associates not with any other of the birds of Paradise; but flits solitary from bush to bush, wherever he sees red berries, without ever getting on tall trees.

" At Aroo the bird is called Wowi Wowi; in the Papua islands Sopclo-o; and by the Dutch King's bird. It is chiefly brought from Aroo Sopclo-o; and especially from Wodjir, a well known village there.

" The people of Aroo do not know its nest; but suppose it to come over from New Guinea, where it breeds; and stays at Aroo only during the western or dry monsoon. It is taken in slings of gummatty; or, with bird-lime, prepared from the juice of fukkorn, (bread fruit, *artocarpus communis*. Forst. Nov. Gen.) then cleared and dried; and sold at Banda. It is used also as an ornament by the natives of Aroo, on their helmets, in their mock fights, or games of Tohakall." Thus far Valentyn, as translated by Dr. Forster; who favoured me also with the following remarks:

" M. de Buffon, or rather his friend M. Gueneau de Montbeillard, gives an account of six birds of Paradise in his *Histoire Naturelle des Oiseaux*. tom. iii. edit. in 4to. tom. v. p. 207.—238. tab. xii and xiii; and in the *Planches Enluminées*, n. 254. 496. 631, 632, 633, 634, as does M. Sonnerat, in his *Voyage à la Nouvelle Guinée*. The first, named l'oiseau de paradis, is the same which is called the great bird of Paradise, by Valentyn: Linnæus's *paradisea apoda*. The second is the manucode, which is Valentyn's little King's bird, or Linnæus's *paradisea regia*. The third is the magnifique, or manucode à bouquets; and has some reference to the little bird of Paradise in Valentyn, though I think there is still a greater difference between them. The fourth is the superbe, or manucode noir. The bird represented in the *Planches Enluminées*, is either a young bird, or one moulting, or perhaps a female: for the large black bird of Paradise, of Valentyn, is said to have some long shafts in his tail; and M. Gueneau de Montbeillard supposes that

PAPUA.

the specimen in the Paris cabinet has by some accident lost those long plumes. The fifth is the fislet, ou manucode de six filets. I should almost be tempted to suppose that Valentyn's small black bird of Paradise is this very species, but that the specimens seen by Valentyn, had been deprived of the three long feathers on each side of the head, either by accident, or purposely by the natives. The sixth bird mentioned in the *Histoire Naturelle des Oiseaux*, is the calybe, which seems to be an obscure species, since the specimen is very imperfect, from which the description is made; and I have good reasons for suspecting that it has likewise lost some long plumes off the tail. Upon the whole, it must be observed, that Papua and New Guinea are countries, which, when searched by an able naturalist, will enrich science with many new and elegant objects. The birds of Paradise, therefore, living in a country very little frequented by Europeans, it has not been hitherto possible to procure more accurate accounts of those beautiful and curious birds; and it is hoped that this, however imperfect account, will be acceptable to the lovers of natural history, till something more perfect can be obtained.*

The same voyager gives the following account of the natives :

“ Off the mouth of the bay before the harbour, but out of the swell a boat, with two Papua men, came on board, after having conversed a good deal with our linguists at a distance: satisfied we were friends, they hastened ashore to tell, I suppose, the news. Soon after, many Papua Cassires came on board, and were quite easy and familiar; all of them wore their hair bushed out so much round their heads, that its circumference measured about three feet, and when least two and a half. In this they stuck their comb, consisting of four or five long diverging teeth, with which they now and then combed their frizzling locks, in a direction perpendicular from the head, as with a design to make it more bulky. They sometimes adorned their hair with feathers. The women had only their left ear pierced, in which they wore small brass rings. The hair of the women was bushed out also: but not quite so much as that of the men. As we were rowing along, one of my crowned pigeons escaped from its cage, and flew to the woods.

* Forrester's Voyage, chap. x. p. 134.

“ We

“ We anchored about four in the afternoon close to one of their great PAPUA houses, which is built on posts, fixed several yards below low water mark; so that the tenement is always above the water: a long stage, supported by posts, going from it to the land, just at high water mark. The tenement contains many families, who live in cabins on each side of a wide common hall, that goes through the middle of it, and has two doors, one opening to the stage, towards the land; the other on a large stage towards the sea, supported likewise by posts, in rather deeper water than those that support the tenement. On this stage the canoes are hauled up; and from this the boats are ready for a launch, at any time of tide, if the Harasoras attack from the land; if they attack by sea, the Papuas take to the woods. The married people, unmarried people, and children, live in these large tenements, which, as I have said, have two doors; the one to the long narrow stage that leads to the land; the other to the broad stage which is over the sea, and on which they keep their boats, having outriggers on each side. A few yards from this sea stage, if I may so call it, are built, in still deeper water, and on stronger posts, houses where only batchelors live. This is like the custom of the Batta people or Sumatra people, and the Idaan or Moroots on Borneo, where, I am told, the batchelors are separated from the young women and the married people.

“ At I.ory were two large tenements of this kind, about four hundred yards from each other, and each had a house for the batchelors, close by it: in one of the tenements were fourteen cabins, seven on a side; in the other twelve, or six on a side. In the common hall, I saw the women sometimes making mats, at other times forming pieces of clay into earthen pots: with a pebble in one hand, to put into it, whilst they held in the other hand also a pebble, with which they knocked to enlarge and smooth it. The pots so formed, they burnt with dry grass, or light brushwood. The men, in general, wore a thin stuff, that comes from the cocoa nut tree, and resembles a coarse kind of cloth, tied forward round the middle, and up behind, between the thighs. The women wore, in general, coarse blue Surat bastas, round their middle, not as a petticoat, but tucked up behind, like the men; so that the body and thigh were almost naked: as boys and girls go entirely. I

PAPUA. have often observed the women with an ax or chopping-knife, fixing posts for the flages, whilst the men were sauntering about idle. Early in the morning I have seen the men setting out in their boats, with two or three fox-looking dogs, for certain places to hunt the wild hog, which they call Ben; a dog they call Naf. I have frequently bought of them pieces of wild hog; which, however, I avoided carrying on board the galley, but dressed and eat it ashore, unwilling to give offence to the crew.*

New Guinea. The voyage of Sonnerat to New Guinea ought rather to be styled a voyage to the Philippines, as his observations chiefly regard the natural history of these islands; nor did he sail further than Gibby, an island on the E. of Gilolo, visited by some of the birds of New Guinea, his chief object in that quarter, as appears from the voyage of Forrest. † He only gives the following observations concerning the people of New Guinea, which he may have gathered on his voyage to Gibby.

“The Papuans are the people who inhabit the islands adjacent to New Guinea, and that country itself. They are little known; and their country rarely frequented. Their aspect has something hideous and frightful, being robust men of a shining black, while the skin is nevertheless coarse and rough, and often disfigured by spots like those occasioned by the elephantiasis. Their eyes are very large, the nose flat, the mouth very wide, the lips, especially the upper, very thick, the hair frizzed, of a shining black or powdered with bright red. The character of these savages corresponds with their appearance, being brave, fond of war, cruel, distrustful, and unfaithful. It is, nevertheless, upon the land inhabited by those savages that nature has placed the most rare and singular, the most precious and brilliant productions, if we judge by the few specimens offered by the natives.” ‡

Captain Forrest, to whom we are indebted for an interesting voyage in these seas, only visited the harbour of Dory in the northern part of Papua, so that our knowledge of this large island remains extremely imperfect. He observed, at a considerable distance, the mountains of Arfac, of a remarkable height. Near the harbour of Dory he found in some little isles, abundance of nutmeg trees, and there is room to infer that the land of Papua is not destitute of the same productions, and

* Forrest's Voyage, chap. vii. p. 95.

† p. xii.

‡ p. 153.

may perhaps also boast of cloves. Now that the Spice Islands are re-^{PAPUA.} stored to the Dutch, by the treaty of 1801, a settlement in Papua might become an object of serious consideration; and by the discoveries of our able countryman Dampier, we have certainly a claim equal to that of any other nation.

Some of the small islands, adjacent to this comparative continent,^{Papuan Isles.} are better known than the main land of Papua. At the N. W. extremity the chief isles are Waijoo, and Salwatti; and the smaller isles of Woleket, Fania, Piamis, Wagiol, Luib, Wiag, and Siang, may be added from Captain Forrest's chart, for the sake of fixing the boundary between Australasia and the islands in the oriental archipelago; Gag and Gibbi, from their proximity to Gilolo, belonging to the latter.

Further to the S are the Papuan islands of Arroo and Timorlaut, the boundary here passing on the E. of Nila, one of the small Asiatic isles, among which Serru must also be classed. On the E. of Banda the boundary may pass on the S. of Manabek, then winding N. W. to the E. of Myfol, will leave Popo in the oriental archipelago; while Woleket, as already mentioned, classes with the Papuan islands. This being the only part of the division between the Asiatic islands and Australasia, which is rather intricate, these hints will not be found unnecessary for the sake of precision.

Waijoo, or Wadjoo, is an isle of considerable size, and is said to^{Waijoo.} contain 100,000 inhabitants. The land is high, with lofty mountains, and on the north side are two excellent harbours Piapis and Offak.*

Salwatti

* See Forrest's Voyage and the Chart. Mr. Pennant, *Outlines*, iv. 205, says on the *south* side, which Forrest did not visit. It is observed with regret that such gross inaccuracies are frequent in the works of that ingenious but hasty compiler. "The island of Waijoo is called by the natives *Quarido*; it is covered with very large trees, and every where abounds with mountains of a tolerable height, even at a little distance from the shore. Cottages of bamboo wood are seen, elevated on stakes about twelve feet above the ground, and covered with leaves of the *racaw*-tree. The natives leave all the body naked except the natural parts, which they cover with a coarse cloth. Their chiefs alone are dressed in very large pantalons, and a waistcoat of cloth, which they buy of the Chinese; they have also, like these last, a conical hat of the leaves of a tree; and often speak Chinese. They all have curly hair, very thick, and sufficiently long; their skin is not very dark; some let their whiskers grow. They use the bow with skill. The chiefs have the title of sultan. They live upon hogs, tortoises, fowls, Sam oranges, cocoa, papaya, pumpions, rice, and the *portulaca quadrifida*, sugar canes, ignames, potatoes, lemons, all-spice,

PAPUAN
ISLES.

Salwatti is also a populous island, governed by a Raja. The people of these two large islands resemble those of the main land of Papua, being a singular race, of horrible appearance, and great ferocity. They live on fish, or turtle, and sago, that tree abounding in Papua, but the substance is chiefly prepared by the people of Waijoo.

ARROO.

Timorlaut is another Papuan island of considerable size, but of which there is no particular account. The Arroo islands appear, in Arrowsmith's chart, divided into five by intervening straits, and, as already mentioned, are the remarkable seats of the birds of Paradise. The chief product is sago, and the people make expeditions to the main-land, where they seize captives and sell them at Banda, a remarkable feature in the negro character at this great distance from Africa. In political geography the Arroo isles have been considered, since 1623, as belonging to the Dutch East India Company, and subservient to those of Banda.¹⁵

On the N. of the main-land of Papua are the isles of Mysory and Jobi, with several others of smaller consequence; nor indeed are the discoveries sufficiently complete to trace with precision the northern shores of Papua, or the isles adjacent.

It seems probable that the land called Louisiad, by Bougainville, is either an extension of Papua, or islands adjacent to it on the S. E. In either case, when it shall have been sufficiently explored, the description will probably fall into this division.*

III. NEW

all spice, ears of maiz yet green, which they broil. Labillardière found in this island, the beautiful promerops of New Guinea of Buffon, the large kakatoo, quite black, (*pitacoccus aterrimus*), and a new species of hydrocorax which he has described under the name of hydrocorax of the island Wajou (tom. 2. p. 291, pl. 11). The wild cock, and crowned pheasant of the Indies (*columba ceranata*), are very common in the woods. D'Entrecasteaux anchored opposite to the little island of Boni, in the excellent road of Boini-Sainé, in 38° south lat. and 128° 53' east longitude from Paris."—Walckenaer's Notes on this Geography, French ed. tom. v. p. 345.

¹⁵ De Brosses, i. 443.

* "Louisiada is surrounded by rocks and reefs: it appears well peopled; the inhabitants are quite naked, and are of a light black colour; they wear tufts of feathers round their woolly hair; there are, nevertheless, some as black as the negroes of Mozambique, whom they much resemble; like them, their upper lip projects a good deal over the under; and these two distinct races, in the same country, present a singularity the more remarkable, as it is also found in the island of Santa-

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III. NEW BRITAIN, AND NEW IRELAND, WITH THE SOLOMON ISLES.

New Britain was first explored and named by Dampier, that navigator having passed a strait, to which his name is given, between this country and Papua. In 1767 Captain Carteret passed through a channel between New Britain and New Ireland, which last is a long slip of land stretching from N. W. to S. E. and it is also probable that New Britain may be found to be divided into two or more islands. In these parts the nutmeg tree is found abundant, being perhaps the most remote region, towards the east, of that valuable plant. Dampier visited a bay in New Britain called Port Montague, A. D. 1700, and found the land mountainous and woody, but interspersed with fertile vales and beautiful streams. The country seemed very populous, the natives resembling those of Papua, and navigating their canoes with great skill. The chief product seemed to be cocoa nuts, but there were yams, and other roots, particularly ginger; and the sea and rivers swarmed with fish. In the main land, and adjacent isles, there are several volcanoes.

FIRST DISCOVERY.

Captain Carteret found the natives of New Ireland very hostile, having lances headed with flint. Their faces were streaked with white, and their hair dabbled with powder of the same colour. They are black, and said to be woolly headed, but without the thick lips or flat nose of the negro. Some of the canoes of New Ireland were ninety feet in length, formed out of a single tree. Bougainville also visited this country, and observed here the pepper plant, and that singular insect

Inhabitants.

Cruz, and many others in the southern ocean. The inhabitants of Louifada do not understand the Malay language; they are quite naked; they construct their cottages like the inhabitants of Papua or New Guinea, and they are raised from eight to twelve feet above the ground. They are armed with darts, and a buckler on the left arm: a weapon of defence not common among the savages of Australasia. They make nets for fishing; they are very fond of odours, and perfume most of the objects of which they make use. (Voyages de Labillardiere, tom. 2). Without doubt the charts of the voyage of d'Entrecasteaux will, when published, throw a new light on the geography of these countries, at present so imperfect.—Walckenaer's Notes on this Geography, French ed. tom. v. p. 347.

INHABIT-
ANTS.

the walking leaf; while, among the numerous birds, was the great crowned pigeon.*

A more ample description is unnecessary, as these countries are far from being completely discovered. The same observation must be extended to what are called the Solomon Islands, which appear to have been discovered by Mendana, who sailed from Lima to the westward in 1577. The name was imposed, as usual, by ignorant mariners, who supposed that king Solomon derived his gold from these islands; but while it is even doubtful whether the isles now called those of Solomon be the same with those of Mendana, the appellation becomes doubly absurd, and it would be better to impose some new name.†

Solomon
Islands.

The Solomon Islands, as laid down in Mr. Arrowsmith's chart of the Pacific, may be considered as a large group, extending from Lord Anson's isle, or the Bouka of Bougainville, in the N. W. to the isle called Egmont by Carteret in the S. E. Some of the islands, towards the centre, seem of considerable size, particularly in length. If these be the Solomon Isles of the Spaniards, it is asserted that they are rich in gold. Some of the natives were of a copper colour, others of a deep

* Steering westward from New Ireland and approaching New Guinea, a succession of little archipelagos is found, where are the Forland Isles, the Admiralty Isles, the Hermit and Exchequer Isles. They all present one principal island, the centre of the group; of which the circumference is formed by a number of flat islets linked together by reefs. The archipelago of the Admiralty Isles may be about eighteen leagues long; the principal isle is mountainous. The inhabitants are not very black; their physiognomy is agreeable, and differs but little from that of Europeans; they appear little sociable, and thieves; they have chiefs who seem to have great authority over their subjects: they are armed with darts headed with a volcanic glass. They wear at the extremity of the natural parts the shell, *hulla ovum*; and are otherwise entirely naked. The women only have a garment about the waist. They appear to live principally on cocoa nuts, which grow in abundance in their isles. Their hair is curly and of a black colour, they sometimes redden it with oker mixed with oil; many parts of their body are also thus painted and especially their face. It was in these islands that there was once a hope of finding the unfortunate La Pérouse.

† The archipelago of Hermits is yet less considerable, and is scarcely fourteen leagues in circumference; it produces cytherean apples, *Spondia cyberca*, and many fruits of different species of *rugenia*, all good to eat. The natives appear more mild and pacific than those of the Admiralty Isles, although they seem more robust. They are entirely naked, not even wearing the shell. All these islands and those around them are covered with trees. (Voyages de Labillardiere, tom. i.)[‡] Walckenaer's Notes on this Geography, French ed. tom. v. p. 350.

[‡] Dalrymple, i. 47, and see De Brosses, i. 173. Mr. Dalrymple thinks, p. 46, that the Solomon Isles of Mendana are the New Britain of Dampier. See also his Dissertation prefixed to vol. i.

black,

black, with a wrapper of linen around the waist, while the neck was ornamented with little beads of gold. The canoes were small, two being commonly fastened together. In baskets of palm leaves they carry a kind of bread made of roots.* These islands are the land of the Arfacides of Bougainville.*

IV. NEW CALEDONIA, AND THE NEW HEBUDES.

These regions were discovered by Captain Cook in 1774; but Bougainville in 1768 had sailed through the New Hebrides; and the most northern is supposed to be the land of the Holy Ghost of Quiros.

New Caledonia is a large island, the southern part of which in particular has been little explored. The natives are said to be a muscular race, of a deep brown complexion, resembling those of New Zealand. Future discovery may add several interesting particulars concerning this division. D'Entrecasteaux, who was sent in quest of La Perouse, visited the southern coast of New Caledonia.

The north western part of this large island was explored by Captain Cook, who says that this district was called Balade. The name of Tee, which in the Society Isles implies a guardian spirit, seems here to denote a chief. The women are more chaste than in the other isles of the Pacific. The houses are neat, some having carved door posts, and they rise in the form of a bee hive, warm, but full of smoke. The dress is a slight wrapper; and the hair, which is frizzled, not woolly, is ornamented with a comb, while the beard is worn short. They subsist on roots and fish, the country being very barren and rocky. In New Caledonia Dr. Forster found large rocks of quartz, with layers of gold coloured mica, blended with serpentine, hornblende, talc, and

* De Brosses, i. 259.

* They were ridiculously so named by Surville in 1769, because some of his men were there assassinated. He confounds the *Arfacides* a royal race of Persia with the *Ajassins*. See *La Bourde Hist. de la Mer du Sud*, Paris 1791, 3 vols. 8vo. (1 post work) 1, 65.

garnets.* The bread fruit and cocoa nut are scarce; but many new plants were observed.

“ D’Entrecasteaux has completed the discovery of New Caledonia, having surveyed the whole of the southern coast; it presents a frightful chain of reefs extending beyond the island and barring the sea for a space of 324 miles from south-east to north-west. In the vicinity there are also many little islands surrounded with reefs, and linked together by shallows. New Caledonia viewed from the sea, presents three ranks of mountains of different heights, an appearance in general barren, and signs of a small population.

“ Labillardiere has observed a singular conformity between the physiognomy of the inhabitants and the vegetable productions of the islands of Van-Diemen and Caledonia, though they are so far apart. The inhabitants of New Caledonia have frizzled hair; are of a moderate stature, and their skin is as black as that of the inhabitants of the island of Van-Diemen. They are not acquainted with the use of the bow; but they are armed with darts and clubs which they make with a great deal of care: they also use slings. Exact observations have proved that they were anthropophagi: they live in general upon shell-fish, fish, roots, and eat also a particular kind of spider, which Labillardiere has described under the name of *aranea edulis*. The women have only a girdle of bark fibres; many of the men have their head encircled with

* When Dr. Forster went with Cook, on his second voyage, 1772, mineralogy was in a very imperfect state, Bergman, who published his book in 1782, being the father of the improved system now followed. Yet Dr. Forster’s observations are very feeble and meagre, even for that period; and his tedious quarto volume is filled with declamation, while solid facts are neglected. He is, however, more minute than usual concerning the strata of New Caledonia and the New Hebrides. Reefs of coral rock abound in this archipelago. In New Caledonia the soil of the plains is a sandy black mould, the sides of the hills, yellow clay with mica; the higher parts of quartz and mica, tinged red, or orange, with iron. Garnets are also found in petrosilex, and in several places white transparent quartz, soap-rock, and asbestos. He supposes that the mountains of New Caledonia and New Zealand are the most likely to contain rich metallic veins, as being composed of primitive rock.

In Mallicollo the soil is of a yellowish sandy clay. In the isle of Ambrim (Ambrin) there is a volcano, and of that in Tanna, the ashes diffuse a fertile soil. Tanna also presents cliffs of clay, mixed with aluminous earth, lumps of pure chalk, and tripoli. Sulphur abounds, with some marks of copper

a kind of ribband, or a head dress made with leaves and the hair of the *espertilio vampyrus*. They cultivate ignames, potatoes, but in a small quantity: they raise on the mountains little walls one above the other, to prevent the falling of the earth which they cultivate: a custom which prevails in Asia Minor, China, Japan and Egypt, and which is not always a proof of industry, for there are but few people as miserable and as little industrious as the inhabitants of New Caledonia. The land is in general barren, and to appease hunger they even eat a sort of greenish soft steatite. Those who inhabit the mountains especially are extremely lean, they have no kind of industry, and sleep in the open air. They make masks of the wood of the cocoa-tree. They have chiefs, but their authority appears very limited.

"New Caledonia seems to be traversed by a chain of mountains, which extend its whole length; they rise gradually towards the east-south-east, about 3,200 feet above the level of the sea. These large masses are composed principally of quartz, mica, steatites more or less hard, green schorl, garnets and specular iron ore.

"The principal plants which grow in this island are cocoa-trees, which cover the sides of most fertile vallies; the tree called *commerfonia ecbinata*, which grows abundantly in the Moluccas; the bread tree; a jessamine with a flower the colour of the marigold; the *hibiscus tiliaceus*, the young shoots of which the inhabitants chew; the *dolichos tuberosus*, of which they eat the roots when broiled, the *melalenca latifolia*, the *dracophyllum verticillatum*, a new genus much resembling the *dracena* (see tom. 2. pag. 211. pl. 41). This plant grows on the tops of mountains; the *bipoxis*, the root of which the Caledonians also eat, which grows spontaneously in the forests; the *arum esculentum* and *macrorrhizon*; bananas, sugar canes: all these plants are objects of the care and cultivation of the natives. On the banks of rivers, the *acanthus illicifolius*. In the vallies the *acrostichum australe*, many new species of *limodorum*, of *passiflora*, ginger, *anomum Zingiber*; the *casuarina equisetifolia*; new species of cebera; and one of fern, of the genus *myriophylla*. In the ravines, a beautiful *aleurites*, the almonds of which have a very agreeable taste: plants of the class of proteus, and of those of bignonias, are also met with in great quantities; the *antheloma montana*, is one of

the most beautiful shrubs, it grows on hills, and is about twenty feet high, it forms a new genus which ought to come under the class of Guyacanas.

"The most common birds are a new species of magpie, very large pigeons, *muscipapa*, and *corvus caledonicus*; and among the serpents, the *coluber laticaudatus*."*

Mallicollo.

Tanna.

Among the New Hebrides Captain Cook has given the most particular account of Mallicollo in the north, and Tanna in the south. Dr. Ferster thought that the people of the former, who are ugly and diminutive, had a language different from any they met with in the voyage. In Tanna there is a remarkable volcano, with some hot springs. Here are found plantains, sugar canes, yams, and several kinds of fruit trees. The natives rather resemble those of New Holland than the Friendly Islanders, and are particularly dexterous in the use of the spear.

V. NEW ZEALAND.

This country was first discovered by Tasman in 1642, but he did not land. The natives however came on board, and some intercourse took place, during which seven of the Dutch, who had gone ashore unarmed, were cruelly slaughtered. The people were described to be of a colour between brown and yellow, with long black hair resembling the Japanese.

Our great navigator Cook explored these regions in 1770, and discovered a strait which divides the country into two large islands. The southern was supposed to be called by the natives Tavia Poenamoo, and the northern Eaheianomawe, names which equal the Russian in length, and which might well be contracted. The first is not less than 600 B. miles in length, by about 150 in medial breadth; and the second is little inferior in size.

One of these islands appears to be far more fertile than the other; but both enjoy a temperate climate, similar to that of France. The

* Walckenaer's Notes on this Geography, French ed. tom. v. p. 353.

natives were again observed to be of a brown complexion, little deeper than the Spanish, and some are even fair. They equal the tallest Europeans in stature; and their features are commonly regular and pleasing. It is singular to observe such a diversity between them and the natives of New Holland, when theory would expect to find them the same race of men. So far as present discoveries extend, the natives of New Holland and Papua seem to display an African origin; while most of the other islands in the Pacific appear to have been peopled from Asia.

Mr. Collins, to his interesting account of the English colony in New South Wales, has subjoined some information concerning New Zealand, chiefly derived from two of the natives, who were carried to Norfolk island to teach the management of the flax, one of whom drew a rude map of his country, published by our author. Their features approach the European, and the nose of one was aquiline. By their report the northern island is divided into eight districts, governed by their respective chiefs, and others who are subordinate to them. These provinces are often in a state of warfare; and the captives taken are undoubtedly devoured by the victors. At other times a little traffic is carried on, in flax; and green jade, of which they make axes and ornaments. On the west side of the northern isle there is a large river, but only navigable for canoes. The ranks are, the chiefs, and their officers; the priests, whose authority is equal, if not superior; and the common people.

“The New Zealanders inter their dead; they also believe that the third day after the interment the heart separates itself from the corpse, and that this separation is announced by a gentle breeze of wind, which gives warning of its approach to an inferior Ea-tooa (or divinity) that hovers over the grave, and who carries it to the clouds. In his chart Too-gee has marked an imaginary road which goes the length-ways of Eaheinomawe, viz. from Cook’s strait to the North Cape, which Too-gee calls Terry-inga. While the soul is received by the good Ea-tooa, an evil spirit is also in readiness to carry the impure part of the corpse to the above road, along which it is carried to Terry-inga, whence it is precipitated into the sea.

Customs and
manners.

“Suicide

CUSTOMS
AND MANNERS.

"Suicide is very common among the New Zealanders, and this they often commit by hanging themselves on the slightest occasions; thus a woman who has been beaten by her husband will perhaps hang herself immediately. In this mode of putting an end to their existence both our visitors seemed to be perfect adepts, having often threatened to hang themselves, and sometimes made very serious promises of putting it into execution, if they were not sent to their own country. As these threats however were used in their gloomy moments, they were soon laughed out of them.

"It could not be discovered that they have any other division of time than the revolution of the moon, until the number amounted to one hundred, which they term "Ta-ice E-tow," that is one Etow, or hundred moons; and it is thus they count their age, and calculate all other events.

"Hoo-doo and Too-gee both agreed that a great quantity of manufactured flax might be obtained for trifles, such as axes, chissels, &c.; and said that in most places the flax grows naturally in great quantities; in other parts it is cultivated by separating the roots, and planting them out, three in one hole, at the distance of a foot from each other. They give a decided preference to the flax plant that grows here, both for quantity and size.

Language

"It may be expected (says Governor King) that, after a six months acquaintance between us and the two New Zealanders, we should not be ignorant of each others language. Myself and some of the officers, (who were so kind as to communicate the observations they obtained from our visitors,) could make our ideas known, and tolerably well understood by them. They too, by intermixing what English words they knew with what we knew of their language, could make themselves sufficiently understood by us. During the time they were with us I did not possess any account of Captain Cook's Voyages, but since their departure I find from his first voyage that it has great similitude to the general language spoken in those seas."¹⁰

Captain Cook's last voyage contains considerable information relative to the southern isle, from which a few brief hints may be added, as this

¹⁰ Collins, p. 524.

region only yields to Papua in size and consequence. Storms were found to be not only frequent but violent, and often changed in their direction by the height of the mountains, which at these times are always loaded with vapours, whence it may seem that they are calcareous. The unhappy natives live in constant apprehensions of mutual destruction; and each party earnestly besought Captain Cook to exterminate their enemies, a true picture of savage life, which is to be traced from the genuine practice and experience of human affairs, and not from idle theories of poetry, or of philosophy. Their revenge is sanguinary, and indulged even to the most brutal cannibalism; the more shocking as they believe that the soul of a man, devoured by his enemy, is doomed to perpetual fire. They have no *morai*, or place of worship; but the priests alone address the gods for prosperity. It appears that the jad is found in lakes, to which it is borne down by the mountain torrents. This substance is called *Poenamoo*, and a lake being styled *Tavi*, thence a mistaken appellation has been given to the southern island, by our able navigator, as he himself remarks.¹⁹ This candid observation affords an additional proof of the futility of many names admitted into our maps; and it must rarely occur that uncivilized nations have any general term for a country, or large island, as they cannot distinguish where there is no different object, nor standard of comparison.

The enormous lizards described by the natives are probably alligators. From the observations of the surgeon it appears that the bases of the mountains are sand-stone; that the soil resembles yellow marl; and even the hills are covered with trees of the most lofty luxuriance, seeming to retain their foliage till expelled by the succeeding leaves in spring, for in June, which corresponds to our December, the verdure was complete. The mountainous nature of the country* seems to be an obstacle to future improvement; but this remark may perhaps be confined to the northern part near Queen Charlotte's Sound, and a great

* Third Voyage, i. 140. Yet this isle seems to be called *Poenamoo*, in the map drawn by a native, and published by Mr. Collins.

* According to Dr. Forster, *Obf.* 31, the highest mountain observed in his voyage was mount Egmont, on the northern isle of New Zealand, covered with perpetual snow, so that he argues the height to be fourteen thousand feet. The climate, *ib.* 116, seems moist, and clouds are sometimes observed of a beautiful green.

diversity

region

LANGUAGE. diversity may be naturally expected in such wide regions. The flax of New Zealand has excited particular attention being of a beautiful silky appearance, and the plant remarkably tall. The culture has been attempted both in France and England without success; perhaps from some remarkable difference in soil, or the entire reversion of seasons. The birds seem to be often peculiar in species and colour; and it is not a little remarkable that, in this extensive land, no quadruped was observed, except a few rats, and a kind of fox dog, which is a domestic animal with the natives. Nor was any uncommon mineral seen except the green jad, which, according to other accounts, is found in the channel of a large river in small thin layers.

The general dress is an oblong garment made by knotting the silky flax: and the ears are ornamented with bits of jad or beads, the face being often besmeared with a red paint, seemingly iron ochre mingled with grease. The habitations are far superior to those in New Holland; and the boats are well built of planks, raised upon each other, and fastened with strong withes. Some are fifty feet long, and so broad as to be able to sail without any out-rigger, but the smaller sort commonly have one, and they often fasten two together by rafters. The large canoes will carry thirty men or more; and have often a head ingeniously carved, with a human face distorted by rage: for in savage life images are rarely pleasant, but commonly shew the evil passions which are generally felt. They bake their fish in a rude oven; and the use of bread is supplied by a kind of fern; which yields a gelatinous substance like sago. They are ingenious mechanics with their rude tools, which are mostly of jad. Their weapons are spears and javelins, with the patoo, a kind of club or rude battle-ax; and in combat they distort their features like demons. The yet warm bodies of their enemies are cut in pieces, broiled, and devoured with peculiar satisfaction.¹⁰ The warlike actions of their ancestors are preserved in traditional songs, which are frequently sung, and accompanied with their rude flute.*

¹⁰ Cook, *ib.* i. 162.

* Dr. Forster, *Obi.* 17, says that the southern isle presents a thin stratum of black mould, under which seems to be a nephritic rock of pale yellow, intersected by veins of quartz. Basalt, argillaceous schistus, and pumice, also appear.

VI. VAN DIEMEN'S LAND.

This is the last great division yet discovered of the wide expanse of First Discovery. Australasia. The name was imposed by that eminent Dutch navigator Tasman, as already mentioned, in honour of the Dutch governor general in the East Indies.* It has been recently discovered to be an island, in the form of an oblong square, about 160 B. miles in length by half that breadth, being divided from New Holland by a strait, or rather channel, more than thirty leagues wide, which in recent maps is called Bass's strait, and contains a chain of small islands running N. and S. During his last voyage Captain Cook, in January 1777, visited Diemen's land for supplies of wood and water, and grass for the animals on board. They were met by some of the natives, who were entirely naked; of a common stature, but rather slender, the skin being black, and the hair as woolly as that of any native of Guinea, but their lineaments were more pleasing than those of African negroes. The hair and beards, and of some the faces, were smeared with red ointment. They seem to prefer birds to all other food, and the kangaroo would appear to be selected among animals, because by walking on two legs it somewhat resembles a bird. The land is chiefly of a good height, diversified with hills and vallies, and every where of a greenish hue, being well wooded and watered. The Fluted Cape appears to be composed of a very fine white sandstone, which in many places bounds the shore, and the soil is either sandy or consists of a yellowish mould, and in some places of a reddish clay. The forest trees seem to be all of one kind, growing quite straight to a great height, and may be well adapted for masts. The only quadrupeds discovered were opossums and kangaroos; and the birds cannot differ much from those of New Holland, to which there is as it were a passage by intermediate isles. The

* There is another Van Diemen's land, a northern cape of New Holland. Such duplicate names are injurious to the study of geography, and ought to be formally abrogated, if a Board of Nomenclature, so much wanted, were instituted. The southern Van Diemen's Land, or one of the isles of New Zealand, should be called Tasmania, in honour of the discoverer.

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hovels resemble those of New Holland; but sometimes large trees are hollowed out by fire to the height of six or seven feet, so as to form a rude habitation. Captain Cook's account of the language of New Holland in general must be corrected from the more recent and exact information afforded by Mr. Collins.*

his intelligent writer gives the following account of the recent discoveries in the southern extremity of this remote island.

“ At eight in the evening they passed the S. W. Cape of Van Diemen's land, hitherto known as that of New Holland. It is a narrow-piece of land, projecting from the higher land at no great distance, with two flattish hummocks, that gave it some little resemblance to the Ram Head, near Plymouth. At sun-set they were about a mile and a half from the South Cape.

“ The south-west and south capes lie nearly east and west of each other, and are distant about fifteen leagues. The intermediate coast forms the southern boundary of Van Diemen's Land; but if taken upon the more extensive scale of the whole southern hemisphere, it appears, as the southern point of New Holland, to be of equal respectability with the extremity of Terra del Fuego and of the Cape of Good Hope, the south points of the continents of America and Africa.

“ Like that of Terra del Fuego, the extremity of Van Diemen's Land presents a rugged and determined front to the icy regions of the south pole; and like it seems once to have extended further south than it does at present. To a very unusual elevation, is added an irregularity

* Captain Flinders supplies some additional information in his “ Observations on the Coast of Van Diemen's Land,” &c. 1801. 4to. He says, p. 3, that the capes are mostly basaltic, and he includes the Fluted Cape, the columns being sometimes single, sometimes grouped like stacks of chimnies. Upon the island of Cape Barren are found kangaroos, and the new animal, called *oomar* by the natives near Port Jackson, resembling a little bear. Furneaux's isles are mostly of a coarse quartz, and likewise Wilson's promontory in New South Wales; while the general rocks in the last are felsitic grit amid ironstone. In general Van Diemen's land presents a most dreary and inhospitable shore, mottled with rocks of white quartz and black basalt. Port Dalrymple is the only harbour upon the north coast, which seems the most fertile.

of form, that justly entitles it to rank among the foremost of the grand and wildly magnificent scenes of nature. It abounds with peaks and ridges, gaps and fissures, that not only disdain the smallest uniformity of figure, but are ever changing shape, as the point of view shifts. Beneath this strange confusion, the western part of this waving coast-line observes a regularity equally remarkable as the wild disorder which prevails above. Lofty ridges of mountains bounded by tremendous cliffs, project from two to four miles into the sea, at nearly equal distances from each other, with a breadth varying from two miles to two and a half. The heights or bays lying between them are backed by sandy beaches. These vast buttresses appear to be the southern extremities of the mountains of Van Diemen's Land; which, it can hardly be doubted, have once projected into the sea far beyond their present abrupt termination, and have been united with the now detached land, De Witt's Isles. These isles, (so named, probably, by Tasman) twelve in number, are of various sizes. The two largest are from three to four miles in circuit. Their sides are steep; but their height is inferior to that of the main. The largest is the lowest. Their aspect, like that of the main, bespeaks extreme sterility.

" A great smoke that arose at the back of one of the heights shewed the main to be inhabited; but they could not suppose the people of this place to be furnished with canoes, when those of Adventure Bay, in their neighbourhood, were unprovided with them. Nothing, therefore, was left to their choice, but to allow that they might transport themselves over, either upon logs of wood, or by swimming across; and, as the most probable reward of such an exertion would be, the capture of birds while breeding, or the seizure of their eggs, the utility of spreading fires in facilitating such operations is obvious.

" After passing several places of smaller note, they entered Herdman's Cove; above which, it being the opinion of Mr. Bass and his companion that the sloop could not proceed, they went up the Derwent River in her boat, imagining that one tide would enable them to reach its source; but in this they were mistaken, falling, as they believed, several miles short of it. Where the returning tide met them, the water

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had become perfectly fresh; the stream was two hundred and thirty yards in breadth, and in depth three fathoms. It was wedged in between high grassy hills that descended to the river upon a quick slope, and had a very grand appearance. But the only culturable patches of land they saw were some few breaks in the hills, and some narrow slips that were found at their foot close to the water's side.

"In their way up, a human voice saluted them from the hills; on which they landed, carrying with them one of several swans which they had just shot. Having nearly reached the summit, two females, with a short covering hanging loose from their shoulders, suddenly appeared at some little distance before them; but, snatching up each a small basket, these scampered off. A man then presented himself, and suffered them to approach him without any signs of fear or distrust. He received the swan joyfully, appearing to esteem it a treasure.

"His language was unintelligible to them, as was theirs to him, although they addressed him in several of the dialects of New South Wales, and some of the most common words of the South Sea islands. With some difficulty they made him comprehend their wish to see his place of residence. He pointed over the hill, and proceeded onwards; but his pace was slow and wandering, and he often stopped under pretence of having lost the track; which led them to suspect that his only aim was, to amuse and tire them out. Judging, then, that in persisting to follow him they must lose the remaining part of the flood tide, which was more valuable to them than the sight of his hut could be, they parted from him in great friendship.

"The most probable reason of his unwillingness to be their guide seemed to be, his fearing that if he took them to his women, their charms might induce them to run off with them—a jealousy very common with the natives of the continent.

"He was a short slight man, of a middle age, with a countenance more expressive of benignity and intelligence, than of that ferocity or stupidity which generally characterised the other natives; and his features were less flattened, or negro-like, than theirs. His face was blackened; and the top of his head was plattered with red earth. His

hair was either naturally short and close, or had been rendered so by burning, and, although short and stiffly curled, they did not think it woolly. He was armed with two spears, very ill made, of solid wood. No part of their dress attracted his attention, except the red silk handkerchiefs round their necks. Their fire-arms were to him objects neither of curiosity nor fear.

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" This was the first man they had spoken with in Van Diemen's Land ; and his frank and open deportment led them, not only to form a favourable opinion of the disposition of its inhabitants, but to conjecture that if the country was peopled in the usual numbers, he would not have been the only one they should have met. A circumstance which corroborated this supposition was, that in the excursions made by Mr. Bass into the country, having seldom any other society than his two dogs, he would have been no great object of dread to a people ignorant of the effect of fire-arms, and would certainly have been hailed by any one who might have seen him.

" They fell in with many huts along the different shores of the river, of the same bad construction as those of Port Dalrymple, but with fewer heaps of musle-shells lying near them. The natives of this place, probably, drew the principal part of their food from the woods ; the bones of small animals, such as opossums, squirrels, kangaroo, rats, and bandicoots, were numerous round their deserted fire-places ; and the two spears which they saw in the hands of the man were similar to those used for hunting in other parts. Many trees also were observed to be notched. No canoes were ever-seen, nor any trees so barked as to answer that purpose.

" Besides the small quadrupeds already mentioned, they observed the grey and red kangaroo. The feathered tribes were apparently similar to those of Port Dalrymple. Here again they daily ate their swan, the flocks of which even exceeded those they had before met with.

" The most formidable among the reptiles was the black snake with venomous fangs, and so much in colour resembling a burnt stick, that a close inspection only could detect the difference. Mr. Bass once, with his eyes cautiously directed towards the ground, stepped over one which

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which was lying asleep among some black flicks, and would have passed on without observing it, had not its loud hiss attracted his notice the moment afterwards.

“ He determined on taking him alive, in order to try the effect of his bite upon a hawk that he had in his possession. In the contest, he bit himself; after which he was soon mastered, and in less than ten minutes died. Having never before known a snake of his size to be killed by a few very slight blows with a stick, which was so rotten as scarcely to bear the weight of its own blow, he was at a loss to conceive how death had so suddenly succeeded so much vigour in an animal so tenacious of life. Was it possible that his own bite could have been the cause? When, three hours afterwards, the skin was stripped off, the flesh for some distance round the marks of his teeth was found inflamed and discoloured.

“ The account of the Derwent River being now closed, and the whole of what was learned of Van Diemen's Land related, it may not be improper, says Mr. Bass, to point out the manner in which this country and New South Wales appear to differ in their most essential quality, that of their soil.

“ In adjusting their comparative fertility, the contrasted disposition of their soils is more prominent than any inequality in their quantity. They are poor countries; but, as far as the eye of discovery has yet penetrated into either, the culturable soil of the latter is found lying in a few distinct patches of limited extent, and of varying quality; while the soil of the former, being more equal'y spread, these spots of abundant richness, or large wilds of unimproveable sterility, are much less frequently seen.

“ Although Van Diemen's Land seems to possess few or none of those vast depths of soil with which the happiest spots of New South Wales are blessed; yet it seldom sickens the heart of its traveller with those extensive tracts which at once disfarm industry, and leave the warmest imagination without one beguiling prospect.

“ In point of productive soil Mr. Bass gives the preponderance to Van Diemen's Land.

“ In

"In one particular, which to the inhabitants of a civilized country is of the utmost importance, both countries are but too much alike: each is amply stored with water for the common purposes of life; but deficient in those large interfections of it which, in other more fortunate countries, so much facilitate the operations of man, and lead commerce to the door of even the most inland farmer."* †

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* Collins's Account of the English Colony in New South Wales, ed. 2d. 1804. p. 478.

† "Labillardière has also given us some important details concerning this interesting island; according to him there is one chain of mountains of vast extent running from north-east to south-west, and another from south-east to north-west. Their tops are covered with snow in the month of May: there are a great many rivulets and several lakes. On the side of the mountains our naturalist saw an horizontal bed of coal, the greatest thickness of which did not exceed three feet and a half, but extending for a distance of more than 200 fathoms; it rests on free stone, and is covered with a deep brown schistus. He found also in the rocks, beautiful pieces of hematite, of a red copper colour, and of tripoli. The forests are very thick, and it is difficult to penetrate them; there are a great many very tall trees, and others of a moderate height, which grow vigorously notwithstanding the shade from the enormous size of the *eucalyptus globosus*. Near the rocky bay where our navigators stopped, is a lake situated in a vast plain abounding with pelicans: on the shores, Labillardière observed many new species of *caledolaria* and *drosera*; on the declivity of the hills he saw *embobryum*; in the low and humid places, *leptospermum*, which, in general shrubs, are there large trees; the *eucalyptus resinifera*, of White, which yields a fine and reddish gum; the *eucalyptus globulus*, many *philadelphus*; a new species of *epacris*; and the *bankia integrifolia* and *gibbosa*; the *exocarpos exaratis* et *cupressiformis*, a new genus of the class of *therbinthines*; *chysium*, with narrow leaves which form very pretty groves; *diplazena morrea*, a new genus of the class of Iris's; also *melaleuca, alter, casuarina*, and a singular species of *lmedorum*; a beautiful species of *glycine*, remarkable for its flowers of a shining red; *ptolea*; the *richia glauca*, a composite plant which forms a new genus, and recalls to memory one of the numerous victims of science; polypodium; sensitive plants; the *scirpularia repens*; a new species of parley, good to eat, called *apium prostratum*; several species of *anistrum*, which grow also in the south of America; on the sea shore, two shrubs of a new genus, described by our skillful botanist, and called *mazentoxuron rufum*, and *reflexum* (tom. 2. p. 11, pl. 17); in the middle of the sands the *plantago tenensidata*, good to eat in salad, and one of the most useful plants this land furnishes; a new species of *feside*, in the interior of the woods, the fruit of which the inhabitants eat; a new genus of the class of millepertuis, of Jussieu, the *carpodontos lucida* (tom. 2. p. 16, pl. 18), the branches of which are covered with beautiful white flowers; new species of *festuca, geranium, lobelia*, and one of *utricularia*, which displays its charming flowers on the surface of the water; the *figara vivida* in the woods, remarkable for its beautiful leaves; *mimosa*; two new species of *rossia* or *drosera*, one of which is *drosera bifurca*; several *orebis*, and a new *aletris*, with magnificent flowers. Among the animals, are seen the kangaroo which live in burrows like the rabbit; the sea calf of the species called *phoca monachus*; a new species of parrotquet, represented and described by our author under the name of the parrotquet of Cape Diemen, another of *meops*, described by White.

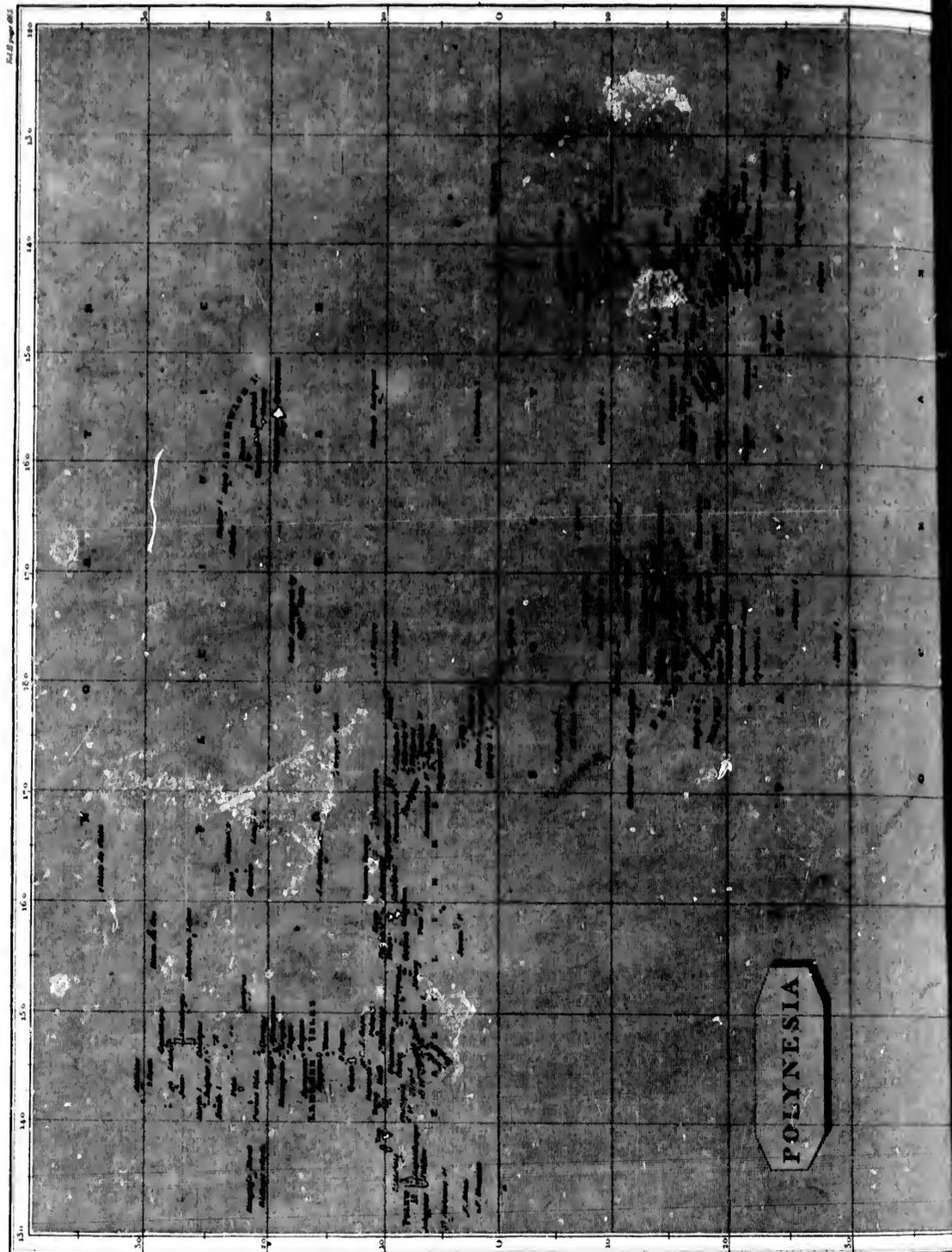
"The inhabitants of Van Diemen did not flee at the approach of the French, as those of the Bay of Legrand, and seemed to be mild and affable. The men and women are equally naked, or covered

"In

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covered with a kangaroo skin. They have woolly hair, and let the beard grow; the upper jaw in children projects considerably over the lower, but falls back with age, in the adult it is nearly in the same line; their skin is not very dark; but to make it appear more so than it really is, they cover themselves with charcoal dust, principally the upper parts of the body; they have all their teeth, and the custom of drawing two of the front ones does not appear to be introduced among them. They eat muscles, oysters, the large lobster, crabs which they broil: the women are principally charged with the care of procuring food and preparing it. They do not appear to have chiefs: each family seems to live in complete independence; but the children are very subordinate to their parents; and the women are so to their husbands. They all appear unacquainted with the bow. Those of Adventure Bay have their body tattooed, and their hair powdered with oker."—Walckenaer's Notes on this Geography. French edit. tom. v. p. 369.

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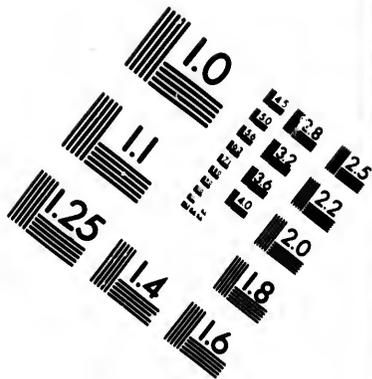
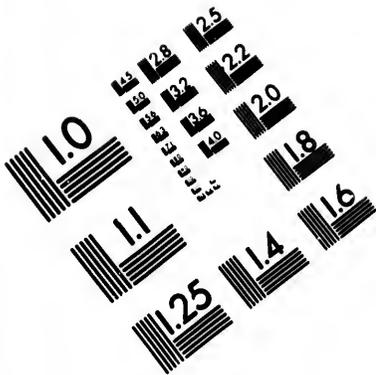
POLYNESIA.

THE boundaries of this extensive division of the globe have already been briefly mentioned in the introduction to the Asiatic Islands. A line passing due north, in the meridian of 130° east from Greenwich, will leave the Philippine Islands in the oriental archipelago, divided by a wide sea from the Pelew Isles, the most western group of Polynesia, though a few small detached isles appear to the S. W. About 20° N. lat. the line of demarcation bends N. E. so as to include the isle of *Todos los Santos*, and that called *Rica de Plata*, thence proceeding E. so as to include the Sandwich Islands, and pass S. about long. 122° west, till it reach the southern latitude of 50° , where it turns to the west, and joins the boundary of Australasia.

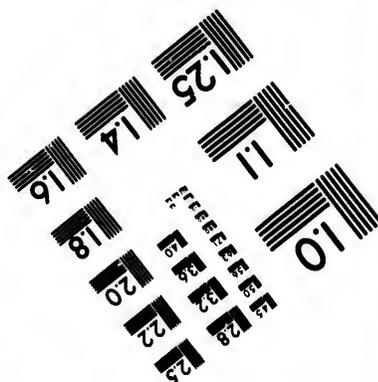
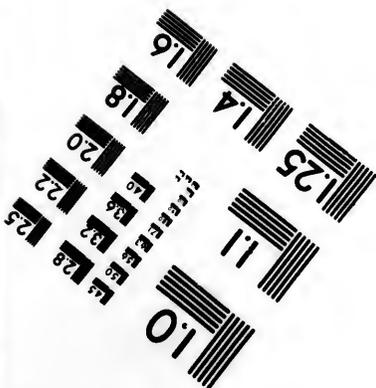
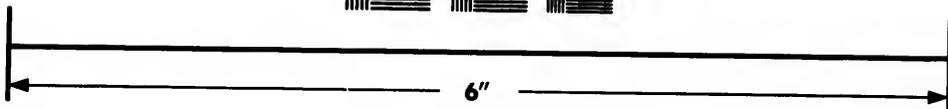
It is probable that future navigations may greatly improve and enlarge the geography of Polynesia, by the discovery of new groups, and the more accurate arrangement of those already known. At present the following appear to be the chief subdivisions:

1. The Pelew Isles.
2. The Ladrões, a chain extending in a northerly direction, the small islands in the Pacific seeming to be mostly the summits of ranges or groups of mountains.
3. The Carolines, a long range from E. to W., so as perhaps, in strictness to include the Pelews.
4. The Sandwich Isles.
5. The Marquesas.
6. The Society Isles, so named in honour of the Royal Society.
7. The Friendly Isles.





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There are besides many isles scattered in different directions, which would be difficult to connect with any group, and indeed none of them, yet discovered, appears to be of any consequence.

I. THE PELEW ISLES.

This group recently attracted considerable attention, from an ingenious and pleasing account of them, drawn up by Mr. Keate, from the papers of Captain Wilson, who suffered shipwreck on these islands in 1783. The narrative is doubtless heightened by Mr. Keate's imagination, but the people appear to be a most gentle and amiable race, the gay and innocent children of nature. It is a peculiarity, which has been remarked in describing the oriental archipelago, that the small isles are the chief seats of comparative civilization, by the concentration of society. To this circumstance may be added, that in large islands the natives split into distinct tribes, generally hostile to each other, whence the pleasurable passions almost expire in the constant succession of fear and rage; while in the small islands, there being no room for secession, the society becomes as it were one family. Much will doubtless depend upon the propensities of the native race, and even on the character and manners of the first settlers and their immediate descendants, but, except on the above principles, it might perhaps be difficult to account for the contrast of manners between the people of the Pelews and those of New Zealand, who are probably of one original stem.*

Mr. Keate, in his account of the Pelew Islands, does not seem to have been master of the former discoveries. In his introduction, he only

* Dr. Forster thinks, Obf. 358, that the original people of Australasia and Polynesia was the negro breed found in Papua, New Holland, &c., for even in Otaheite the common people are much darker than the chiefs, and perhaps of a mingled race. According to that author the Malays of Malacca gradually spread to Borneo, the Philippines, the Ladrões and Carolines; thence to the Friendly Islands and New Zealand, the Society Islands, the Marquesas, and as far east as Easter Island. To Papua, New Caledonia, and the New Hebrides, the Malays did not bend their progress, nor to New Holland, so that these last countries remain in the possession of the primitive race. In the large islands, as Borneo, Luzon, &c. the negroes retired to the interior mountains, being called *Biajos*, *Negrillos*, *Zambales*, *Harturis*, &c.; but in the lesser isles they were conquered, and became *Toutous*.

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quotes the *Lettres Edifiantes*,¹ for a short account given of the Pelews, in PELEWS. a letter of Father Cantova, dated 1722: which represented the innocent natives as cannibals; and Mr. Keate adds, "this is the only mention I find of the Pelew people."²

The first map of these isles was constructed by Father le Clair, from the reports of the natives, and is very inaccurate. These natives had been driven on shore on the isle of Mindanao; and from the isle of Samal, or Samar, smoke had already been observed far to the S. E. denoting an inhabited country. The jesuits of the Philippines being thus instigated to the discovery of these new isles; of which it was as yet only known that the largest, which is the farthest to the north, was called Panlog, while the royal residence was in Falu or Pelew; a vessel left the Philippines on the 14th November, 1710, in which the Fathers Duberon and Cortil embarked. After a voyage of fifteen days the land was discovered to the north-east, and two isles appearing were called those of Saint Andrew, being discovered on the day of that apostle. A bark with some Pelewans afterwards approaching, it was found that the native name of these isles was Sonforol; that Panlog was to the N. N. E. and Pulo to the S. S. E. The Spanish vessel afterwards discovered Panlog at the distance of about fifty leagues from Sonforol, lat. 7° 14'.*

The natives discovering strong inclinations to theft, and even hostile intentions, if we believe this narrative, the Spaniards put them to flight with a discharge of musketry; and no further discovery was then attempted; the vessel being short of provisions returned to Manilla.

By the account of Cantova, the group called the Palaos, or Pelews, consisted of seven principal isles, situated from N. to S. Their names

¹ Tom. xviii. ² Account of the Pelew Islands, ed. 4th. London, 1789. 8vo. p. xi, xii. See the *Lettres Edif.* tom. xv. p. 321, new edit. Paris, 1767, 12mo. in which the letters are arranged according to the quarters of the globe: and the *Hist. Gen. des Voyages*, tom. xv. p. 72, edit. Holl. 4to.

* The S. extremity of Babelthouap, the largest of the Pelew Islands in Arrowsmith's maps, is about lat. 7° 25'. In his account, Mr. Keate mentions Pelew as the place of the King's residence. The islands mentioned are Oroolong, where Captain Wilson was wrecked, Artingall, Pelelew, Emilligue, Emungs, Aramalorgoo, Arraguy, Caragaba, Pethoull; but the names of all were not discovered, and it was but lately known, p. 220, that Pelew was only the name of the capital in an island called Cooroora. It is singular that the large island of Babelthouap, which seems to be the Panlog of the old accounts, should have thus escaped notice.

PELEWIS.

were Pelilieu, Coaengal, Tagaleteu, Cogea, Yalap, Mogulibec, and Nagarro: the king was called Yaray, and resided in Yalap. When the account of the jesuits adds, that the natives are naked cannibals, and regarded with horror by the people of the Carolines, it only evinces how little credit is sometimes to be lent to their reports; the Pelewans being now sufficiently known to be remarkable for the mildness of their manners. But even now the hydrography of these islands is far from being precise.

The Pelewans are a stout well made people, rather above the middle stature. Their complexions are of a far deeper colour than what is understood by the copper hue, but not black, and their hair is long and flowing.¹ The men are entirely naked, while the women only wear two little aprons, or rather fringes, made of the husk of the cocoa nut. Both sexes are tattooed, and the teeth are died black. Polygamy is allowed, and the dead are interred. There seems no appearance of religion of any kind, though they have an idea that the soul survives the body. Mild, affable, and industrious, this little tribe, like the inhabitants of Otaheite, form an exception to the general rule of savage existence. Mr. Keate has published a vocabulary of the language, which is probably a dialect of the Malay, so widely diffused through these seas.

The government is in the hands of a king, under whom there are *rupaks*, or chiefs, who also constitute a kind of nobles. The property of all the land is supposed to be vested in the sovereign, while that of the people is only personal, as a canoe, weapons, or rude articles of furniture. Our domestic poultry are here wild in the woods, and were neglected by the natives, till taught by the English that they were proper for food. Their chief nourishment appears to be fish; but they made a kind of sweetmeats from the sugar cane, which seems indigenous. The chief drink was the milk of the cocoa nut. They commonly rise at day-light, and immediately go to bathe in fresh water. Their houses are raised on large stones, about three feet from the ground, being constructed of planks and bamboos, and the fire-place in the middle, secured with hard rubbish. There are large mansions for public meetings. The best knives are of mother of pearl, others of a large muscle shell, or

¹ Keate, 318.

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split bamboo. They make oval vessels of coarse earthen ware. In general their articles resemble those of Otaheite, and other isles in the South Sea. The weapons are spears, darts, and slings: and the canoes are formed of the trunk of a tree, neatly ornamented.

These isles had scarcely been visited by any European till Captain Wilson landed at Oloolong. Mr. Keate's account is rather romantic than exact, for it appears that Abba Thulle was king of the isle called Cooroora, and the English called the capital, or residence of the king, Pelew. These islands are in general of a moderate height, well covered with wood; and are circled on the west side by a reef of coral, from two to six leagues from the shore, and of great length. The ebony tree is found in the forests, and the bread fruit and cocoa tree seem to abound, with sugar canes and bamboos. No kind of grain was seen, nor any quadrupeds, except some of rats in the woods, and three or four cats in the houses, probably drifted ashore from some wreck. Of birds, pigeons seem the most numerous: and the wild poultry have been already mentioned.

"The natives of these islands are a stout, well-made people, rather above the middling stature; their complexions are of a far deeper colour than what is understood by the Indian copper, but not black. Their hair is long and flowing, rather disposed to curl, which they mostly form into one large loose curl round their heads; some of the women, who have remarkably long hair, let it hang loose down their backs.— It has already been observed, that the men were entirely naked; the women wore only two little aprons, or rather thick fringes, one before and one behind, about ten inches deep and seven wide; these were made of the husks of the cocoa-nut stripped into narrow slips, which they dyed with different shades of yellow: this, their only dress, they tied round their waists, commonly with a piece of line, though such as were of higher rank used a string of some kind of beads; one of this kind, of a coarse sort of carnelian, was worn by Erre Bess; who, understanding that Captain Wilson had a daughter, gave it to Mr. H. Wilson, before his departure, as a present for his sister.

"Both men and women were tattooed, or, as they call it, *melgetbed*; this operation took place, as our people conceived, at a certain period of

PELEWES.

youth, they having never seen any children of either sex marked by it. The men had their left ear bored, and the women both; a few of the first wore beads in the perforated ear: the latter put either some leaf through, or an ear-ring of tortoise-shell inlaid. The cartilage between the nostrils was also bored, in both sexes, through which they frequently put a little sprig or blossom of some plant or shrub that accidentally caught their fancy.

“ When the men and women grew up, their teeth were blacked; this was done by the means of some dye; our people, whilst they remained at Pelew, had no opportunity of seeing how the effect was produced: understanding only it was an operation that was both tedious and painful; but it was afterwards fully explained by Lee Boo to Captain Wilson, on his passage to England. At Saint Helena, Lee Boo appeared much delighted at finding some groundsel, and chewing it, rubbed his teeth with it. Captain Wilson telling him it was not good to eat, he gave him to understand that they had it at Pelew, and used it, with four other herbs, bruised together, and mixed with a little chinam into a paste, which was applied to the teeth every morning, in order to die them black; the patients lying with their heads upon the floor, and letting the saliva run out of their mouths. At night, he said, the paste was taken away, and they were permitted to eat a little. The same process was repeated the day following, and five days were necessary to complete the operation. Lee Boo described it as a thing which gave them a great deal of trouble, and made them extremely sick.

“ Both sexes were very expert at swimming, and appeared to be as perfectly at ease in the water as on land. The men were admirable divers; if they saw any thing at the bottom of the sea which attracted their notice, they would jump overboard instantly and bring it up.

Marriages.

“ These were probably no more than a civil contract, but at the same time that kind of contract which was regarded as inviolable.— They allowed a plurality of wives, but in general had not more than two; Raa Hook had three; the King five, though not living together. They did not appear to be in any degree jealous of them, permitting them to partake of all their diversions.

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" When a woman was pregnant, although she accompanied her husband, yet she never slept with him, but always separated at night; and this was uniformly practised by all the sex, even among the lowest class of the inhabitants; and it was remarked, that the utmost attention was observed to women in that situation. When any chief appeared with his two wives, they usually sat on either side of the husband; and the people seemed to pay them no other attention, but what is usual in an intercourse of the sexes, where the greatest good manners prevail. One of our people, endeavouring to make himself agreeable to a lady belonging to one of the rupacks, by what we should term a marked assiduity, Arra Hooker, with the greatest civility, gave him to understand it was not right to do so.

" They name the children very soon after they are born; this is most probably done without any ceremony.—One of Abba Thulle's wives lay in of a son, at Pelew, during the time our people were at Oroolong; the king, out of his regard for Captain Wilson, named the little boy Captain, and afterwards informed Captain Wilson of the circumstance.

" In the foregoing narrative an account hath been given of the ceremony observed by Mr. Sharp, at the interment of Raa Hook's son, in the island of Pethoullé. Mr. M. Wilson, at that time at Pelew, was present at another funeral, of a young man who had died of the wounds he had received in the same battle in which the King's nephew had lost his life.—The account he gave me of it was as follows:—that accidentally noticing a number of the natives going towards a small village, about two miles from the capital, and hearing that the King was going thither, curiosity induced him to join the throng. When he got to the place, he found a great crowd, surrounding a pavement on which Abba Thulle was seated. The dead body was brought from a house not far distant. The procession stopped as it passed before the king, who, without rising from his seat, spoke very audibly, for a short time, and then the procession went on.—Whether what he said was an eulogium on the departed youth, who had fallen in his country's service, neither of the linguists being present, could not be ascertained; but from the solemn manner in which the King delivered his speech, and the respectful

PELEWS. silence with which the people listened to him, it is by no means improbable but that this was the purport of it.

“ Mr. M. Wilson followed the body to the place of interment ; he observed an elderly woman getting out of the new-made grave, whom he conceived might be the mother, or some near relation, whom affection had drawn to the melancholy scene, to be satisfied that every thing was duly prepared. When the corpse was laid on the earth, the lamentation of the women attending was very great.—It appeared, on this occasion, as well as at the funeral of Raa Hook’s son, that no men, but those who conveyed the body, were present ; these last sad offices were left to the tenderness of the weaker sex : the men only assembled round the body, before it was carried to the grave, where they preserved a solemn silence ; their minds, from principles of fortitude or philosophy, being armed to meet the events of mortality with manly submission, divested from the external testimony of human weakness.

“ They had places appropriated to sepulture. Their graves were made as ours are in country church-yards ; having the mould raised up in a ridge, over where the body was deposited. Some had stones raised above them, with a flat one laid horizontally over, and surrounded by a kind of hurdle-work, to prevent any one from treading over them.”*

II. THE LADRONES.

First Discovery.

This appellation implies the Isles of Robbers, and was given by that distinguished navigator Magalhaens, who first discovered these islands in 1521, the natives shewing great dispositions to pilfer, and much address in the execution of their designs. Pigafetta, who accompanied Magalhaens, describes the people as naked, their hair and beards long, tall and well proportioned, with an olive complexion. They coloured their teeth black like the Pelewans ; and there seems to be an intimate correspondence in their other manners and customs. Their canoes had

* Keate’s Account of the Pelew Islands, ed. 4. 1789. p. 342.

outriggers,

outriggers, and a rude delineation of one has been published from Piga-LADRONES. fetta's manuscript.*

According to the jesuit Gobien, who has published a particular history of the Ladrões, or Marian Islands, the inhabitants, till the arrival of the Spaniards, regarded themselves as the only men in the world, being assured that the first man was made of a piece of rock taken from I'una, a little island near Guam; but, according to others, he was made of earth in the latter island. When they were visited by the Spaniards and Dutch, they inferred that these strangers were brethren, who had lost the primitive Guameſe language. In colour, speech, manners, and government, they considerably reſemble the Tagals or people of the Philippines, before the Spaniſh conqueſt. Theſe iſles were then very populous, Guam, in forty leagues of circuit, having thirty thouſand inhabitants. A favourite occupation of the women was to dye their teeth black, and their hair white; but let not Europeans ſmile, for we have many ſimilar abſurdities. The nobles diſplayed a ſingular pride, being addreſſed with great reſpect, and it was a crime for a noble to marry a common girl. Yet the people were not enſlaved, or even ſubject, but revered their nobles without any conſequent idea of obedience. The houſes were divided into four apartments, by partitions of palm leaves. In their abſolute independence each man avenged his own quarrel; and wars were frequent, but not ſanguinary, as the loſs of one or two men decided the battle. Their magicians invoke the *Anitis*, or the Dead, whoſe ſkulls were preſerved in the houſe, and they are anxious leſt an anti or ghoul ſhould diſturb their fiſhing or nocturnal repoſe.

In the reign of Philip IV of Spain, theſe iſles were alſo called the Marianas, in honour of his queen, Mary of Auſtria. The largeſt is that of Guam, but Tinian has attracted more attention, from the romantic deſcription in Anſon's voyage. There is no doubt that mariners who have been long at ſea, and ſuffered many diſeaſes and privations, will be infinitely delighted with any verdant land, and find beauties where none exiſt. Hence ſubſequent navigators have been greatly diſappointed in Tinian. Anſon found here abundance of wild cattle, of a white colour,

* See alſo the Supplement of De Broſſes, ii, 492, for an ample account of the Ladrões.

³ Paris, 1700. 12mo.

LADRONES, except the ears, which are generally black or brown. But they had probably been imported by the Spaniards, as a supply for the garrison at Guam. Here were also found oranges, limes, and cocoa nuts, with that celebrated and remarkable tree which bears the bread fruit.

The Ladrones are computed to be twelve or fourteen in number; but not above three or four are inhabited. Their vessels, called flying proas, have been esteemed singular specimens of naval architecture, and at a distant interval impressed Pigafetta and Anson with the ingenuity of the contrivance. The natural history of these islands is little known. It appears from the voyage of La Perouse that some of them are volcanic.

To the N. of the Ladrones are many small islands, extending to Todos Los Santos, lat. 30°. those further to the N. belonging to Japan. This group may either be arranged among the Ladrones, or might perhaps admit of a distinct appellation.

The Golden and Silver Isles seem to be so styled from Japanese fables, and with a few other scattered isles on the N. of the Carolines, merit little attention. In these seas is the stupendous rock called Lot's Wife, rising in the form of a pyramid, and thus described by Mr. Meares in his voyage. "The latitude was 29° 50' north, the longitude 142° 23' east of Greenwich. The waves broke against its rugged front, with a fury proportioned to the immense distance they had to roll before they were interrupted by it. It rose almost perpendicular to the height of near three hundred and fifty feet. A small black rock appeared just above the water, at about forty or fifty yards from the western edge. There was a cavern on its south-eastern side, into which the waters rolled with an awful and tremendous noise. In regarding this stupendous rock, which stood alone in an immense ocean, we could not but consider it as an object which had been able to resist one of those great convulsions of nature that change the very form of those parts of the globe which they are permitted to desolate."

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III. THE CAROLINES.

This is the largest group, or rather the most extensive range of islands in the Pacific Ocean.* This chain appears to have been first discovered by the Spaniards in 1686, and was named from the Spanish monarch Charles II. They are about thirty in number, and very populous, except three which were uninhabited. The natives resemble those of the Philippines, and chiefly live upon fish and cocoa nuts: and it is probable that their language only differs in a few shades. According to the letters of the jesuits each isle was subject to its chief, but all respected a monarch, who resided at Lamurec.

First Discovery.

They believe in certain celestial spirits, and think they descend to bathe in a sacred lake in Fallalo, but there are neither temples nor idols, nor any appearance of worship. The dead are sometimes thrown into the sea, and at others interred, the grave being surrounded with a stone wall. It is said that those of Yap worship a kind of crocodile, and have their magicians. Polygamy is allowed, and the Tamul or chief of the large isle of Hogoleu had nine wives. Criminals are banished from one isle to another.⁶

They do not appear to have any instruments of music, but their dances are accompanied with songs. Their only weapons are lances, armed with bone. Even in this distant quarter of the globe negro slaves are not unknown: and in one or two of the islands the breed is said to be mingled, twenty-nine Spaniards having been left on one of these islands, who are supposed to have married and settled. The people of Ulea are reported to be more civilized than the rest, and appear much to resemble those of the Pelews. In 1733 Cantova, a jesuit missionary, was massacred with eight Spaniards in the isle of Mogmog.

The most considerable of the Carolines is Hogoleu, about 90 B. miles in length by 40 in breadth. Next is Yap, in the western ex-

* De Brosse slightly mentions, vol. ii. p. 58, the New Philippines, a vague and improper name of the Carolines. But see his Supplement, ii. 441, &c. for a description of the Carolines and Pelew Islands, accompanied with a curious map by Vaugondy.

⁶ De Brosse, ib. 486.

CAROLINES. tremity of this chain, but not above a third part of that size. The Caroline islands have been little visited by recent navigators; but a few small groups have been discovered in their eastern extremities, which may properly be classed in the same range.

The account of the Carolines, by Cantova, retains its merit, as these islands are rarely visited; and some extracts may therefore be permitted.*

“ Although these islanders have no exterior worship, yet they have priests and priestesses, who pretend to have communication with the souls of the defunct. These priests, from their own authority, pretend to declare who go to heaven, and who have hell for their lot; they honour the former as beneficent spirits; they even give them the name of *Tabutup*, signifying *Holy Patron*. Each family has its *Tahutup*, whom they invoke in their wants, enterprizes, voyages, and labours. It is from him that the members of each family request the re-establishment of their health, success in their voyages, abundance of fish, and the fertility of their lands. They make him presents, which they suspend in the house of their *Tamols*: either, through interest, to obtain from him the favours they ask; or, through gratitude, to thank him for those they have so liberally received.

“ The inhabitants of the isle of Yap have a more gross and barbarous worship. A kind of crocodile is the object of their veneration. There are amongst them a number of impostors, who make the people believe they have communication with the evil spirit; and by this imposition, commit with impunity all sorts of crimes. They procure maladies, and even death to those whom it is their interest to destroy.

“ The plurality of wives is not only permitted in all these islands, but is a mark of honour and distinction. Adultery is regarded with horror; but the offender easily obtains his pardon. It is sufficient that he make a rich present to the husband of the woman with whom he had an illicit commerce. The husband may repudiate his wife, if she violates her conjugal faith, and the wife enjoys the same right when her husband displeases her: in both cases they have certain laws to observe

* *Histoire Generale des Voyages*, xv. 81.

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concerning the dowry. If a man dies without issue, the widow marries the brother of her deceased husband. They never carry provisions in their barks when they go to fish. Their Tamols assemble at a house in the month of February, and judge, by means of the lot, if the navigation will be happy, and the fish abundant.

“ These people, though barbarians, have a certain policy, which shews them to be more rational than the greater part of the other Indians, of whom it may almost be said, that they possess nothing but the human figure. The authority of the government is divided among many noble families, of which the chiefs are called *Tamols*. Besides these chiefs, in every province there is a principal *Tamol*, to whom the others are subject. They let their beard grow very long, to draw more respect. They command imperiously, speak little, and affect a grave and serious air. When the Tamol gives audience, he sits on an elevated table: the people bend to the earth before him, and, their eyes cast down, receive his orders with the most profound respect. When the Tamol dismisses them, they retire inclining their body as when they approach, and do not rise till out of his presence. His words are oracles, and his orders are executed without examining whether they be just or not. The houses of these Tamols are of wood, and ornamented with paintings such as they are able to make. The houses of the common people are not so handsome, being little cabins, very low, and covered with palm leaves.

“ The criminals are never punished as in Europe, either by confinement or torture: they are contented with banishing them to another island. Each province has two houses, one for the education of girls, and the other for boys; but the whole of their education consists in learning some vague principles of astronomy. It is generally studied on account of its utility in navigation. The master has a sphere upon which are marked the principal stars.

“ The women are usually occupied with the care of the house. Fishing, the culture of the earth, and the construction of barks form the principal employments of the men. Father Cantova gives a curious description of these barks. Their sails only consist of a very fine tissue of palm leaves; the prow and poop of the same shape, and both end in

CAROLINES. an elevated point like a dolphin's tail. They have generally four little apartments for the convenience of passengers; one at the prow, another at the poop, and the other two on each side the mast, to which the sail is fixed; but they jut out from the bark, in the form of wings. The roof of these apartments, which is like the roof of a coach, is made of palm leaves, and keeps them secure from the rain or heat of the sun.

“ Within are different compartments for the cargo and provisions. What is surprising in these barks, is that they are built without nails: the planks are so well joined together by means of a kind of cord, that the water cannot penetrate. In cutting down wood they make use of stone hatchets, having no iron. If foreign vessels leave in their isles any old pieces of iron, they belong by right to the Tamols, who have tools made of them, which they let out to the common people, and from thence draw a considerable profit.

“ Baths are very common in these isles, and much frequented. The inhabitants in general bathe three times a day: in the morning, at noon, and at night; they go to bed with the sun and rise at day-break. The Tamol is lulled to sleep by a concert performed by a number of young people, who assemble at night about his house, and sing the songs and best pieces of their most celebrated poets. Even persons of some age sometimes join their voices with those of the young people, and pass part of the night in dancing by moonlight, before the house of their chief. The beauty of the dance, which is performed to the sound of their voices, because they have no instruments, consists in the exact uniformity of the motions of the body.

“ The men, separated from the women, place themselves opposite to each other, and move their head, arms, hands, and feet. They cover their head with feathers and flowers; aromatic herbs hang from their nostrils, and palm leaves woven with art are fixed to the ears. They have besides ornaments on the arms, hands, and feet. They think the ornaments they are decked with, give a new charm to this species of dance. The women have also a kind of diversion more suitable to their sex. Seated, and looking at one another, they begin a pathetic and languishing song, moving their head and arms in time. When the dance is over, the Tamol, if he is generous, displays a piece of cloth,

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which he shews to the dancers, and gives to the man who can seize it first. Besides the diversion of dancing, they have many games in which they give proofs of their address and strength. They exercise themselves with the lance, and throwing stones and balls.

“Whale fishing is another amusing spectacle, according to Father Cantova's description, which he had from an Indian of the island of Ulca. Ten or a dozen of their isles form a kind of port in a circular figure, where the sea enjoys a perpetual calm. When a whale appears in this gulf, the islanders immediately launch their canoes, and advance by degrees from the shore, frightening the animal and chasing him to a certain distance from the coast. The most expert then jump into the sea: some stick him with lances, and others fasten him with thick cables, the ends of which are fixed to the shore. The multitude of people attracted to the coast by this spectacle make the air resound with acclamations. The animal being taken, the fishery is concluded with a great feast.

“The quarrels of these islanders are generally terminated by presents, except when they are public, and between two or more villages. War in this case is necessary to end the dispute. Stones, and lances headed with fish-bone, are the only weapons of which they make use; their method of making war is rather a single combat, than a battle: each man chooses an adversary from the enemy opposite to him. If they are resolved to come to a decisive action, both parties assemble in an open field; being met, they each form a squadron of three ranks: the first consists of young people, the second of others taller than the first, and the third of the oldest. The combat is begun by the first ranks, who attack each other man to man with stones and lances. When any one is wounded and unable to fight, he is immediately replaced by one of the second rank, and this by another of the third. The war is concluded by shouts of triumph on the part of the conquerors, who insult the vanquished.

“The inhabitants of Ulca and the neighbouring isles appear more civilized and rational than the others; they have a more graceful air and their manners are not so coarse. Their dispositions are cheerful, and they are reserved and circumspect in their words; and greater friends to humanity.

CAROLINES. humanity. They have many mingled breeds among them, and some negroes or mulattoes who serve as domestics. It is probable that the negroes came from New Guinea, which is not far distant on the south. The whites most likely are descended from the Spaniards. This conjecture is founded on what is related by Father Collin in his History of the Philipines. This missionary reports that Martin Lopez, pilot of the first vessel which passed by New Spain, to the succour of the Philipines, in 1566, had conspired with twenty-eight of the crew, to leave the others on a desert island, to seize the vessel and to turn pirates off the coast of China. The plot was discovered: and, to prevent the bad designs of those malcontents, they abandoned them on an island of barbarians, to the east of the Marianes. This is no doubt one of the Carolines, where these mutineers married Indian women, from whom are descended the mingled breeds, who have greatly increased.

“The whole of the food of these islanders consists of fruit, roots, and fish. This climate produces neither rice, wheat, barley, nor Indian corn; no four-legged animal was seen here.”

IV. THE SANDWICH ISLES.

First Discovery.

These islands appear to have been first discovered by our great navigator Cook, being perhaps the only detached object in which he was not forestalled by preceding navigators; but the precision and truth of his narratives concerning other regions before only faintly described, and the discoveries of particular features and positions, justly entitle Cook to the veneration which his memory has received from all European nations. The people of the Sandwich Islands are of a deep olive complexion, muscular, and well proportioned; and the productions differ little from those of Otaheite, being little further to the north of the equator than the Society Islands are to the south. There is one considerable island about 280 B. miles in circumference, called Owhyhee, where Captain Cook was most unfortunately slain by the natives, February 1779. The best eulogy of this great man will be found dispersed through this and other systems of

of modern geography, which from him derive a great accession of SANDWICH ISLES. knowledge.

These islands were so named by Cook in gratitude to the earl of Name imposed. Sandwich, a minister who had warmly promoted his labours. The natives are rather of a darker complexion than those of Otaheite, but Inhabitants. the features are pleasing; and the death of Cook was not owing to ferocity, but a sudden impulse of undeserved resentment. The hair is sometimes long, sometimes curled, as among Europeans: but the nose is always spread at the point, perhaps owing to the mode of salutation, in which they press their noses together. Captain King represents them as a mild and affectionate people, free from the Otaheitan levity, and the proud gravity of those of the Friendly Isles. Manners and Customs. This ingenious people has even made some progress in agriculture and manufactures; yet they still sacrifice human victims, but do not eat them like the people of New Zealand, at least so far as information could be obtained. The beard is generally worn; and among the ornaments of both sexes is a kind of fan to drive away flies, made of the fibres of the cocoa nut, or of long feathers. Like the other nations of Polynesia, they tattoo their bodies; and among females even the tip of the tongue, because they can thus shew an ornament without elocution. The dress consists of a narrow piece of coarse cloth called the *maro*, prepared in the same manner as at Otaheite, which passes between the legs and is fastened round the loins. In battle the men throw a kind of mats over their shoulders, and this armour is neatly manufactured. On solemn occasions the chiefs wear dresses, artfully and beautifully formed of feathers. The women have only a slight wrapper, and the hair is cut short behind, but turned up from their forehead. The food consists chiefly of fish, to which are added yams, plantains, and sugar canes; while people of rank feast on the wild boar, and sometimes the flesh of dogs. Form of government. The government is in a supreme chief called Eree Taboo, whose funeral is accompanied by the sacrifice of two or more servants. The inferior chiefs are styled Erees; and there is a second class of proprietors, and a third of labourers, all these ranks seeming to be hereditary. Though human sacrifices be here more frequent, the other rites appear to correspond with those

SANDWICH ISLES. those of the Society Islands, which shall be described in the account of Otaheite.

Climate. The climate appears to be more temperate than that of the West Indies; and in Owhyhee the mountains arrest the clouds, and produce rain inland, while there is sunshine on the shore. The winds seem generally easterly, and there is a regular land and sea breeze.

Zoology. The quadrupeds, as usual in Polynesia, are few; only hogs, dogs, and rats, being discovered. The kinds of birds are not numerous, being, among others, large white pigeons, plovers, owls, and a kind of raven. These islands produce abundance of the bread fruit, and sugar canes of amazing size. Upon the whole this discovery was important; and Owhyhee is the largest island yet found in the wide extent of Polynesia.

After leaving Easter Island the unfortunate La Perouse visited the Sandwich Islands, which he seems to suppose are the same with the Mesa of Spanish charts; though, from an error, in not observing the currents, they be placed sixteen or seventeen degrees more to the east, an usual fault in the Spanish charts, which thus bring many Polynesian islands far too near the American shores: but the French navigator subjoins an honourable testimony in favour of Cook. "Full of respect and admiration for the memory of that great man, he will always appear to me the greatest of navigators." Still New Caledonia, and what is called Sandwich Land in the antarctic ocean, seem acknowledged new discoveries of our great navigator.

La Perouse visited the isle of Mowee, to the N. of Owhyhee, and observed the mountains, the woods, the cascades; and the habitations of the natives, so numerous, that a space of three or four leagues might be supposed a single village. They brought hogs and fruits; and their canoes had outriggers. La Perouse confirms the account of their mild and beneficent manners; and in general refers to the English narratives, the exactness of which he greatly applauds.

V. THE MARQUESAS.

These islands were discovered by Mendana, who imposed the name in FIRST DISCOVERY. honour of Don Garcia de Mendoza, marquis of Caniente, viceroy of Peru, whence they are also sometimes styled the Isles of Mendoza. From the account of Mendana's discovery it appears that the people of the Marquesas were an elegant race, the women being remarkably beautiful, with tolerably fair complexions, so as to exceed in personal appearance the finest women of Lima.⁷ They were clothed, from the breast downwards, with a fine piece of bark cloth. They had idols of wood: and their canoes sometimes held from thirty to forty mariners. The temperature of the air was so dry as not in the least to moisten linen left on the ground during the night. The blanc-mange of Mendana is probably the bread fruit. The names given to the several islands, by the first discoverer, have since yielded to the native appellations. One of the best known to Europeans is the isle of Ohittahoo, to the S. of the larger isle Ohevahoa.

In 1774 the Marquesas were visited by Captain Cook, and in 1789 Subsequent Discoveries. by the French circumnavigator Marchand, whose idle voyage has been recently published at Paris with so much pomp and compilation. Marchand however observed some isles to the N. W. of this group, afterwards descried in 1791 by an American Captain called Ingraham, which are inhabited, but are not laid down in Arrowsmith's chart of the Pacific, nor probably in any other which has yet appeared. If the longitudes and latitudes published by Ingraham be tolerably exact, these islands may be regarded as belonging to the group of Marquesas.* The best recent account of the latter is that given in the Missionary Voyage, Captain Wilson having visited the Marquesas in 1797.

⁷ De Brosse, i. 251.

* Mr. Arrowsmith supposes them the Marquesas. The central south latitude of 9° and long. 141° from London would place them to the west of the Marquesas, whence the distance is said to be thirty-five leagues, and the largest isle about ten leagues in circuit. Other discoveries may probably take place near the equator, from long. 160° to 175°.

MARQUESSA: The natives are said to surpass all other nations in symmetry of shape, and regularity of features; and were it not for the practice of tattooing, which blackens the body by numerous punctures, the complexion would be only tawny, while the hair is of many colours, but none red. Some of the women are nearly as fair as Europeans, and among them tattooing is not so universal.^a The sister of the chieftain had some parallel lines on her arms; while others had only slight punctures on the inside of their lips, and even upon their eyelids. A long narrow piece of cloth was wrapt round the waist, the ends being tucked up between the thighs, while a broad piece of their cloth was thrown over the shoulder, reaching half way down the leg. But this dress seems ceremonious, as may appear from an incident in the same amusing journal.

“ Our first visitors from the shore came early; they were seven beautiful young women, swimming quite naked, except a few green leaves tied round their middle: they kept playing round the ship for three hours, calling Waheine! (that is women,) until several of the native men had got on board; one of whom, being the chief of the island, requested that his sister might be taken on board, which was complied with: she was of a fair complexion, inclining to a healthy yellow, with a tint of red in her cheek; was rather stout, but possessing such symmetry of features, as did all her companions, that, as models for the statuary and painter, their equals can seldom be found. Our Otaheitan girl, who was tolerably fair and had a comely person, was notwithstanding greatly eclipsed by these women, and I believe felt her inferiority in no small degree; however she was superior in the amiableness of her manners, and possessed more of the softness and tender feeling of the sex: she was ashamed to see a woman upon the deck quite naked, and supplied her with a complete dress of new Otaheitan cloth, which set her off to great advantage, and encouraged those in the water, whose numbers were now greatly increased, to importune for admission; and out of pity to them, as we saw they would not return, we took them on board; but they were in a measure disappointed, for they could not

^a Missionary Voyage, London, 1799. 4to. p. 145.

all succeed so well as the first in getting clothed; nor did our mischievous goats even suffer them to keep their green leaves, but as they turned to avoid them, they were attacked on each side alternately, and completely stripped naked." MARQUESAS.

The religious ceremonies resemble those of Otaheite; and they have a Morai in each district, where the dead are buried under a pavement of large stones. Their deities are numerous, and the chiefs seem to have little power, custom alone being followed, instead of laws. Like most uncivilized nations they have no regular meals, but eat five or six times a-day, or oftener. The women seem more subjected to the men, than at Otaheite. Polygamy is chiefly practised by the chiefs. The fore-skin is slit before the age of puberty. The canoes are made of wood, and the bark of a soft tree, being commonly from sixteen to twenty feet in length, the prow carved in rude resemblance of a human face.

No quadrupeds were discovered except hogs, but there are tame poultry; and the woods are filled with many beautiful birds. In one of these isles an English missionary was left, in the benevolent intention of discouraging mutual slaughter, and human sacrifices. But if the christian doctrine of monogamy be strictly enforced, it is improbable that the other doctrines will be received; and we are taught, by many examples, that mahometanism is more successful in the oriental regions.

The largest isle of the Marquesas, Noabeva, is not above half the size of Otaheite: and in general the multitude of small islands in these seas presents a wonderful variety in the works of nature, the largest island yet discovered in Polynesia being Owhyhee, which is about 100 B. miles in length.

VI. THE SOCIETY ISLES.

This group has attracted more attention than any other in Polynesia, and our admiration of Otaheite has excited some degree of ridicule on the continent. The unfortunate La Perouse observes, in one of his letters,

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letters, "I flatter myself you will see with pleasure that, in the course of so long a voyage, I shall have no occasion to put in at those everlasting Society Islands, about which more has been written than concerning several kingdoms of Europe; and I confess to you that I congratulate myself on having nothing to say either about Otaheite, or Queen Oberea." But it may be said, in perfect candour, that this accomplished seaman shews some little jealousy of the English discoverers; and is led to prefer the French group called the Islands of Navigators, which perhaps, in size and population exceed the Society Islands.

In such a wide expanse of ocean it seems preferable to impart the same appellation to very extensive groups, of which there is a sufficient and allowed instance in the Carolines. All the islands therefore from long. 160° west from Greenwich, to the eastern extremity of Polynesia, may be included under the general name of Society Islands. Some may probably include in Polynesia the detached and remarkable spot called Easter Island, which seems to be peopled by the same race, if intervening isles do not rather connect it with South America. But this isle shall be briefly described at the end of the present article.

Otaheite.

The range of Society Islands may thus even exceed the Carolines in number, amounting to sixty or seventy. Of these Otaheite is still by far the most considerable in size, being about 120 miles in circumference. It consists of two peninsulas, joined by a neck of land, about three miles in breadth, the smallest peninsula to the S. E. being about fifteen miles in length, by ten in breadth, while the large peninsula to the N. W. is almost circular, and about twenty-five miles in diameter: the whole length being thus about forty g. miles, or forty-six British. From the map drawn by Captain Cook, and republished with some improvements in the Missionary Voyage, this island appears to consist of two mountains, a larger and a smaller, joined by the narrow ridge above-mentioned; and the habitations are entirely confined to the level coasts. This circumstance seems universal in Polynesia, as the natives crowd to the shores for fish, their chief aliment; and it is probable that the original colonies having settled on the coasts, indolence has prevented them from visiting the inland heights. Nor is it improbable that even

* Voyage, iii. 364.

in the large countries of Australasia* a similar singularity may be observed; the scarcity of animal food probably compelling the natives chiefly to reside on the shores.

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Near the central summit of the large mountain of Otaheite, which in circumference though not in height, resembles Etna, there is a curious lake of some extent: but no river appears, there being only rivulets, which spring from the skirts, and pursue a brief course of two or three miles to the ocean.

The natural colour of the inhabitants is olive, inclining to copper. Men exposed to the sun become very dark; but the women are only a shade or two deeper than an European brunette. They have fine black eyes, with white even teeth, soft skin, and elegant limbs; while their hair is of a jetty black, perfumed and ornamented with flowers.¹⁰ But with all these advantages they yield infinitely in beauty to the women of the Marquesas, the face being widened by continual pressure from infancy, which by distending the mouth, and flattening the nose and forehead, gives a broad masculine appearance. Hence it is evident that the Grecian and academical forms, given by artists void of real taste or precision, to the people of the South seas, in the prints that accompany the English and French voyages, are totally false and imaginary. Nor can there be a greater injury to books of genuine character, and solid information, than this practice, which renders the modern prints far inferior in every respect to some excellent ancient representations of De Bry.

Inhabitants.

But while the women thus sedulously endeavour to destroy their natural beauty, they are of the most affable and engaging manners; and seem entire strangers to those unaccountable caprices, sudden frowns, and violences of temper, which form the chief domestic pestilence of civilized society. Always generous and good humoured, they are slow

* In the chart which accompanies the Missionary voyage Polynesia is absurdly called Lesser *Australia*, as if it were wholly to the south of the equator, or even approached the Terra Australis of exploded maps. Australasia is named Greater *Australia*, while the latter word only means *Southern things*, and cannot with any degree of grammar be applied to a region. Cicero, in his dream of Scipio, uses *Australis regio* merely for a southern country: but the plural neuter of the adjective cannot be used as an appellation.

¹⁰ *Missionary Voyage*, 327.

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to take offence, and easily pacified, never entertaining the sentiments of long and slow revenge, of which the sex seems, in many countries, far more capable than the men. As usual in warm climates their beauty not only ripens, but decays, sooner than in more northern regions. The chiefs are taller than the people, few being under six feet; and as personal size and strength are the chief distinctions in early society, it is probable that their ancestors were selected for these advantages, which have been continued by superior food and ease. The dress of both sexes is nearly the same, except that the men wear the *Maro*, a narrow piece of cloth wrapped round the waste, and passing between the thighs. An oblong piece, cut in the middle to admit the head, hangs down before and behind; and another piece is wrapt round the middle, and a square mantle is thrown over all. Both sexes wear garlands of flowers and feathers; and the women use a kind of bonnet made of cocoa leaves. Parturition is easy; and the infant can swim as soon as it can walk.

Their voice and speech are soft and harmonious; and their dialect is the Italian of the Pacific ocean. Their rude manufactures are truly wonderful, and evince the greatest ingenuity. Their dwellings are about eighteen feet in length, with a few articles of furniture, such as trays, baskets, mats, and a large chest. According to the missionary accounts there is no public appearance of immodesty; and they impute their noted exhibitions to the bribes of their English visitors.

Religion.

Their deities are numerous; each family having its Tee, or guardian spirit, whom they worship at the Morai; but they have a great god, or gods of a superior order, styled Fwhanow Po, or the progeny of night. The divinities in general are styled the Eatooa. The chief seems to be Tane, who has a wife Taroa: from them spring Po the night, Mahanna the sun, &c. Man also proceeds from a divine origin, as in the Japanese mythology, their sole idea of creation being procreation. These benevolent people cannot conceive a future punishment; and regard the idea as only the utmost effort of human malignity. But they admit the immortality of the soul, and degrees of future eminence and happiness, proportioned to its virtue and piety. They have a high idea of the power of spirits, and believe that the beautiful peak near the harbour of Taloo in Eimeo, was dropped by them in its romantic situation. The

Tahouras, or priests, are numerous, and have great power; but all the chiefs officiate on certain occasions. The human victims are commonly criminals, and are killed during sleep; a curious instance of ferocious superstition, mingled with mildness of character. The women are not admitted to the Morais, far less sacrificed as at the Friendly Isles. For a more ample account of their manners and customs the reader is referred to the Voyage of the Missionaries;* which, from longer opportunities of observation, affords the most ample and authentic intelligence. From the general view of their manners, it will not appear wonderful that this enchanted region excited great attention, not only in England, but throughout Europe; as every bosom felt that here were freedom, and ease, and happiness, which the artifices of some, and the superstition of others, have so much contributed to banish from civilized society, where life itself has become a ceremony. Yet the numerous intestine wars, of one little isle against another, render even this state of uncivilized life little desirable.

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The chief animals are hogs, as usual in all the isles of Polynesia, and they have also dogs and poultry. The bread fruit tree abounds; and large plantations are made of cocoa trees and plantains. The seas swarm with fish, and in catching them great ingenuity is displayed, the canoes having outriggers, or being doubled, by lashing two together.

Zoology:

Though the people of the Friendly Islands be superior in improvements and government; and the women of the Marquesas far superior in beauty; yet the people of Otaheite are so polite and affable, and their manners so engaging, that joined with the romantic beauty of the country, the numerous streams, and the superabundance of spontaneous productions, this island is still preferred to all others in Polynesia, and those of the Navigators must be further explored before any comparison can be instituted.

It has already been mentioned that this island consists as it were of two mountains. These are encircled by a border of low land, from the beach to the rising of the hills, in some places near a mile in breadth, while in others the rocks impend over the sea. The soil of the low

* Some were left in Otaheite, but their endeavours do not appear to have been crowned with success, and most of them have since returned to the settlement at Port Jackson.

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lands, and of the vales which intersect the ridge towards the ocean, is remarkably fertile, consisting of a rich blackish mould. When the trade wind gets far to the south it rains on that side of the island; but on the north the showers are less frequent and violent. In the latter the harvest of bread fruit begins about November, and continues till the end of January: while in the southern part it often begins in January and continues till November: but there are variations from the nature of the tree, the number of species being about thirty. On ascending the hills, the soil changes from a rich loam into veins of clay, or marl, of various colours. Beneath is a soft sandstone, of a brownish colour; and basalt also abounds, of a fine grain, of which they used to make their tools. The singular cliff called Pecha appears to be basaltic.* The black volcanic glass, called obsidian, is said to be found in the rivers, and also pumices, sure indications that a volcano once existed: but that any country or island, is of a volcanic origin may perhaps be safely doubted, as only little rude rocks, or isles of a most diminutive size, have been thus erected within human record. The large fresh water lake above-mentioned may perhaps have been the crater of the volcano. This lake is said to be fathomless; but its shores are well peopled by an industrious race. The chief harbour of Otaheite appears to be Matavai, on the north side of the island; but there is another of similar note in the S. E. called Langaras.

The next island in regard to size is Ulitea: and the others of this group, even taken in its utmost extent, are of far inferior dimensions to Otaheite; nor has any striking singularity yet been observed which might claim attention in a general description. In Ulitea some difference was remarked in the mode of constructing the Morais, here composed of four walls built of coral rock. The natives of the numerous islets to the E. are said to be more ferocious than those of the isles visited by Cook.

* Forster, *Obs.* 21, says that the Society Isles are encircled with reefs of coral, the lower hills are of red ochrous earth, the higher of a kind of argillaceous rock, with coarse granite, or the faxum of Linnæus. Black and grey basalt is also found, and it is said crystals of native sulphur. Several of the rocks are full of schorl, and there is lamellated iron stone of a reddish brown. The Friendly Isles are similar.

The

The state of manners in Otaheite having been regarded as singularly interesting, the author is induced to transcribe the minute details on this island, given by the ingenious compiler of the Missionary Voyage. The want of similar descriptions of manners has also been blamed as a deficiency in the present work; and amidst the want of materials for a more complete account of the Polynesian Islands, the following observations, may, in the mean time supply the allotted space, more especially as it may be conceived that one ample description may compensate the want of more minute information concerning the other islands in this vast portion of the globe.

SECT. I.—*Country.*

“THE island of Otaheite consists of two peninsulas, connected by a low isthmus about three miles across, covered with trees and shrubs, but wholly uncultivated, though no part of the island seems more capable of improvement, and of admitting the plough, if cleared from wood. The larger, Otaheite Nooe, is about ninety miles in circumference, and nearly circular; the lesser, or Tiaraboo, is about thirty miles. They are divided into a variety of districts, in enumerating which the former reporters differ, as probably they are subject to changes, and divided and subdivided by the chiefs among their towhas and relations. I shall therefore refer to the map, as containing the latest and most accurate account. The island has a border of low land reaching from the beach to the rising of the hills, in some places near a mile, in others hardly a furlong, and in several points the mountains abruptly terminate in high cliffs, against which the sea beats, and form difficult passages from one district to another. The soil of the low lands and of the valleys, which run up from the sea between the mountains, is remarkably fertile, consisting of a rich blackish mould, covered with bread fruit, cocoa-nut, plantains, evey apple, the youte, or cloth plant, and many others, which will be hereafter described. The mountains afford a great variety of trees of all sorts and sizes, and are, in most places, covered to their very tops with wood, in others with bamboos of great length, and in some by fern and reed, which at a distance appear like a fine green lawn. The hills rise

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very steep, and swell into mountains almost inaccessible; but every where productive of plantains, yams, and a multitude of wild roots growing spontaneously, and sometimes used for food. In these higher regions only is to be found the precious sandal wood, of two kinds, yellow and dark coloured; from whence the natives chiefly draw the perfume for the cocoa-nut oil, with which they anoint themselves.

“ The country exhibits a mountainous aspect, and rises very high in the centre; but it is intersected by narrow valleys, which receive innumerable streams from the hills, some of which fall in beautiful cascades, and fill the rivers which meander through them, amidst the verdant scenery, to the sea. During the rainy seasons these swell into torrents, and sometimes loosen rocks and trees from the precipices, and carry them down into the valleys, which they overflow, and occasion much damage. During the greater part of the year these valleys afford a passage from one side of the island to the other, though always difficult when you ascend the mountains; but in the rainy season this becomes impracticable, and the communication between one district and another is kept up by canoes, which pass within the reefs in smooth water with great facility; using this precaution only, that as the northernmost part of the island has a steep rocky shore, and in blowing weather the landing is dangerous, those who wish to go to windward proceed in their canoes westward, where they seldom find the trade wind, and the sea breeze sets in from the westward; the high land obstructing the easterly wind, and the island of Eimëo lying in a direction N. and S. forces a fresh westerly current up the south side of Otaheite, which wafts the canoes to the isthmus; where hauling them across they are sure of a fair wind home. This is at present done on rollers and by ropes; but a carriage with wheels would wonderfully facilitate the operation: and, probably, ere long, a practicable road will be formed for this purpose, as has been suggested by one of the missionaries.

“ When the trade wind gets far to the south, and blows fresh, it generally rains on the south side of the island, brings the clouds from the mountains of Tioralivo, and emptying their contents at Papparā and the adjacent districts. This occasions a great difference in the bread-fruit season,

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between the north and the south sides of the island; as on the north the rain is less frequent and less violent, and the trade wind constantly blows, except when the sun is vertical. Hence the great bread-fruit harvest commences on the northern about November, and continues till the end of January; whilst on the south side, in some parts, it begins in January, and continues in different districts till November. But though this is the case with the general harvest on both sides the island, there are some kinds of bread-fruit, though scarce, in season all the year, especially in the district of Attahooroo. The different species of the same tree amount to thirty. At our arrival in March we found plenty; it continued till we left the island in August: they said it would be scarce for two months at Matavai.

“ As soon as you begin to ascend the hills, the soil changes from the rich loam into various veins of red, white, dark, yellow, or blueish earth, clay, or marl: in the red are found stones resembling carnelian or flint; but being full of veins, though they will strike fire with steel, they break on a second stroke. The white appears a pipe-clay, or fuller's earth; the dark, a fine fat mould, probably the decayed parts of vegetable substances; the yellow is mixed with gravel; the blue a marly substance. These are all found in digging ten or twelve feet, and the under-stratum appears a soft sand-stone of a brownish colour, intermixed with hard rock.

“ The hills also afford a blackish stone, which seems a lava, in pieces eight or ten feet long, and from four to ten inches thick; of which they formerly made their stone tools: it is of a fine grain, though not very hard, nor apt to splinter; which answered best the purposes of the natives, as they could thus bring them more easily to an edge; but at every stroke almost their edges required whetting, and two thirds of their time nearly was employed in this labour.

“ The beds of the rivers consist of stones and gravel; many of which contain a glassy substance, and will melt in a strong fire; others are more infusible, and many are found like pumice-stone. In powder the magnet attracts many particles. This, with other high islands, has evidently a volcanic origin.

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"In the district of Matavāi there is a singular cliff, called Pecha; which one of the missionaries describes as formed of an immense number of oblong pieces of stone, strongly cemented together, and hanging in a very romantic manner. The cliff is about eighty or ninety feet high, and twice as broad; at the bottom runs a river, the largest in the island. This is probably basaltic.

"The mountains are in some parts bare and full of precipices, broken as by earthquakes. In the bosom of those which bound the district of Vyeorēde there is a remarkably large fresh-water lake, called Vychēerea, which the natives say cannot be sounded with any line, and contains eels of a monstrous size. On the banks of this lake many inhabitants are seated, who have plenty of all sorts of provisions, except the bread-fruit, for which they substitute the mountain plantain. This lake empties itself into the valley of Vyeorēde. Here also they make vast quantities of a greyish cloth highly prized, beat from the bark of the mountain sloe tree; and a number of Arreois frequent the place for this purpose, as they prefer the cloth to any other, and call it orāa.

"The bay of Matavāi affords safe anchorage during eight months of the year, but is dangerous from December to March; the bottom is a blackish sand, from ten to eighteen fathom. The channel between the reef and the Dolphin bank, on which the water is thirteen feet only in the shoaler part, extends not more than half a cable's length, but has twenty-two fathoms of water; yet, in a weakly manned ship, this passage seems preferable to passing to the westward of the bank, as it frequently happens that the wind comes off in squalls from One Tree Hill in a southern direction, and often falls into a dead calm: both which may be avoided by keeping the reef close aboard, with ten fathoms water, and bringing up where you please, as there is no foul ground to windward of the Dolphin bank, nor any rocks but what are visible. The sunken rocks, called Tōa, the natives know, and are ready to point out. The only harbour to the westward is that of Opārre, called Tōarōa, or Long Rock.

"Water is convenient and abundant in all parts of the island.

"The weather during our stay, from March till August, was serene and pleasant, the thermometer never sinking lower than 65°, and seldom higher

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higher than 73° ; and so cool at night as to make a blanket welcome. When we came, the weather was a little squally and rainy, being the end of the rough season, which commences some time in December and lasts till March: during these months the wind frequently blows hard from the west, with rain, and throws a heavy swell and surf on the shore into Matavai bay; the rest of the year the wind blows from the east, but with an alternate land and sea breeze around the island, which extends its influence about a league from the shore.

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SECT. II. *Government.—Ranks in Society.—Property.*

“ The government of Otaheite is monarchical, and hereditary in one family; of this two branches subsist. Temarre, the son of Oberca and Oammo, reigned when Wallis first visited the island: he was then a child, and Oberca his mother was regent. Oammo and she had quarrelled about saving the child, which he wished to destroy; whether to retain the sovereignty longer, or suspecting that the child did not belong to him, the lady not being sparing of her favours to others. On his accession, Oammo retired to a private station in his own district of Papparā, and left his wife, an active woman, in trust with the reins of government for her son. Oammo was son of Tenae, and elder brother of Whāppai, who since has assumed the name of Otey. Whāppai's son Otoo was then a child of six or seven years old. Tootahā, their younger brother, was chief of Attahooroo.

“ As the ceremony of investing the young king with the royal maro, like a coronation, is a solemnity which few can witness, the following account from a spectator will be interesting:

“ Assembling at the great morai at Oparre, the maro oora, or red sash of royalty, recovered from Attahooroo, was laid on the morai: it is made of net-work, and thrummed with red and yellow feathers. The tūata ōrero, the public orator (probably Māne Manne), opened the ceremony with a long speech, which set forth the rightful authority of the son of Romarre to the royal dignity; and invested him with the regal cincture. Montuāro, the chief of Eimēo, who had recovered his authority, first paid his homage to the young king, who was borne on

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a man's shoulder's, and surrounded by all his chieftains. He brought three human victims from Eimēo in his canoes; from each of which the priest, scooping out an eye, presented it to the sovereign on a plantain leaf plucked from a young tree in his hand, accompanied with a long ceremonious discourse: the bodies were then taken away, and interred in the morai. The same ceremony was repeated by every chief in rotation, of the several districts of Otaheite, some bringing one, and some two human sacrifices, fixed on a long pole; and buried after the presentation of the eye.

“ The reason assigned for this horrid oblation was, that the head being reputed sacred, and the eye the most precious part, it was to be presented to the king as the head and eye of the people. During the presentation the king holds his mouth open, as if devouring it, whereby they imagine he receives additional wisdom and discernment; and that his tutelary deity presides, to accept the sacrifice, and, by the communication of the vital principal, to strengthen the soul of his royal pupil. Hogs innumerable were strangled, and immense quantities of cloth presented. The royal maro, worn only on that day, was deposited in its place at the morai, and the sacred canoes, which brought the human sacrifices, were hauled up thither. The king and chiefs then departed to devour the hogs, turtle, fowls, fish, and vegetables prepared for them in the greatest profusion, and to drink their intoxicating yava. The feasting and heivas lasted two months; the hogs killed on the occasion were innumerable, the yava abundant; and more than one of the chiefs paid for their excesses with their lives.

“ Otoo, the present king, is about seventeen, and very large limbed, promising to be of a size like his father. Though he is absolute, he lives in the greatest familiarity with the lowest of his subjects. He is differently represented: some say he looks solid, and of a thoughtful aspect; whilst others call him stupid, and his countenance vacant. His queen, Tētua, daughter of Wyreede, relict of Motuāro, is about his own age, and rather the larger of the two. Her countenance is pleasing and open, but masculine, and widened by the usual method of pressure, called *tourōome*. It is considered as the distinctive mark of their regal dignity, so be every where carried about on men's shoulders. As their persons

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are esteemed sacred, before them all must uncover below the breast; and from this mark of homage their own father and mother are not exempted. They may not enter into any house but their own, because, from that moment it would become rāa, or sacred, and none but themselves, or their train, could dwell or eat there; and the land their feet touched would be their property; therefore, though they often came off to the ship, ate what was handed down to them, and baled the water out of their own canoe, they would never come on board; and when they daily visited our missionary house, they never came farther than the door. Yet this had not been the case with the father, when king, who freely entered the ship, and visited our people on shore: perhaps some ceremony is yet to pass, when the king comes to a more advanced age, when he will have the same liberty.

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“ The king and queen were always attended by a number of men, as carriers, domestics or favourites, who were rāa, or sacred, living without families, and attending only on the royal pair; and a worse set of men the whole island does not afford for thievery, plunder, and impurity.

“ The queen has had as yet no child, nor is it likely she should produce any, as, if the reports our missionaries have received are true, she is a perfect Messalina, and lives in a promiscuous intercourse with all her porters.

“ The mode of carrying the king and queen is with their legs hanging down before, seated on the shoulders, and leaning on the head of their carriers, and very frequently amusing themselves with picking out the vermin, which there abound. It is the singular privilege of the queen, that, of all women, she alone may eat them; which privilege she never fails to make use of. On their own land they sometimes condescend to alight, and walk; but seldom move far without their porters. Among these attendants is to be found one of the singular curiosities of the island, a native of a complexion quite different from his fellows: reddish, and of a Swedish cast of countenance, and his hair white and fine as flax. There are a few others something similar, like the white negroes, an anomalous breed.

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“ The next in rank to the king, is his own father, Pamārre, who acts as regent for his son. He is represented as of very amiable manners, and particularly attached to us. He is the largest man in the island, being above six feet four inches high, and strong built. Our tallest men in the ship hardly reached his shoulders, and he would weigh against three or four; yet is no warrior, and in military prowess exceeded by his wife Iddeah, a woman of a most masculine appearance. They live together in great harmony, though they have ceased to cohabit. He first took her younger sister to wife, and then another woman, and she has a servant of her own, by whom she has had more children than one, all of whom have been murdered, she being now a member of the arroy society.

“ The next in dignity are the chiefs in the several districts: some of whom are supreme in more than one district, and exercise in their own territories all regal power, yet still subject to Otoo as sovereign paramount, and liable to be called upon for assistance: these, also, have houses and lands in many districts, which, as they cannot occupy themselves, they commit to the care of superintendants, called *medūas*, or give them to their *tayos*, who enjoy all the usufructs without being called to any account, and share them with the chiefs when they come to reside themselves.

“ Next to these are the *tōwhas*, the near relations, or younger brothers, or *tayos*, of the chiefs; and if there are more chiefs than one, the district is divided into different *pātdoos*, or parishes, and each of these have *tōwhas* under him.

“ The next in rank is the *ratirra*, or gentleman, who has one portion to the *tōwha's* three. These smaller estates are called *rāhoe*, from the power the *ratirra* has to lay a prohibition on his own land, or on any particular sort of provision, as well as the *tōwha* on his portion, and the chief on the whole; but this power, though sometimes abused, is usually employed after a great consumption of provisions, or to accumulate them for some magnificent feast. The principal objects of the *rāhoe* are hogs, though sometimes it extends also to other sorts of provisions; as when they find the shell-fish scarce on the reefs, the *ratirra* can *rāhoe* his portion, which is done by sticking up at the extremities
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of it two branches of a tree, to which a white cloth is attached: and no person dares fish there while these remain. When the rāhoe is taken off, and the offering of a hog and fish is made, the place is again free, and a feast given by the person who put on the rāhoe: this is called orōa; and besides feasting the guests, it is expected that he should present them with large quantities of cloth: some of this is thrown to the populace to scramble for, which makes sport, the cloth being torn into ribbands; and however small, they prefer it to a larger piece, which they might have for asking: these narrow slips they wear as favours in honour of the feast. The young men wrestle, the women dance, and the feast is often prolonged several days.

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“ When such a feast is made by a chief on taking off the rāhoe from a whole district, it is called towrōa; then larger quantities of cloth, live hogs, bamboos of oil; and even canoes, are given to be scrambled for. At these greater entertainments most of the chiefs of the island are present, vast numbers of the arreoies, and all descriptions of people. The towrōa resembles a country fair, to which every one who goes brings home something to show where he has been, with this difference, that here it costs him nothing; and besides the sport of the hērroo, they are feasted all the time. Hogs innumerable are dressed on this occasion; and a stranger would suppose every one on the island had been collected. The cloth and canoes seldom fall to the share of the same person, but are mostly rent in pieces; and he who gets the largest piece is the best man. If several of a family seize and carry off the canoe, it is their own; and he who first catches the hog, carries it home.

“ The things appointed for this sport are all brought together in an open space. The chief's men hold the hogs fast, till the priest has made a long prayer on the occasion: at the conclusion of it, he throws a young plantain into one of the canoes, which stand in a row, with masts erected to spread the cloth, and hang the bamboos of oil; immediately on this signal, the hogs, goats, and fowls are let loose, and the young men and women begin the chase, which continues a considerable time before all are caught, and affords many a laughable incident: after this, the presents are given, and the feast served up. Wrestling and dancing occupy a part of every day and night while the feast continues.

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“ They have other feasts, held at the ratirra’s morai, called obon nōc, where they meet in smaller companies, baking a hog, and eating it on the spot; and if not cleared the first day, they must come the second, or the third, as none must be removed from the morai. The chief of the pādtdoo, and the priests, are always invited on these occasions; and if absent, a portion is put by for them till they arrive, which they seldom fail to do. If the chief does not come, the priests are entitled to his portion. At this feast no woman, nor any of her male attendants, can be present, or partake of it. At all these they brew-plenty of yava; and they who can get it, drink it greedily.

“ When the hog is taken from the oven, the priest offers a long prayer, and on a plantain-leaf collects a small portion of all the provisions, with a bit of yava root, placing them on the altar, as an oblation to the Eatōā. The hog is then divided into as many shares as persons; each eats as much as he pleases, and puts the remainder into a basket, covered with leaves, till he returns to finish his portion. If a stranger passes at the time, he is always invited to partake, provided he declares himself rāa, or a clean person; if not, he refuses, nor dare they tell a lie; for should the imposition be detected, death only could expiate the offence.

“ The women and their servants have their separate feasts also, called oelumboo. These are generally of fish, and not kept on sacred ground. Any man who is invited may partake with them.

“ The lowest class in society, after the ratirra, is the manahōune; they cultivate the land, and most resemble our cottagers: some are rāa, or hallowed; and others common or unclean. These hold under the tōwhas and ratirras, answer all their demands to the best of their ability, make cloth for them, build their houses, or assist in any laborious work required of them; yet their vassalage compels no constant service or residence: they may change chiefs, and go to another district.

“ The servants of whatever class are called toutou; and such as wait wholly on the women, tuti; nor is it uncommon to find young men of the first families so debased; though by such feminine service they become excluded from all religious solemnities.

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" There yet remains a set of men of the most execrable cast, called *māboos*, affecting the manners, dress, gestures, and voice of females, and too horrid to be described. SOCIETY
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" In the scale of rank, birth enjoys a singular distinction. A chief is always a chief; and though expelled from his command, losing his district, or having his honours transferred to his child, he continues noble and respected; on the other hand, no acquisition can raise a common man to a higher station than that of *tōwha*, or *rattira*; yet the meanest are in no slavish dependence. The honour and respect which they pay their chief, is rather through force of custom than the fear of punishment. They are admitted as their companions on all occasions, and treated with perfect freedom; indeed, in outward appearance they can hardly be distinguished. The king is not averse to converse with the lowest of his subjects, or to be their visitor; and never treats them with hauteur. His retinue is often changing; no man serves him longer than he pleases. They have no wages, nor engage for any stated time, though some remain in the same family all their lives; and these ancient domestics are as much respected as their own relations, giving directions to the younger branches, and managing, as stewards, the affairs of the household without controul.

" All are friendly and generous, even to a fault; they hardly refuse any thing to each other, if importuned. Their presents are liberal, even to profusion. Poverty never makes a man contemptible; but to be affluent and covetous is the greatest shame and reproach. Should any man betray symptoms of incorrigible avariciousness, and refuse to part with what he has in a time of necessity, his neighbours would soon destroy all his property and put him on a footing with the poorest, hardly leaving him a house to cover his head. They will give their clothes from their back, rather than be called *pēre pēre*, or stingy.

" Respecting *property*, they have no writing or records, but memory and land marks. Every man knows his own; and he would be thought of all characters the basest, who should attempt to infringe on his neighbour, or claim a foot of land that did not belong to him, or his adopted friend; for the *tayo* may use it during his friend's lifetime, and if he has no child, possess it at his death.

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“ If a man bequeaths his property to another on his death-bed, no person disputes the bequest, as there are always witnesses abundant to the gift, if the heir is not present. The land marks set by their ancestors, the father points out to the son or heir; and should any dispute arise, through their decay or removal, multitudes know where they stood, and the matter is in general easily settled. Indeed it is much the same in all litigations; the case is referred to a bystander, and the party which he declares in the wrong submits, and makes the other a peace offering of the plantain-stalk. Men seldom or never fight in consequence of any personal quarrel. If any matter of serious offence is given, the whole family or district take it up, and go to war, with their adversaries; but if they chuse not to fight, a peace-offering must be made, which is never refused; if they will fight the weakest must suffer; and as all the relations adopt the quarrel, there is sometimes much bloodshed, and it frequently leads to a general war. Such broils, indeed, are sometimes produced by what appears to us a very trifling matter; such as scurrilous words spoken against the heir of a large estate, or even of a small one, neglect of proper respect to a child, and other things as trivial; for instance, as the child from the moment of its birth becomes the head of the family, the boundaries of his land are new marked with rude images; and if this new-born infant be a *tōwha*, or *ratirra*, a number of little flags are set up in different parts of the boundary; to these all persons of inferior rank must uncover themselves as they pass, whether by day or by night; and should this mark of homage be contemptuously neglected, the mother flies to the shark's teeth and cuts herself, and the party must make his peace-offering with the plantain: should this be refused, the father and mother would tear off the clothes from his back, and well drub him into the bargain. The friends and relations on both sides sometimes arm, and fatal consequences follow. Even a chief has been known to be driven from his district on account of a dispute originating about a poor man's child supposed to be affronted by one of the same rank with himself.

“ The famous, or rather infamous *arreoy* society, consisting of noble persons in general, have also different ranks among themselves, like our freemasons, known by the manner of their tattooing. The highest

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SECT. III. *Inhabitants.—Men, Women, and Children.—Abodes.*

"The natural colour of the inhabitants is olive, inclining to copper. Some are very dark; as the fishermen, who are most exposed to the sun and sea; but the women, who carefully clothe themselves, and avoid the sun-beams, are but a shade or two darker than an European brunette. Their eyes are black and sparkling; their teeth white and even; their skin soft and delicate; their limbs finely turned; their hair jetty, perfumed and ornamented with flowers; but we did not think their features beautiful, as, by continual pressure from infancy, which they call tourōome, they widen their face with their hands, distend their mouth, and flatten the nose and forehead, which gives them a too masculine look; and they are in general large, and wide over the shoulders; we were therefore disappointed in the judgment we had formed from the report of preceding visitors; and though there was to be seen a young person who might be esteemed comely, we saw few who, in fact could be called beauties; yet they possess eminent feminine graces: their faces are never darkened with a frown, or covered with a cloud of fullness or suspicion.

"Their manners are affable and engaging; their step easy, firm, and graceful; their behaviour free and unguarded; always boundless in generosity to each other, and to strangers; their tempers mild, gentle, and unaffected; slow to take offence, easily pacified, and seldom retaining resentment or revenge, whatever provocation they may have received. Their arms and hands are very delicately formed; and though they go barefoot, their feet are not coarse and spreading.

"As in all warm climates, the women in general here come earlier to puberty, and fade sooner, than in colder and more northern countries; though in some the features continue little changed even to grey hairs; and what is remarkable some are said to fade, and revive again, retaining

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retaining their comeliness beyond those who have not experienced such a change. Many, indeed, who lead a dissolute life, receive their immediate punishment, and are old and haggard at thirty; whilst others, who have lived more decently, or, at least, have been less profligate, retain all the sprightliness and vigour of youth at fifty.

“As wives, in private life, they are affectionate, tender, and obedient to their husbands, and uncommonly fond of their children: they nurse them with the utmost care, and are particularly attentive to keep the infant’s limbs supple and strait. A cripple is hardly ever seen among them in early life. A ricketty child is never known; any thing resembling it would reflect the highest disgrace on the mother. If an utter stranger discovers the least defect in a child, he makes no scruple to blame the mother, and imputes it to her want of sense and experience in nursing: so that if the child is not born radically defective, which is seldom the case, they will mould it into a proper shape. A person knock-kneed, or bow-legged, is scarcely to be found: in the whole island we saw only three hump-backed boys, in three different districts.

“The men in general are above our common size; but the chiefs a larger race, few of them short of six feet high; and Pomârre four or five inches higher, and proportionably bulky. They carry their age well; and are healthy and vigorous at a very advanced time of life, if not infected with disease: such are Otey, the grandfather of Otoo, and Mânne Manne, the high priest, and others. The exact amount of their years can only be collected from circumstances, as they keep no regular computation of time; yet from events which they relate, a pretty accurate calculation may be formed. Many were alive in 1791, who remembered the loss of one of Roggewein’s squadron at an island north of Otaheite, in 1722.

“The dress of both sexes is nearly the same, excepting that the men wear a narrow piece of cloth, which, passing round the waist, goes between the thighs, and is tucked in before, named the mârro, and may be called their breeches. An oblong piece, like a piece of printed calico, not a yard wide, with a hole in the middle to admit the head, hangs down before and behind, with the sides open, falling loose as low

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as the knees, and leaving the arms quite uncovered: this is the *tebōota*. A square piece of cloth, doubled, of any size sufficient to pass once and a half round the waste of the men, and above the breasts of the women, under the *tabōota*, is called *parū*: this falls down only to the knees of the man, but to the mid-leg, and often to the ankles of the woman; and is sometimes tucked in at the corner, or confined by a girdle of cloth, plaited hair, or fine matting, called *tatdōoa*. The women, besides, often wear a piece of cloth, *ahhōo*, square, or oblong, folded, which they throw tastily over all, by way of cloak; this is generally of white cloth, and very fine. The other garments are of what colours they fancy most. Instead of the *mārro*, worn by the men, the women have a smaller *parū*, beneath their larger, as an under petticoat.

“When travelling, they usually tuck up the *parū*, to prevent its being soiled or dirty. If persons of rank appear with more than the ordinary quantity of cloth around them, this is designed for a present; and they generally honour the person for whom it is intended with winding it round him with their own hands.

“The women uncover their shoulders and breasts in the presence of a chief, or on passing the sacred ground. Their bonnets resemble the green shades which our ladies use in summer: they are often changed, as they must cast them away on passing the *morai*: but they are replaced in a minute by plaiting, or weaving the leaves of the cocoa nut; and for this they prefer the bright yellow leaves to the green ones. The turban dress and *tamōu* are never worn by the women but at the *heivas*, and are called *tāao-cōpo*. Both sexes wear garlands of flowers and feathers, but no wig, or artificial coiffure. The *tamōu* is made from the hair of their departed relatives, and held in the highest estimation: it is seldom composed of more than six or nine hairs in thickness, but it is often five or six fathoms long. They sometimes dress with a garland of cocoa nut fibres, ornamented with bits of pearl-shell, and the nails of the thumb and fingers of their deceased relations: these they use as mourning, and consider as very precious relics. The women have no *morai*, nor appropriate place of worship; nor are they ever present at their solemnities; nevertheless they suppose they shall be admitted to happiness with the *Eatōo*, as well as the men.

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“ In the tattooing of men and women there is a small spot on the inside of each arm, just above the elbow, which is a mark of distinction, and shews that such a person may eat or touch his father's or mother's food, without rendering it *rāa*, or sacred; it is a sort of seal, that all the *amōas* have been performed. This is generally received when the head is made free, which is the last *amōa*, except that of friendship and marriage. The man who does the tattooing to young or old, is called at the pleasure of the parties, and no constraint is ever used. The young persons will not suffer him to leave off while they can endure the stroke of the instrument, though they make cries and lamentations as if he was killing them. The girls are always attended by some female relations, who hold them while struggling under the pain of the operation, encouraging them to cry out, which they think helps to alleviate the anguish. When the pain becomes excessive, and they say they can endure no more, they use no compulsion. No person ever lifts his hand even to strike a child: on the contrary, the young girls under the operation, will often strike those who compassionate them, and wish them to suspend the operation, as they are never esteemed women till the whole is finished: this sometimes lasts for a year, or more, by intervals, from the commencement of the tattooing.

“ No where are children brought into the world with less pain or danger: the women submit to little or no confinement within doors, but rise and go about as usual. The infant presently crawls, and soon begins to walk, and almost as soon to swim. They run about entirely naked, and are remarkably healthy and active.

“ They are generally acquainted with the art of conversing by signs, either in public or private, and perfect masters of the language of the eyes.

“ Their voice and speech are soft and harmonious. Their dialect is the Italian of the South seas, abounding with vowels, and expelling every harsh and guttural sound from their alphabet: this consists only of seventeen letters, with which they express themselves with great facility and precision. Their pronouns are a striking instance of this: these are different according to the number of persons spoken of: *we*, two only—*we*, two out of three in company—*we*, an indefinite member, have each a different pronoun specifically marking the persons;

and it is the same in the others, both personal and possessive; a singularity perhaps unknown to any other language. *Cgjkqsxs* they hardly articulate, or pronounce a word into the composition of which these letters enter.

“ In general, the ingenuity of all their works, considering the tools they possess, is marvellous. Their cloth, clubs, fishing implements, canoes, houses, all display great skill: their mourning dresses, their war head-dress and breast plates, shew remarkable taste: their adjustment of the different parts, the exact symmetry, the nicety of the joining, are admirable: and it is astonishing how they can with such ease and quickness drill holes in a pearl shell with a shark’s tooth, and so fine as not to admit the point of a common pin.

“ The men are excellent judges of the weather from the appearance of the sky and wind, and can often foretel a change some days before it takes place. When they are going to any distant island, and lose sight of land, they steer by sun, moon, and stars, as true as we do by compass. They have names for many of the fixed stars, and know their time of rising and setting with considerable precision: and, what is more singular, their names and the account of them resemble, in many instances, the Grecian fables: they have their twins, or two children, their Castor and Pollux, &c.

“ Their year consists of thirteen months. They calculate by the lunations of the moon, and by the sun passing and repassing over their heads. They pretend to foretel when the rains will set in, and whether they will be more or less violent than common, and prepare accordingly. They know the seasons for particular fish, and get ready; when the bread fruit will come in season; and whether the harvest will be plentiful or scanty, late or early. The day and night are divided into twelve equal parts, and they guess pretty exactly what the hour is by the sun and stars.

“ They reckon in numbers from one to ten, then add *m*, before each number till they reach 20, reckoning onward thus: *ättahäi* 1, *āhōoro* 10; *m*, *ättahäi* 11, &c.; *tāāōo* 20, *ättahai*, *tāōo* 21; and so on to five, *ēēema tāōo*, five twenties, or 100. But at calculation they are no adepts.

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“ They compute distances by the time it takes to pass from one place to another. They measure their fishing-lines by the fathom, or span, and sound depths of water as accurately as ourselves.

“ The common dwellings are about eighteen feet in the ridge-tree, oblong, and rounded at the ends. The furniture consists of a few wooden trays and stools for making their puddings, posts to hang their baskets of different sorts to store their provisions, a large chest on which the master and mistress of the house often sleep, or on the floor spread with matting and cloth, and covered with the same; frequently they employ a canoe-house just sufficient for their length, and too low for them to stand erect: and sometimes a bedstead; many in fine weather sleep in the open air. Their pillow is a little wooden stool, neatly wrought out of one block; and they who have no such, take the stool they sit upon in their canoes. Their usual seat is the ground, cross-legged; but they have seats with which they are always ready to compliment a stranger. The unmarried women sleep next their parents, and occupy one end of the house; the unmarried men the other. The servants usually sleep in the women's eating house, or near it.

“ Their houses are full of fleas, which harbour in the floor, and are very troublesome; though the natives are much less affected by them than we are: they say they were brought to them by the Europeans. One of our missionaries writes, he has been obliged to get up at midnight, and to run into the sea to cool himself, and to get rid of the swarm of disagreeable companions. This, among other causes, has made the call for bedsteads great, as they find the comfort of this mode of sleeping. Their bed clothes are the garments they wear, if they have no other, which is frequently the case with the common people and servants, who, in that warm climate, little trouble themselves about clothes or the care of them.

“ They have no partitions in their houses; but, it may be affirmed, they have in many instances more refined ideas of decency than ourselves; and one, long a resident, scruples not to declare, that he never saw any appetite, hunger and thirst excepted, gratified in public. It is too true, that for the sake of gaining our extraordinary curiosities, and to please our brutes, they have appeared immodest in the extreme. Yet they lay the charge wholly at our door, and say that Englishmen are

ashamed

ashamed of nothing, and that we have led them to public acts of indecency never before practised among themselves. Iron here, more precious than gold, bears down every barrier of restraint: honesty and modesty yield to the force of temptation."

SECT. IV.—*Deities of the Souib Seas.*

"The deities of Otaheite are nearly as numerous as the persons of the inhabitants. Every family has its *tee*, or guardian spirit, whom they set up, and worship at the morai: but they have a great god of gods of a superior order, denominated FWHANOW PO, born of night.

"The general name for deity, in all its ramifications, is EATOOA.

"Three are held supreme; standing in a height of celestial dignity that no other persons can approach unto: and what is more extraordinary, the names are personal appellations.

1. Tāne, te Medōoa,
the Father.
2. Oromattow, 'Tooa tee te Myde,
God in the Son.
3. Taroa, Mānnoo te Hooa,
the Bird, the Spirit.

"To these, the dii majores, they only address their prayers in times of greatest distress, and seasons of peculiar exigency, supposing them too exalted to be troubled with matters of less moment than the illness of a chief, storms, devastations, war, or any great calamity. Indeed, fear and suffering seem to be more motives to worship than gratitude. The house of these fwhanow po, is at Opārre, where, the chief carie rahie resides.

"The following names of other gods are collected: Orohho, Otoo, Tamaharro, Tey'ree, Orouhato, Oehahow, Tamma, Tobheite, Vaveah.

"For general worship they have an inferior race, a kind of dii penates. Each family has its *tee* or guardian spirit: he is supposed to be one of their departed relatives, who, for his superior excellencies has been exalted to an eatooa. They suppose this spirit can inflict sickness

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or remove it, and preserve them from a malignant deity who also bears the name of tee, and is always employed in mischief.

“ They have a tradition, that once in their anger the great gods broke the whole world into pieces ; and that all the islands around them are but little parts of what was once *venooa noe*, the great land, of which their own island is the eminent part. A curious conversation held with Manne Manne the high priest, and Tāatā Otēro, the orator and oracle of the country for tradition, is as follows, interpreted by the Swede Andrew :

“ In the beginning, Tane took Tarōa, and hegat Avey, fresh water ; Atye, or tē Mydē, the sea : also Awa, the water-spout ; Mātai, the wind ; Arye, the sky ; and Po, the night ; then Mohānna, the sun, in the shape of a man called Oerōa Tabōoa : when he was born all his brethren and sisters turned to earth ; only a daughter was left, by name Tōwnoo : she became the wife of Oerōa Tabōoa, by whom she conceived thirteen children, who are the thirteen months : 1. Pa-
pceree ; 2. Ownoonoo ; 3. Paroromooa ; 4. Paroromoree ; 5. Mooreha ; 6. Heaiha ; 7. Taa ; 8. Hoorororera ; 9. Hooreeama ; 10. Teayre ; 11. Setai ; 12. Waeaho ; 13. Weaha.

“ Tōwnoo now returned to earth, and Oerōa Tabōoa embraced a rock called Poppoharra Harreha, which conceived a son named Tetooboo amata hatoo ; after which the rock returned to its original state, the father of the months himself died, and went to dust. The son he left embraced the sand of the sea, which conceived a son of the name of Tee, and a daughter called Opeera ; then he also died, and returned to the earth. Tee took his sister Opeera to wife, who produced a daughter Oheera, Reene, Moonooa ; the mother died, and the father survived : in her illness she intreated her husband to cure her, and she would do the same for him if he fell sick, and thus they might live for ever ; but the husband refused, and preferred her daughter, whom on her decease, he took for his wife. The daughter bore him three sons and three daughters, the sons, Ora, Wanoo, Tytory ; the daughters, Hennatoomorooroo, Henaroo, Noowya. The father and mother dying, the brothers said, Let us take our sisters to wife, and become many. So men began to multiply upon the earth.

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“ Respecting a future state, they suppose no person perishes or becomes extinct. They allow no punishment after death, but degrees of eminence and felicity, as men have been here most pleasing to the deity. They regard the spirits of their ancestors, male and female, as exalted into eatōoa, and their favour to be secured by prayers and offerings. Every sickness and untoward accident they esteem as the hand of judgment for some offence committed; and therefore, if they have injured any person, they send their peace offering, and make the matter up: and if sick, send for the priest to offer up prayers and sacrifices to pacify the offended eatōoa; giving any thing the priests ask, as being very reluctant to die. But if they find their case desperate, they take leave of their friends, and commend them to the guardian spirits, exhorting them to be more careful of offending them than they themselves had been. When the spirit departs from the body, they have a notion it is swallowed by the eatōoa bird, who frequents their burying-places and morais; and passes through him in order to be purified, and be united to the deity. And such are afterwards employed by him to attend other human beings, and to inflict punishment, or remove sickness, as shall be judged requisite.

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“ The evil demon named *Tee* has no power but upon earth; and this he exercises by getting into them with their food, and causing madness or other disease; but these they imagine their tutelar saints, if propitious, can prevent or remove.

“ They believe the stars were the children of the sun and moon, attributing every substance to procreative power; and when the sun and moon are eclipsed, they suppose them in the act of copulation; and pretend to foretel, from their appearance at such times, the future events of war, sickness, or the like.

“ They imagine when a star shoots (as we call it), it is the eatōoa: that in the moon there is a vast country with trees and fruits: that a bird of Otaheite once flew up thither, and ate of the fruit; and on his return, dropped some of the seeds from which a great tree sprang, of which the bird still eats, and of no other.

“ With regard to their worship, Captain Cook does the Otaheitans but justice in saying, they reproach many who bear the name of Christian.

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Christian. You see no instances of an Otaheitan drawing near the eatōoa with carelessness and inattention; he is all devotion; he approaches the place of worship with reverential awe; uncovers when he treads on sacred ground; and prays with a fervour that would do honour to a better profession. He firmly credits the traditions of his ancestors. None dares dispute the existence of a deity. They put great confidence in dreams, and suppose in sleep the soul leaves the body under the care of the guardian angel, and moves at large through the regions of spirits. Thus they say, My soul was such a night in such a place, and saw such a spirit. When a person dies, they say his soul is fled away, hārre pō, gone to night. It is singular, that Pomārre declared to the missionaries, that he had before their arrival, been dreaming about the *speaking book*, which they should bring from the eatōoa.

“ They entertain a high idea of the power of spirits. In the beautiful and romantic view of Taloo harbour, the remarkable peaked mountain is said to be but a part of the original one. Some spirits from Ulietēa had broken off the other half, and were transporting it down the bay, in order to carry it away with them, but, being overtaken by the break of day, they were obliged to drop it near the mouth of the harbour, where it now stands conspicuous as a rock; for, like the elves and fairies of our ancestors, these spirits walk and work by night.

“ Their superstitious notions of this kind are endless; unhappily, their most unnatural and cruel customs are connected with them, and they are tenacious of the worst, fearing the neglect of these, though inadvertently, would bring down the displeasure of the eatōoa upon them, and expose them to sickness or death.”

SECT. V. *Priesthood and Sacrifices.*

“ The priests at the Society Islands are a pretty numerous body; they are in every district: Mānne Manne seems to be the first among them for knowledge and traditionary information: he is also a monarch of Ulietēa by right, though an exile. Temārre, the chief of Pappāra, of the seed royal, is also high in the sacerdotal office. The priesthood is divided into two orders: the tahowra morai, and the tahowra eatōoa.

As tahowra morai, they officiate in all the prayers and oblations made at the morais: these prayers are uttered in a chaunt that cannot be understood, and was supposed to be a peculiar sacred language; but that is now thought to be a mistake, and the obscurity owing to the mere manner of utterance. All the chiefs officiate as priests on some occasions, praying for their friends when sick, making offerings at the morai, and performing other religious ceremonies.

"The priests have plenty of employment, being called in on all occasions, births or deaths, feasts or sickness; and are the physicians as well as clergy of the country. They affect to possess extraordinary powers, to promote conception or abortion, to inflict diseases or remove them at their pleasure, and are greatly feared on that account. They are supposed to be able to pray the evil spirit into the food, by rubbing a human skull with a part of the provisions they eat; and sometimes to kill men outright. Thus Orepiah is supposed to have died by Manne Manne's conjuration. They acknowledge that over us they have no power, because they knew not the names of our God and our grandfather, which is necessary. They gave us a specimen of their conjurers in one of our visits to Temärre. A man presented himself in an old blue coat turned up with red, his head surrounded with numerous feathers, so as to hide his countenance entirely: he ran up to us with an unintelligible jargon, making a squeaking noise, and actions so wild, that we asked if the man was delirious. The natives not seeing us at all frightened, said it was Temärre's son, the *Etoacte*, the little god, which killed Omiah and many others. Having with us a great dog, he fell upon the priest, who fled; at which the natives seemed terrified, and said he would kill us. After a while, the priest returned, with a club in his hand, driving like a fury all before him, the women and children shrieking, and the natives trembling. On this one of the brethren jumped up to protect the dog, against whom his rage was directed, and wresting the club from him, turned up the feathered cap, and discovered a well-known countenance, who had run away from Mataväi, after robbing Pyetea. We immediately charged him with the theft; on this he changed countenance, and shewed the greatest terror. The natives

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interposing in his behalf, while we were telling them of the man and his imposture, he gave us the slip, and fled; so we saw no more of him.

“ He seems to have been one of those called tahowra etōoa, who affect inspiration. Of these, some pretend to belong to the particular deity, others to many: such as claim acquaintance with the three superior eatōoas are the most consequential, and procure high reverence from the part they presume to act; indeed they do it with so much cunning and address, that the Swedes whom we found in the island, as well as the mariners who preceded them, really believed the appearances supernatural, and that the devil actually was the agent. When they are called upon to consult the deity, they assume an odd fantastic dress, enriched with red and black feathers; to which they say the eatōoa is so partial, that on their approach to him thus, he descends to the earth at their call in one of the sacred birds which frequent the morais, and feed on the sacrifices. As soon as the bird lights on the morai, the eatōoa quits the bird and enters the priest. He instantly begins to stretch and yawn, and rubs his arms, legs, thighs, and body, which begins to be inflated as if the skin of the abdomen would burst; his eyes are thrown into various contortions, sometimes staring wide, then half closed and sinking into stupor; while, at other times, the whole frame is agitated, and appears to have undergone some sudden and surprising change. The speech now becomes low, the voice squeaking and interrupted; then on a sudden raised to an astonishing degree. He now speaks intelligibly, though affecting not to know what he saith, nor the persons of those around him; but his words are regarded as oracular, and whatever he asks for the deity, or himself, is never refused, if it can be possibly procured. Of this, however, the actor affects to have no consciousness; his colleague and assistant, nevertheless, takes care to minute the claims of the deity, and receives them from the person on whose account the deity was so condescending as thus to appear: these requirements are generally very large.

“ When the deity quits the pretended inspired tahowra, he doth it with such convulsions and violence as leave him motionless on the ground, and exhausted; and this is contrived to be at the moment when the sacred bird takes his flight from the morai. On coming to himself

he utters a loud shriek, and seems to awake as from a profound sleep, unconscious of every thing which hath passed.

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“ The priests who superintend the lower orders of the people proceed nearly in the same manner, with variations only according to their craft and abilities: among these are women, who officiate, though not solely, for their own sex. They think it impossible that a child should come into the world without their assistance, though, in fact, they afford them none. People of property, when sick, will sometimes have half a dozen of these priests and priestesses praying round them, and making offerings for them; and which-ever of these happens, in the estimation of the sick person, to be the happy cause of his recovery, is sure to be well rewarded, and ever after highly respected, to whatever class of the priesthood he may belong. Whenever a priest visits a person of consequence, he carries a young plantain in his hand; and before he enters the house offers a prayer, sticks a leaf of the plantain in the thatch, and throws the remainder of the tree on the roof.

“ Their sacrifices and oblations are various and liberal. They offer to their gods all the product of their island, hogs, dogs, fowls, fish, and vegetables; and at every feast a portion is presented to the eatōoa before they presume to take their own repast. When a priest denounces the necessity of a human sacrifice, or, as on the inauguration of the king, custom requires such offering, the manner of selecting them is by a council of the chief with the ratirras. The occasion is stated, and the victim pitched upon; he is usually a marked character, who has been guilty of blasphemy, or some enormous crime; or a stranger who has fled to the district for shelter from some other part on account of his ill conduct. The decision of this council is kept a profound secret, and perhaps the only one which is so. They watch the opportunity of the night, when the culprit is asleep, and dispatch him, if possible with one blow of a stone on the nape of the neck, to prevent any disfigurement of the body; a bone of him must not be broken, nor the corpse mangled or mutilated. If a man has been bit and disfigured by a woman, he becomes nōa, unclean for ever, and can never be offered in sacrifice. The victim is placed in a basket of cocoa-nut leaves fastened to a long

pole,

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pole, and carried in a sacred canoe to the morai, when the eye is offered to the king with the ceremonies before described.

“ If the chief and ratirras, on the requisition of the priests, declare they can find none deserving death in their district, or refuse to provide a human sacrifice, they may substitute a hog in his place: and it is reported, as taking off something from the horror of the deed, that none are pitched upon whose lives have not been justly forfeited by their crimes. Where there is no law, nor regular administration of justice, this mode is substituted to dispatch a criminal, whom his friends might rescue; but being thus executed, it is supposed the choice was right, and no other notice is taken: but what a door does this open to partiality, private enmity, and revenge is too evident and shocking. No woman is liable to be offered at the Society Islands, though they appear the chief victims at the Friendly Islands; nor, may they at Otaheite be present at any of the religious assemblies, partake of the offerings at the morai, or tread the consecrated ground, except on a particular occasion; nor may they eat of any food which has been there, or touched by those who officiate at the altar; and all their male attendants are in the same state of uncleanness and seclusion.

“ The sacred ground around the morais affords a sanctuary for criminals. Thither, on any apprehension of danger, they flee, especially when numerous sacrifices are expected, and cannot thence be taken by force, though they are sometimes seduced to quit their asylum. On the inauguration of Otoo many took refuge in the precincts of the mutineers' habitation, which was held sacred as the morai, and where they enjoyed full protection. Our habitations will afford us assured exemption; and the whole district of Matavai being ceded to us, no more human sacrifices will probably be demanded from us, and such an example will have the most beneficial tendency to abolish the custom in other districts. If we shall be enabled only to put an end to a practice so inhuman, and to induce the pregnant females to preserve and commit to our nurture the infants devoted to destruction, we shall acknowledge this alone would amply reward us for the labours of love in which we are engaged.”

SECT.

SECT. VI. *Singular Customs.*

“ When a woman loses a husband, she immediately provides herself with a shark's tooth, which is fixed with the bread-fruit gum on an instrument that leaves about a quarter of an inch of the tooth bare, for the purpose of wounding the head, like a lancet. Some of these have two or three teeth, and struck forcibly they bring blood in copious streams; according to the love they bear the party, and the violence of their grief, the strokes are repeated on the head; and this has been known to bring on fever and terminate in madness. If any accident happens to the husband, his relations or friends, or their child, the shark's tooth goes to work; and even if the child only fall down and hurt itself the blood and tears mingle together. As the child, from the moment of his birth, succeeds to all the honours and dignity of his family, any insult offered to him is felt more deeply by the parents than if offered to themselves. Should the child die, the house is presently filled with relations, cutting their heads, and making the loudest lamentations.

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“ On this occasion, in addition to other tokens of grief, the parents cut their hair short on one part of their heads, leaving the rest long. Sometimes this is confined to a square patch on the forehead; at others they leave that, and cut off all the rest: sometimes a bunch is left over both ears, sometimes over one only; and sometimes one half is clipped quite close, and the other left to grow long: and these tokens of mourning are sometimes prolonged for two or three years.

“ Their marriages are performed without ceremonies, but various are those which succeed. If a woman be a virgin, the father and mother perform an amōoa, or offering of a hog or fowl, and plantain-tree to their son-in-law, before they can touch any of his provisions; but not if a widow, or separated from a former husband. The wife's relations make a present of hogs, cloth, &c. to the new-married pair. As they agree, they live either on the husband or wife's estate; but if they part, each retains their own.

“ The separation of the women from their husbands on a particular occasion, Dr. Gillham had once the opportunity of remarking. Going

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into the hut of his tayo, named Poppo, very early, he observed him laid alone on the bedstead, and his wife lying on the floor. Inquiring the reason, Poppo informed him it was because she was at present under the Otaheitan feminine infirmity.

“ When a woman brings forth a child, a kind of hut is raised within the house with matting and cloth; heated stones are then placed, with sweet herbs and grass spread over them; on these water is sprinkled, and she is close shut up in the steam which rises, till she is in a proper perspiration, and can endure the heat no longer; from this vapour-bath she comes out and plunges into the river, and washing herself all over, puts on her clothes, and takes the child to the morai. This she afterwards repeats, and often brings on the ague; nor could they be persuaded to desist from so preposterous a custom, such being the force of prejudice.

“ The child being washed, is taken with the mother to the family morai; where, after the father hath made an offering of a young pig or fowl, with a plantain-tree, the navel-string is separated, about ten inches being left, by one of the priests, who always attends, and is paid for the operation by a hog, or cloth. A temporary house is erected on the sacred ground adjoining the morai, and what is cut off from the child is buried at the morai. In this house mother and child dwell till the rest of the navel-string drops off, which may be deposited in the house, or at the morai. During this time of seclusion, which is for a male infant a fortnight, and for a female three weeks, the mother touches no provisions herself, but is fed by another; and should any person touch the child during this time, he must undergo the same restrictions till the amōoa is performed, of a young pig, or a fowl, for the mother, which finishes this separation for uncleanness. The child is then removed to another temporary house on the sacred ground, near the house in which the father and mother reside; but they may not touch the child in the same clothes in which they eat their provisions. To take off this restriction, a second amōoa must be performed by the father and uncles, and a third by the mother and aunts; a fourth, before the child returns to the house where the father and uncles eat; a fifth, on the same account for the mother and aunts. If the child is a male,

male, these are all till he is adopted by a *medōoa*, or godfather, when another *amōoa* is performed; but if a female, two yet remain; one when she is married, that the father and uncles may eat with her husband, and of such provisions as he has touched, which otherwise they could not: the next that the mother and aunts may touch the son-in-law's provisions, though they may not eat with him. These last are called *fiwatotoe*. Hogs and cloth are the offering for the males, for the females only fish. Of these rites they are in no wise sparing, and much festivity attends them.

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“ If the child touches any thing before these rites are performed, it must be wholly appropriated to their use, being *rāa* or sacred; and if any thing touches the child's head before the *amōoa* is offered, it must be deposited in a consecrated place railed in for that purpose at the child's house; and if it were the branch of a tree, as sometimes happens in carrying it about, the tree must be cut down; and if in its fall it injures another tree, so as to penetrate the bark, that tree also must be cut down as unclean and unfit for use.

“ The head is always regarded as sacred, though, after the ceremonies are performed, these demands cease; but they never carry any thing upon their heads, nor can bear to have them touched without offence; and the cuttings of their hair are buried at the *morai*.

“ Both sexes go naked till they are six or seven years of age; about thirteen or fourteen the operation of tattooing the males begins, and earlier for the females. The instruments employed for tattooing a chief or head of a family, are always sent to the *morai*, and destroyed as soon as the work is completed. The females mark their hands and feet with a number of small figures, and their hips with arched lines, guided wholly by fancy as to their number and thickness; but the men tattoo their arms, legs, and thighs, as well as the buttocks; and a person without these honourable marks would be as much reproached and shunned, as if with us he should go about the streets naked. At thirteen or fourteen years of age the boys have an operation performed, by slitting up the prepuce with a shark's tooth, and ashes are sprinkled on the wound; it is at their own option when they choose to have it done.

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The tattoo-men perform the incision, and receive a pig, or piece of cloth, for their trouble.

“ They bathe constantly three times a-day in the fresh water, and always wash themselves in it after coming out of the sea; and though men and women are together, there is not the least immodesty permitted, and they slip through their clothes without any wanton exposures—it would be condemned in a man as much as a woman. In their dances alone is immodesty permitted; there it appears the effect of national habit or custom, as no person could ever be prevailed upon to do in any private company what, when they dance in public, is allowed without scruple. In fact, though chastity and modesty are not held in the same estimation with them as with us, yet many of their married women are said to pique themselves on its strict observance, and are not to be won at any rate, being only accessible to the husband's tayo.

“ The single young men, who in the heivas indulge indecent gestures, would not dare to do so at any other time; and however strangely the women act in public dances, no woman of character would admit of improper liberties elsewhere. They never uncover their breast but when they bathe, nor their bosom and shoulders but in the presence of the chief. Their ideas, no doubt, of shame and delicacy are very different from ours; they are not yet advanced to such a state of civilization and refinement; but the woman who sailed with the ship soon became as reserved in manners and dress as any European; and the progress made in the island by the missionaries in this respect when the ship returned, was evident and pleasing.

“ If a woman has any defect or deformity, she carefully conceals it; and when they go into the water they take with them broad leaves to supply the place of cloth. Their constant bathing prevents every disagreeable smell from perspiration, and their mouth and teeth being washed at every meal, preserves their teeth white and their breath sweet.

“ They extract every hair from the nose, arm-pits, &c. to prevent its harbouring any dust or foulness. Their beards are usually neatly trimmed with shells, and their hair short or long, according to their fancy.

fancy. The women, except those who affect to be prophetesses, wear their hair short and decked with flowers, paying the nicest regard to their persons. They adjust their brows and eyelashes, clipping them if too long, and forming the eyebrows into regular arches. Nor are the men less attentive to their persons, and will sit at the glass dressing with the greatest complacency. A black cocoa-nut shell filled with water served them for a looking-glass, till we supplied them with what they so highly prized. Fish scales, or shells, formed their tweezers, the shark's teeth their scissars, and the bamboo their combs. The fragrant oil supplies the place of pomatum, and powder and civet can hardly furnish greater beauties. At their heiras they put on their best, and dress in the most tasty manner fancy can suggest. Both sexes have their ears bored for ornaments; in them they wear pearls, or beads, hanging down about two inches in a plait of hair; sometimes the hole of the ear is stuck with an odoriferous flower. They have pearls which they value very highly; and at first our white beads, which resemble them, were much coveted: but when they found they were spoiled with water, they ceased to be in demand. As long as they are able to move, they never neglect bathing; the old, who can scarcely crawl, get down to the river; nor does any sickness or disease prevent them; nothing but utter inability restrains them from the water.

“ They produce fire in the following manner: with their teeth, or a muscle-shell, they sharpen a stick of porous wood, and fixing a larger piece of the same under their feet, they, with both hands and a quick motion, rub a score in the board at their feet till the dust produced takes fire; they have dried leaves or grass ready, into which they sweep this tinder dust, and wrapping it up, wave it in the wind till it kindles into a flame: while they are rubbing they continue singing, or chanting a hymn or prayer, till the fire is produced, in about two minutes if the wood be completely dry. In wet weather this is a difficult task, and therefore they usually then carry about with them fire, which in the dry weather they need not do. The women are not suffered to kindle a fire from that made by their husbands, or any other man, except those feminine male associates which attend them, and are subject to the same rules.

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“ They never suffer a fly to touch their food if they can help it ; and should they find one dead in their puddings, or any of their provisions, which sometimes cannot be avoided, they throw it to the hogs. Hence they all carry fly flaps ; these are usually made of feathers, and fixed to a handle of wood ten or twelve inches long, sometimes carved, sometimes plain. The wing bones of the largest fowls, when cleaned, are used for handles : and if they have not these, they supply their place by a bough from the nearest tree. Whenever you enter a house, or approach a place where provisions are preparing, this is the first thing they offer you. When the provisions are dressed and hot before you, the boys continue to fan away the flies with fly flaps, nothing being more offensive or disagreeable than that a fly should get into their mouths ; and their aversion to touch them with their hands is such, that should a dead fly be found on any part of their body, they would go instantly to the river and wash themselves. These flies at times are numerous, but not so venomous as the muskitoes in the West Indies : they are of two sorts, the common black fly, and a grey one of the same size, which sometimes stings sharply. They have also butterflies, butterfly moths, muskitoes, lizards, scorpions, centipedes, beetles, crickets, grasshoppers, small ants, sand-flies, and others ; but neither dangerous nor very troublesome.

“ The middle aged of all classes generally take a nap at noon, during the heat of the day. To this the yava, among those who drink it, does not a little dispose. The aged, as more watchful, need not this indulgence ; and the youth, too lively to sleep during the day-light, find always some sport or amusement to employ them.

“ During the night, if strangers lodge with them, they burn the candle-nut, stuck on skewers, that they may find their way in and out of the house, without incommodation from those who sleep on the floor, sometimes to the amount of fifty or sixty persons. Nor was it unusual to get up and have provisions ready in the night : and some sit and chat, and tell stories, with which they are always delighted. We observed that those which regarded us, and our European manners and customs, less interested them than their own, as their minds were not enlarged to a capacity of comprehending the reports which were made, and these too

often fabulous. One navigator told them, we had ships as much larger than his as that was bigger than their smallest canoes, that we had vessels which would reach from Otaheite to Ulietā, about forty-five leagues; and of so vast a height, that a young man going to the top-mast-head grew grey before he came down again, that our round tops contained forests of fruit trees bigger than the bread fruit. Pomārre very earnestly pressed Captain Wilson to say if it was true; but though undeceived in this respect, they are as much staggered at hearing of a house of stone of ten stories, or a bridge over a river of the same materials, as wide as would span the narrow part of their valleys from mountain to mountain. Such gigantic ideas exceed the scope of their intellect: but whatever was related of the Marquesas, or Tongataboo, their inhabitants, country, manners, trees, canoes, was heard with the greatest avidity, and always drew an audience about the relator, beyond their favourite national stories.

“ They lay not the least restraint upon their children from the day they are born; being the head of their families, they are indulged in every thing: they have their own amusements, called heiva tama rēede; as they grow up and advance to manhood these are generally abandoned; but none are controlled by any authority, and any one may continue in them if he pleases.

“ Though in some respect they are not at all delicate, yet in consequence of their frequent bathings, in the largest companies there is nothing offensive but the heat. Here, as elsewhere, there are some who make a trade of beauty, and know too how to make their advantage of it, having a number of pimps and bawds, nominal relations, who agree for and receive the price of prostitution; but if a person is the tayo of the husband, he must indulge in no liberties with the sisters or the daughters, because they are considered as his own sisters or daughters, and incest is held in abhorrence by them; nor will any temptation engage them to violate this bond of purity. The wife however is excepted, and considered as a common property for the tayo. Lieutenant Corner also added, that a tayoship formed between different sexes put the most solemn barrier against all personal liberties. Our brethren who are returned, however, think this not to be the case; or that they

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have, since his visit, degenerated. The women of quality allow themselves greater liberties than their inferiors; and many of the arceoy women pride themselves on the number of their admirers, and live in a fearfully promiscuous intercourse. Few children can be the consequence, and these are universally murdered the moment they are born. Yet, with all this, many are true and tender wives; their large families prove their sacred attachment to the individual with whom they are united; and our European sailors who have cohabited with them have declared, that more faithful and affectionate creatures to them and their children could no where be found. The history of Peggy Stewart marks a tenderness of heart that never will be heard without emotion: she was daughter of a chief, and taken for his wife, by Mr. Stewart, one of the unhappy mutineers. They had lived with the old chief in the most tender state of endearment; a beautiful little girl had been the fruit of their union, and was at the breast when the Pandora arrived, seized the criminals, and secured them in irons on board the ship. Frantic with grief, the unhappy Peggy, (for so he had named her) flew with her infant in a canoe to the arms of her husband. The interview was so affecting and afflicting, that the officers on board were overwhelmed with anguish, and Stewart himself, unable to bear the heart-rending scene, begged she might not be admitted again on board. She was separated from him by violence, and conveyed on shore in a state of despair and grief too big for utterance. Withheld from him, and forbidden to come any more on board, she sunk into the deepest dejection; it preyed on her vitals; she lost all relish for food and life; rejoiced no more; pined under a rapid decay of two months, and fell a victim to her feelings, dying literally of a broken heart. Her child is yet alive, and the tender object of our care, having been brought up by a sister, who nursed it as her own, and has discharged all the duties of an affectionate mother to the orphan infant.

“ They are very fond of dogs, and especially those with a bushy tail, the hair of which they employ in their fine breast-plates; and the women often not only fondle the puppies, but suckle them at their breasts.

“ The women are not permitted to eat with the men, nor may they drink out of the same cup. Many kinds of food are utterly forbidden them;

them ; and those which they may use are gathered and dressed by themselves, or by those feminine male associates who wait upon them, and live with them. If a man touch their peculiar food, they are obliged to throw it away. No representation of a woman is permitted at any of their morais.

“ But of all their customs, those marked with greatest horror, are the infant murders committed in the arreo society, and of female children, too common out of it ; their human sacrifices, and their abominable mawhoos : these, with the wars so frequent, and the diseases which destroy the very principle of life, threaten to depopulate a country, fruitful as the garden of the Hesperides : and they must, if our labours do not succeed, become in the next generation extinct, without fire from heaven.

“ A practice of a kind so abominably filthy as scarce to be credited, was communicated by the Swede, and confirmed by one of the Otaheitanians who was present—that there had been a society at Otaheite and Eimēo, who, in their meetings, always ate human excrement, but that it had been suppressed by the other natives of Otaheite.

“ They have a mode of lulling themselves to rest : the husband and wife, when they lie down, take their pipe of three notes, which they blow with their nostrils ; one plays while the other chaunts in unison with it : and they alternately continue till they fall asleep.

“ Their generosity is boundless, and appears excessive : the instances our brethren record are surprising. Not only cart loads of provision more than they could consume were sent in for the whole body, but individuals have received the most surprising abundance, without any adequate return even expected or suggested. To one of the missionaries was given as a present a double canoe, with a travelling house, three large pearls, a fine seine, a beautiful feathered breast-plate, two large hogs, fandle wood, cloth and fine mats in abundance, with various other things ; and similar instances may be observed in the narrative.

“ They have not always regular meals, but usually eat as soon as they rise at day break. Some are very voracious, especially the chiefs. Pomārre hath eaten a couple of fowls, and two pounds at least, of pork, besides other things, at a meal with us on board. The chiefs all live

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luxuriously: they only work for their amusement: have more wives than one amidst the scarcity of women: drink daily the yava; when they sleep are fanned and chafed by their women: and often sit up great part of the night at their heivas and entertainments.

“ They have a very similar way of expressing their joy as well as sorrow: for whether a relation dies, or a dear friend returns from a journey, the shark’s tooth instrument, with which every woman furnishes herself at her marriage, is again employed, and the blood streams down. As our brethren signified their utter disapprobation of these self-inflicted cruelties, they prevailed with the natives to suspend, for us at least, such tokens of delight; and taught them to shake hands, or welcome us with smiles instead of streams of blood.

“ Among the most uncommon customs, we may add the dishonour and disrespect paid to old age. The advanced in years are thrust aside, and receive little or no attention. Even the reverend Otey (formerly Whappai, and called by Vancouver Taow), with his venerable white beard, the father of Pomarre, and the grandfather of Otoo, was scarcely noticed by them: they would hardly permit him to enter the cabin when on board; and unless the captain expressly called to him, they kept him alongside in his canoe. One of our old seamen was often the object of their ridicule. In discourse, when any thing useless was mentioned, they called it “ old man.” At Tongataboo, we noticed the very reverse, in the presence of the aged the younger persons observed a most respectful silence.

“ Their mode of salutation is very different from ours: they touch noses; and wonder that we can express affection by wetting one another’s faces with our lips.

“ In war they practise no discipline, and are under no obligation to fight longer than they like; and it is much less disgraceful, to run away from an enemy with whole bones, than to fight and be wounded; for this, they say, would prove a man rather foolish than warlike. Except a man has killed an enemy, he is not esteemed a warrior, and though they dread a scar as dishonourable, they fight with a fury bordering on madness, as they know the loss of a battle would be the loss of all their property, which, though of inconsiderable value, they are reluctant to
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be deprived of, not so much from any covetous desire of possessing, as from their priding themselves on their generosity, and having something to give; and this they do with a grace that adds still more to the favour.

“ When a person of eminence dies, even if a child of the superior class, he is preserved, and not buried, unless he died of some contagious or offensive disease. They take out the viscera, and dry the body with cloth, anointing it within and without with the perfumed oil; and this is frequently repeated. The person who performs this office is counted unclean, and may not touch provisions or feed himself for a month. The relations and friends who are absent, perform their part of the funeral rites at their arrival, each female presenting a piece of cloth to the corpse, and they continue to dress and decorate the body as if alive, and to furnish it with provisions, supposing that the soul which hovers round receives satisfaction from such marks of attention; they therefore not only take care of it thus, but repeat before it some of the tender scenes which happened during their life-time, and wiping the blood which the shark's teeth has drawn, deposit the cloth on the tupapow, as the proof of their affection. Whilst any offensive smell remains, they surround the corpse with garlands of flowers, and bring the sweet scented oil to anoint it.

“ If a chief dies, he is carried round the island to the districts where he had property, or where his particular friends reside; and the funeral ceremony is repeated: after a tour of some months, he returns to rest at the place of his usual residence. Some bodies are preserved like dried parchment, others, when the flesh is mouldered away, after lying on the tupapow, are buried.

“ The preserved corpses are called tupapow mûre, and kept above ground; and these, in war, are as liable to be taken prisoners as the living, and are as great a trophy as an enemy slain in battle. The man who takes the body assumes the chieftain's name; therefore, in time of invasion, these are generally the first things conveyed to the mountains, as a place of security: thither, also, they carry Captain Cook's picture, the loss of which would be esteemed as afflictive as that of a chief; and the conqueror might lay claim to the district allotted to him, according to their laws of succession.

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“ The priests never pray over the dead, unless they die of some infectious disorder, and then they entreat him to bury the disease with him in the grave, and not inflict it on any other person when he is sent back as an *eatōā*. They throw a plantain-tree into the grave, and bury with him, or burn all his utensils, that no person may be infected by them.

“ They bury none in the *morai*, but those offered in sacrifice, or slain in battle, or the children of chiefs which have been strangled at the birth—an act of atrocious inhumanity too common. When, at last, after the flesh is consumed above ground, they bury the bones, they often preserve the skull, as a precious relic, wrapping it in cloth, and keeping it with great care in a frame or box in their house, as a testimony of their affection.

“ When any friend, or a stranger, visits a family, he is received with the most cordial welcome. The master and mistress, and perhaps all in the house, call out and repeat it, *Mannōwwa*, welcome; to which the visitor replies. *Harre minay*, I am coming: those of the house answer, *Yōurana t' Eatōā*, God bless you; to which the reply is, *Tāyecay*, here, and then sits down. The occasion of his visit and his wishes are demanded by the master of the family, and answered with the greatest frankness. Instantly preparation is made of a pig or fowl, to entertain the stranger; and if it is more than can be eaten it is put into a basket, and sent with him home: meantime, whatever he requests is given, if in the power of the host; and if not, he sends round to his friends and neighbours to procure it: this also is accompanied with a present of cloth and perfumed oil, or something which hath cost them labour, as they say provisions come spontaneously, and are to be made little store of; but what is manufactured, or obtained with toil, is best suited to be given or received as presents. If any person sneezes, they use the same salutation, God bless you, *yōurana t' eatōā*.

“ They never return thanks, nor seem to have a word in their language expressive of that idea. Should they not meet with a cordial welcome, they would say so without scruple to the next person they visited, which would be highly disgraceful to the offender, as their established law of hospitality is to entertain all strangers; and many make the tour of the island

island for months together, sure to find every where a cordial reception.

“ When a chief, or stranger of rank, visits them from another island all the men of his own station in life present their oodoo, or peace-offering. He is seated in the house of strangers, several being erected for this very purpose, vast and spacious; the chiefs of the district assemble round him, with a priest, who makes a long prayer, or oration; and having several young plantain trees, he ties a bunch of red feathers to one of them, and with a pig or fowl, lays it at the stranger's feet, who takes the feathers, and sticks them in his ear, or his hair. The priests of the inferior secondary chiefs repeat a like offering, and a feast is immediately provided, with presents of cloth, hogs, &c. If a ratirra visits, he will still find a more numerous body to receive him; and though the feast may not be as sumptuous, there are so many to welcome him of his own rank, that he may stay a month in a district, and visit round every day: indeed they are seldom in haste. Nor are the lower classes less hospitable according to their ability; and every where there is such plenty of food and raiment, that some of them continue wandering over the island for many years together, and never find lack of sustenance.

“ From one cause or another, they frequently change their names: so that a person absent from them a few years, would be at a loss to find out those with whom he was best acquainted, unless he met them. The names of places and things are continued, unless they happen to consist of syllables containing the king's name, in which case, during his lifetime, they are changed, but at his death the common name is resumed.

“ They have an aversion to compare the size of any food to a person's head, and regard this as a species of blasphemy and insult. A hand laid on the head would be a high offence. One of those seamen who resided on the island, a brute, in outrage of their customs, would carry provisions on his head, and was regarded with horror as a cannibal: they have even different names for the head of a hog, a dog, a bird, a fish.

“ If a man eats in a house with a woman, he takes one end, and she the other, and they sleep in the middle. If a woman has a child, the provisions for it must not come in at the same door with the mother's;

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but there is an opening like a window, through which they are received; and it would be reckoned beastly in the highest degree for her to eat while she is suckling her child. When they travel, their provisions must be carried in separate canoes.

“The custom of uncovering before the chiefs is universal. We have introduced, however, it is said, a mode of evading it: if a man or woman be clothed in a shirt, or coat of European cloth, or has a hat of our manufacture, he is not obliged to be unclothed: it suffices if he removes the piece of Otaheite cloth which is over his shoulders.”

SECT. VII. *Amusements.*

“Their life is without toil, and every man at liberty to do, go, and act as he pleases, without the distress of care, or apprehension of want; and as their leisure is great, their sports and amusements are various.

“Of these swimming in the surf appears to afford them singular delight. At this sport both sexes are very dexterous; and the diversion is reckoned great in proportion as the surf runs highest, and breaks with the greatest violence: they will continue in it for hours together, till they are tired. Some make use of a small board, two feet and a half, or more, formed with a sharp point, like the fore part of a canoe; but others use none, and depend wholly on their own dexterity. They swim out beyond where the swell of the surf begins, which they follow as it rises, throwing themselves on the top of the wave, and steering themselves with one leg, whilst the other is raised out of the water, their breast reposing on the plank, and one hand moving them forward, till the surf begins to gather way: as the rapidity of its motion increases, they are carried onward with the most amazing velocity, till the surf is ready to break on the shore, when, in a moment, they steer themselves round with so quick a movement as to dart head foremost through the wave, and rising on the outside, swim back again to the place where the surf first begins to swell, diving all the way through the waves, which are running furiously on the shore.

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" In the course of this amusement they sometimes run foul of each other, when many are swimming together ; those who are coming on not being able to stop their motion, and those who are moving the contrary way, unable to keep their sufficient distance, so that they are carried together by the rushing wave, and hurled neck and heels on shore before they can disembarrass themselves, and get well bruised on their landing. The women are excellent at this sport ; and Iddeah, the queen mother, is reckoned the most expert in the whole island. The children take the same diversion in a weaker surf, learning to swim, as soon as they learn to walk, and seldom meet with any accident, except being dashed on the beach ; but hardly ever a person is drowned. If a shark comes in among them, they all surround him, and force him on shore, if they can but once get him into the surf, though they use no instruments for that purpose ; and should he escape, they continue their sport, unapprehensive of danger. This diversion is most common when the westerly winds prevail, as they are always attended with a heavy swell which continues many days after the bad weather is abated.

" Their amusements on shore are, throwing the spear, or javelin, shooting with bows and arrows, wrestling, dancing, and several other games at all which the women have their turn as well as the men ; but they always play separately from each other.

" The javelins are from eight to fourteen feet long, and pointed with the swharra, or palm-tree. These they hurl at a mark set up at the distance of thirty or forty yards, with great exactness. They hold the spear in the right hand, and poise it over the fore-finger of the left. At this game one district often plays against another, but never for any wager, only the district in which they play provides an entertainment.

" Their bows are made of porou, and their arrows of small bamboos, pointed with tōa wood, which they fix on with bread-fruit gum. The bow-strings are made of the bark of the roava ; with these they shoot against each other, not at a mark, but for the greatest distance. They never use this instrument in war ; and the clothes they wear on this occasion, are sacred to the game, and never worn at any other time. Since they have learned the use of more destructive weapons, the guns,

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which they have procured from us, they are said to have become excellent marksmen.

“ They are dexterous wrestlers. When they challenge each other they strike the bend of the left arm with the right hand, and if left-handed, reverse it. The arm being bent, receives the hand on its cavity, and makes a loud report. The man who returns the clap, accepts the challenge, and throws both arms forward, as if to lay hold of his antagonist. The ring is immediately formed, and they close with each other. As soon as the struggle issues in the fall of either, he silently retires, nor incurs any disgrace, and the conqueror goes clapping round the ring. If they wrestle one district against another, the women always wrestle first and the men succeed. At this, Iddeah, the queen-mother, excels; and when the party is won or lost, the women of the victorious district strike up a dance. Iddeah is usually mistress of the ceremonies, and appoints the number of falls which shall be made: the party which gains that number first, is adjudged the victor; and the vanquished expresses not the least dissatisfaction. In general, the women bear their foils worse than the men, and betray most signs of anger at being worsted.

“ They frequently exercise at quarter-staff; and are very expert at defending their head, and all other parts of their body: this they practise from their tenderest age. The science of defence is a chief object; for a wound in war confers no honour, but rather disgrace; therefore they always hide the scar, if possible.

“ They practise the sling for amusement, as well as employ it in battle, and throw a stone with great force and tolerable exactness. Their slings are made from the plaited fibres of the cocoa-nut husk, having a broader part to receive the stone: at one end is a loop for the hand, in order to keep the sling fast when they discharge the stone. In charging the sling they hold it round their shoulders, keeping the stone fast in it with their left thumb, and jumping, swing the sling three times round their heads, holding the left hand grasped on the wrist of the right, and thus discharge the stone with a force sufficient to enter the bark of a tree at two hundred yards distance; the stone flying at an equal distance from the ground, like a bullet, all the way.

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" Their dances are various. The heiva is performed by men and women in separate parties. The women are most gracefully dressed, and keep exact time with the music during the performance, observing a regular movement both of hands and feet, though nothing resembling our dances. The heiva is usually performed by torch light. The manner is exactly represented in Cook's Voyages. They generally dance under cover; but, by day, before the houses, unless it rains, having large mats spread on the grass. The women's dress is a long white petticoat of fine cloth, with a red border, and a red stripe about ten inches from the bottom; a kind of vest, or corset, made of white or coloured cloth, comes close up under the arms, and covers the breasts; to this they attach two bunches of black feathers at the point of each breast; several tassels of the same hung round the waist, and fall as low as the knees. Two or three red or black feathers on each fore-finger supply the place of rings. On the back, from the shoulder to the hip, are fixed two large pieces of cloth neatly plaited, like a fan or furbelow, and edged with red. Their heads are ornamented with the tamou, or vast braids of human hair wrapped round like a turban, and stuck full of fragrant and beautiful flowers, intermixed with beads and shark's teeth: our fine writing paper was also sometimes applied in addition to these ornaments.

" A master of ceremonies directs the movement of the dancers; and when the women retire, their places are supplied by a chorus, who sing with the music, or by actors, who perform pantomimes, seizing the manners of their European visitors, which they imitate in great perfection: not sparing the conduct of their own chiefs, when objects of satire; which serves as a salutary check and admonition; for if they are faulty, they are sure to be publicly exposed.

" The houses in which the heivas are performed are open at the ends and in front, the back being screened by matting of cocoa-nut leaves: round the ends and in front of the house, there is a low railing of about a foot in height, within which the performers exhibit; and without, the audience sit or stand: the area before the house and the floor are all covered with matting.

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“ Any number of women may perform at once ; but as the dress is very expensive, feldom more than two or four dance ; and when this is done before the chief, the dresses are presented to him after the heiva is finished ; and these contain thirty or forty yards of cloth, from one to four yards wide.

“ The ponnara, or evening dance, is performed by any number of women, of any age or description who chuse to attend at the place appointed, which is usually the cool shade. They are dressed in their best apparel, and their heads decorated with wreaths of flowers. They divide into two equal parts, about twenty yards distant, and placing themselves in rows opposite to each other, a small green bread-fruit is brought by way of foot ball. The leading dancer of one of the party takes this in her hand, and, stepping out about midway, drops it before her, and sends it with her foot to the opposite row, returning to her place ; if the ball escapes, without being stopped in its course before it touches the ground, they strike up the dance and sing, beating time with their hands and feet ; this lasts about five minutes, when they prepare to receive the ball from the other party who have stood still : if they catch the ball, they return it again : if it escape them, the other party dance in their turn. After thus amusing themselves and the spectators for some hours, the ball is kicked away, and both parts strike up together. It is at this time they use the lewd gestures described by some of our voyagers ; but these only are practised by the young and wanton, who (says the reporter) are no more to be taken for the standard of manners than the ladies in the Strand, or the sea-nymphs at Spithead, would be specimens of our fair countrywomen.

SECT. VIII. *Provisions and Cookery.*

“ The country abounds in every thing necessary for the sustenance of its inhabitants. They have multitudes of hogs, which breed rapidly, and some of a very large sort : dogs are highly relished, and rats are numerous and troublesome : common fowls are in great abundance. These, with the birds, constitute the chief of their animal food.

“ We

“ We had made an effort to increase their stock, but with little success. The mare only is yet alive at Ulicetā, but the horse is dead. In their wars the cattle were carried to Eimēs; the bull is destroyed, and the cows grown wild. The breed of sheep perished. They made attempts to dress the beef and mutton; but having no mode but burning them as the hogs, and baking them in their ovens, the hide was tough as leather, and the taste highly offensive: this made them neglected and despised. The goats have had better speed, but are disliked for their smell and the mischief they do the cloth plantations, and, are so inferior to their hogs and dogs, as never to be eaten by the natives; they are chiefly driven to the mountains. The cats multiply, and are useful. We have lately endeavoured to repair the breed of sheep, and though the best ram died, there is a prospect of their increase under our care, unless destroyed by the natives or their dogs. A nest of rabbits has been produced, and they can hardly fail of spreading. We have ducks also, but they have not yet well succeeded. A bull sent to Eimēo would continue the breed, though the natives dare not approach the cows, which are grown wild on the mountains. The same fate attended the vegetables, which the former voyagers carried thither, as the animals. Not having patience to let them ripen, and tasting them when green, they despised the grapes, and trod them under foot; and the pines had hardly a better issue: but the latter are now cultivated, and, under our care, will soon be a valuable accession to their stock of fruits. The Indian corn would ripen every three months, if they thought it worth their pains. Our brethren will probably greatly increase the number of culinary articles, though the natives have already abundance, and care not for any additions.

“ Fish they take of many sorts and in great plenty: and they have such a profusion of roots, fruits, and vegetables, as can scarcely be enumerated: the greater part growing spontaneously, and needing neither labour nor culture. The principal of these is the OOROO, or bread-fruit. This beautiful, useful, and highly esteemed vegetable seems peculiar to the Pacific Ocean, and is in the highest perfection at Otaheite. The tree is of the size of a middling oak, which in its branching it greatly resembles; the leaves, however, are more like those of

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the fig-tree, both in colour and substance: they are a foot and a half in length, of an oblong form, the edges deeply indented, and the ribs yielding, when broken, a white milky juice: from the bark, or stock, a strong black gum exudes, which serves them instead of pitch for the canoes, and as birdlime to catch the smaller birds; and which, by tapping, might be produced in great quantities. The tree is of quick growth, shoots again when cut down, and bears fruit in about four years. This most plentiful and nutritious food grows as large as a man's two fists. Its surface is rough like net-work; the skin is thin; the core but small; the intermediate part, which is eaten, white, and very like the consistence of the crumb of a new-baked roll. It is divided like an apple, and the core taken out, and then roasted in their oven, when its taste is very similar to the crumb of the finest wheaten bread, with a slight sweetness, as from a mixture of the Jerusalem artichoke. Besides furnishing the most nutritive food, and in the greatest abundance, this tree claims pre-eminence, as affording from its bark the most durable clothing; the wood being excellent for building, and for their canoes, having the singular property of not being affected by the worms; and the leaves are employed as wrappers for dressing their provisions. When the fruit is ripe they gather it in quantities, and form it into a four paste called *mābie*, which will keep till the fruit is again in season. When gathered for this use, they scrape off the outward rind, and lay it in heaps to mellow; a deep pit is then dug in the ground, and carefully lined with large leaves; this cavity is filled with the fruit, and strongly thatched down with a ridge like a mushroom bed; the whole is pressed close with stones laid over it: there it ferments and settles: when the fermentation is over, they open the pit, and put up the fermented fruit in fresh leaves, taking out the core, and storing it for use, as we cover up potatoes for winter. Some, previous to this process, cut out the core, which makes the colour whiter, but prevents it from keeping so long.

“ At this season also of the ripe bread-fruit, they make a large oven called *oppeo*. The chief, on this occasion, summons all his tenants and dependants to bring each a certain quantity of the ripe fruit, which on a day appointed, is lodged at his house, to the amount of fifteen or twenty

twenty hundred weight. They next repair to the hills for wood, and having collected each man his burden, they dig a hole eight or nine feet deep, paving it, and building it up with large pebbles; this they fill with wood, and setting it on fire, when burnt out, and the stones thoroughly heated, they spread the embers on the bottom of the pit with long poles: these they cover with green leaves and the bruised stalk of the plantain: the pit is filled with the bread-fruit, and covered with stalks and leaves at bottom as on the sides, and hot embers spread over them; the oven is then thatched down quickly with grass and leaves, and the earth that was dug out cast over the whole. After two or three days it is fit for use, when they make an opening, taking out as much as they need, and stopping it again close. This paste makes a most nutritious sweet pudding, and all the children of the family and their relations feast on it eagerly. During this festive season they seldom quit the house, and continue wrapped up in cloth: and it is surprising to see them in a month become so fair and fat, that they can scarcely breathe: the children afterwards grow amazingly. The baked bread-fruit in this state very much in taste resembles gingerbread.

This is repeated each returning season; nor is it confined to the chiefs, as all may procure it who will be at the pains to provide the oven; for he who has no bread-fruit of his own, or dependants to supply it, goes round to his neighbours with garlands, like our May-day ones, of a shrub called Perepeere; these are hollow, and capable of containing sufficient bread-fruit for his family: all of his own rank contribute to fill them; and if he has hands sufficient to scrape them and fill the pit, each brings his portion: if not, he leaves word when he means to call on them, and they prepare accordingly. If a chief wants bread-fruit, he sends his garlands round, and they are sure to come home full; if he sends cocoa-nut leaves, they form them into baskets for the same purpose. But, without sending, he is sure to be supplied with bread-fruit, hogs, and fish, whenever wanted. The hogs are baked in the same kind of oven.

“OOWHE, or yams. These grow wild in the mountains, from one to six feet long, and of different thickness. They are very good eating;

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but being procured at a distance and with more trouble, in the bread-fruit season they are little sought after. These also are baked.

“TARRO. The root is from twelve to sixteen inches long, and nearly as much in girth. It is cultivated in watered grounds, and the leaves make as good greens as spinach. They must be thoroughly dressed, or they occasion an unpleasant itching in the fundament.

“OOMARRA. Sweet potatoe. These are in great abundance, but very different from those in the West Indies and America, being in shape like the English potatoe, of an orange colour, resembling the tomato, and like them, growing on the stalk. They seem in taste nearest the Jerusalem antichoke.

“YAPPE. A mountain root, larger than the tarro. It requires to be well dressed, as the raw juice is acrid, and sets the tongue and lips in a great heat, but when properly prepared is very good for food.

“PEEA. A root like potatoes, and of the nature of cassada. If dressed without proper treatment it is bitter, acrid, and unpleasant; to remedy this, they grate it on coral into a tray, and pour water upon it, which they decant next day, and repeat the ablutions for five or six days, stirring it up; by this means all the deleterious quality is washed away: they then dry it in the sun, and put it up for use. It resembles starch; makes, as flour, excellent pudding; and, mixed with water, forms a paste for joining and thickening their cloth.

“MAPOORA is a species of tarro, growing wild in the mountains, and smaller than what is cultivated. The juice is acrid and hot; but properly dressed as before, is used for food or paste, as the peea.

“DIVVE, a common root, growing every where, large as a potatoe, but most like the turnip-radish. It is of a fiery pungent taste, but loses it by being kept all night in one of their ovens, by which also the mapoora becomes edible.

“TEE. A root of no great size, growing in the mountains, sweetish, and producing a juice like molasses: when in want of other provisions, they dig it up and bake it. The leaves are used to line the pits for the māhie; and to thatch the temporary huts, in their excursions to the higher regions. They make use of these also to spare better cloths: with

one of these leaves round their waists as a m̄aro, and the plantain over their shoulders, they dress for fishing, or any dirty work.

“**EUVOYE.** A kind of fern. It only grows in the mountains: the root when dressed is good food.—There is a variety of other roots growing spontaneously, but seldom used, except in a scarcity of bread-fruit, or during any stay in the mountains: then they dig it up and dress the roots around them, to avoid the trouble of carrying provisions. As they are expert at killing birds, with which the hills abound, and at catching fish, which the lakes and rivulets furnish in plenty, they seldom know want; though sometimes they are detained a considerable time in search of the sandal wood, dyes for their cloth, and sweet herbs and flowers for perfuming the cocoa nut oil.

“**E'VEE**, improperly called the yellow apple, is as large as a nonpareil, and of a bright golden hue; but oblong, and different in smell and taste from our apples; more resembling a peach in flavour as well as in being a stone fruit. It has been compared to a pine apple or a mango. It grows on a large beautifully spreading tree, three or four in a bunch; is propagated by seeds or suckers, soon produces fruit, and is in season a great part of the year. The bark furnishes also a transparent gum, like that on the plum-tree, called tupou, which they use as pitch for their canoes.

“**E'HEYAH** is a fruit of a red hue, like the European apple in taste and substance, but more watery. It has a great singularity of filaments hanging from it, which come from the core. This tree is about the size of a cherry-tree. These two, with another bearing red flowers of an unpleasant smell, are the only ones which annually shed their leaves; from the evee they begin to fall in September, and by Christmas the young leaves and fruit make their appearance; and the apples at Matavai begin to ripen in June. The heyah is ripe in November, and the leaves fall in January. The other trees remain in perpetual verdure, never losing their leaves altogether, but the young ones succeed the old as they fall. From these cider has been made by the mutineers.

“Next to the bread-fruit in usefulness, and almost equal to it, is the **HEAREE**, or cocoa-nut, which affords both meat, drink, cloth, and oil. The husks are spun into rope and lashings for the canoes, and used

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for calking. Of the leaves they make baskets, bonnets, and temporary houses; and of the trunk fuel.

“ The RATĀĀ, or chestnut, is different both in size and shape from those of Europe. The fruit is flattened more as a bean's, about two inches and a half across, but much resembling a chestnut in taste, and is roasted like them.

“ Shaddocks, transplanted from the Friendly Islands by British navigators, and called by the natives OOROO PAPPĀĀ, foreign bread-fruit, are in no estimation. The European visitors likewise have added pine-apples, lemons, limes, Indian corn, tobacco, ginger, &c. which however seem little valued by the islanders.

“ Of plantains they have fifteen different sorts: the maiden ORĀYA; the horse plantain, PĀPAROĀ; the mountain, FAYE, &c. The generic name is mayyā. The faye grows only on the mountains, and differs much from all the other species, the stalk being of a raven or deep purple colour, the leaves larger, and of a deeper green. The fruit grows all round the top of the stock, which rises upright like a sugar-loafed cabbage, and closely wedged in by the side of each other; when ripe, the fruit is a reddish brown, and within a greenish yellow, and has something of the smell of paint; if cut when young, it resembles and smells like cucumber. Of these they make a pudding which tastes like gooseberry-fool, called *Pōpōe Faye*. The root is as good as yam. Of plantains also they make a pudding, called tooparro, mixed with tarro and cocoa-nut, very like a custard. The cocoa-nut is grated on coral, and mixed with its own milk; this is wrung dry in stringy kind of grass, that expresses the white juice, and leaves the substance of the nut behind: into this juice they grate the tarro, and mix the ripe plantain, tying the whole up in plantain leaves made tough by holding them over the fire. These pudding-bags remain all night in the oven, and when taken out, the preparation may be eaten hot or cold, and will keep for many weeks.

“ SAYPAY is another kind of nice pudding made of bread-fruit and cocoa-nut milk in the same manner; and often dressed in small quantities, by putting into it heated stones.

“ POE

“ POE TARRO is made of the same materials, with the addition of the tender leaves of tarro broken into it. SOCIETY ISLES.

“ POE PEEA is made with the gratings of the peea, into the expressed cocoa-nut juice; and, when well made, resembles a fuet dumpling: though, if the peea be eaten in any quantity, it sometimes causes a giddiness in the head.

“ POPOE is a compound of baked bread-fruit and mahie, beat up together in a tray with a stone instrument, and eaten at every meal, mixed with water or cocoa-nut milk; and sometimes is made of bread-fruit or māhie separately, according to the several tastes of the persons. In this state it much resembles slummery. With this our new born infant is daily supplied by old Madam Pyetca, and thrives greatly. A multitude of inferior roots and fruits are edible, and might be improved by cultivation, but the immensity of spontaneous produce renders it unnecessary.

“ The cocoa-nut oil is made by grating the full grown cocoa-nut kernel into a large trough; after a few days digestion the oil begins to separate, which they gently pour off, and mix with it fragrant herbs, flowers, the farina of the blossoms of the fwharra, or prickly palm, and sandal wood, leaving the whole to macerate three weeks or a month, well stirring the ingredients every day. When it has acquired a strong perfume, the oil is wrung out, and put up into bamboos for use, and called manōe. There is a quicker method of extracting the oil, by exposing the nuts broken to the sun; but the oil thus drawn is always rancid.

“ In preparing a hog for the table, they always either drown or strangle it: the latter is usually preferred. If the hog is large, they make two or three rounds of strong cord about his neck; and with a stick twist it till the breath is stopped, stuffing the nostrils and fundament with grass, when the animal quickly dies. They wet it all over, and surrounding it with dry leaves or grass, singe off the hair, scraping it with sticks and cocoa-nut shells, and a rough stone, till the skin is perfectly clean. With a split bamboo, or knife, they open the belly, and take out the entrails and coagulated blood, which they divide into cocoa-nut shells, mixed with some fat of the cawl: to this they put hot stones, and
make

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make a kind of black pudding, by way of whet whilst the hog is baking. The hog being washed within, the maw cleaned, and the rest of the guts, the whole is placed in the pit, or oven, resting on its belly, and with it bread-fruit, yams, taro, &c. covered thick with plantain leaves, hot embers, and grass, with the earth which was dug out heaped upon it till ready; which in a hog of a moderate size, requires at least two hours; if the pig is small, less than half the time will serve. The leaves are placed so carefully, that not a particle of earth reaches the provisions, either in going in or coming out. In the same manner they dress all their other food; and they like it well dressed, except their fish, which they prefer raw. Their cookery is simply baking or broiling, as they have no vessel of their own capable of bearing the fire. However, they lose nothing of the delicacy of their food in baking; and fish so dressed is preferable to being boiled.

“ They make three meals a day when at home, and eat heartily; and nothing pleases them more than to observe a stranger eat with appetite. When at a distance from their usual abode, and great multitudes are assembled in one district, provisions cannot be furnished for all in proper season, and they content themselves with one meal a day; and when thus completely hungry they may well pass for voracious with those who have their regular meals, and are satisfied with the plenty around them; besides, every one endeavours to procure abundance for the stranger, even though he should go himself with a hungry belly. The greatest part of their diet is vegetable, and it does not often fall to the lot of inferiors to have a regular supply of animal food. Whatever the sea produces they eat, affirming that nothing unclean can come from water.

“ In eating they sit cross-legged on the ground, or on leaves: they first make their offering to the eatōoa (for this even heathens feel their bounden duty), then wash their hands, and begin stuffing their mouths full of bread-fruit, and dip their fish or flesh in a cocoa-nut shell of salt water, which is their salt cellar. They are very ready to divide their provision with those who have none. Any place serves for a dining room; they often squat down on the grass, or under a shady tree, and eat always separately, for fear of incommoding each other with their fly-flaps. Green leaves from the nearest tree afford them
a table-

a table-cloth, and before them is a cocoa-nut shell of fresh as well as salt water.

“ Besides their hogs and poultry, their dogs are esteemed excellent food, and much preferred to goats’ flesh, being fed wholly on vegetables. The goats, though numerous, we never saw them touch. Their fowls do not differ from our own; and in tenderness and flavour are nothing inferior.

“ They seldom plant bread-fruit trees, as they spring again from the roots wherever cut down; but they make large plantations of cocoa-nuts and plantain: a beautiful grove near One-tree-hill was set by the hands of Pomārre and Iddeah. These plantations are usually the work of the chiefs, who generally excel the lower classes, whether in sports or ingenuity. The noble women are the principal cloth makers; nor is it the least disparagement for a chief to be found in the midst of his workmen labouring with his own hands; but it would be reputed a great disgrace not to shew superior skill. Like the ancient patriarchs they assist in preparing and cooking food for their visitors.

SECT. IX.—*Birds.*

“ The number of the feathered tribe is very great. Beside the common tame fowl, they have wild ducks, paroquets of various kinds, the blue and white heron, fly-flapper, woodpecker, doves, boobies, noddies, gulls, peterels, sand larks, plover, martin, men of war and tropic-birds, with a multitude of others unknown to us. The mountains produce a great variety of a larger and smaller size, for beauty and for song; these are never seen on the low lands, nor near the sea.

“ The tropic-birds build their nests in holes of the cliffs; and as their long feathers are held in request for their *paries* and mourning dresses, they procure them in the following dangerous manner. From the top of the high cliffs, beaten by the waves beneath, a man is lowered down by a rope, seated across a stick: he searches all the holes from bottom to top, swinging from point to point by a staff he holds in his hand, and by the stones which project, or the shrubs which grow there. When he finds a bird on her nest, he plucks out her tail feathers, and lets her fly.

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When he can find no more birds, or is tired of the labour, he gives the signal to be drawn up. Dreadful as it may appear to be thus hanging thirty or forty fathom down, and four times as many to the bottom; few accidents ever happen; though the sport is often continued for many hours together.

“ They set a peculiar value on the shining black feathers of the men-of-war birds, which being birds of passage, they watch their arrival at the rainy season; a float of light wood is then launched into the water, baited with a small fish, as soon as they observe the bird approaching, whilst they stand ready with a long pole of sixteen or eighteen feet within reach of the float. The moment the bird pounces on the fish to seize it, they strike at him with the pole, and seldom fail of bringing him down; if they miss their aim, he cannot be again tempted to approach. The cock bird is most valuable, and a large hog will be sometimes exchanged for one.

“ The smaller birds are caught with the bread-fruit gum made into bird-lime, and spread on sticks of bamboo. Those who frequent the mountains will often kill them with a stone thrown by the hand. Use in this sport has made them fine marksmen; they point at the bird with the fore-finger of the left hand, as if taking aim, and seldom fail of bringing him down, if at no great distance; but on the wing they as seldom succeed.

SECT. X.—*Fishing.*

“ Their fishing-tackle consists of seines of all sizes, from five fathoms to fifty, and from one to twelve fathoms deep. They have lines and hooks of all sorts. These seines and lines are formed from the bark of a shrub called *rōeva*, which seldom grows larger than hemp, and looks like it when dressed. There are several other sorts of an inferior quality. They twist the filaments on their thigh with their hands, and wind up the thread into balls, some of two, some of three threads; but they seldom make their lines of more than two threads, even for dolphins; the three threads being more liable to sink and get foul, when of any considerable length; and as they always play the dolphin, are more apt to snap.

Their hooks are made of pearl shells, though they prefer iron, and form a nail into an excellent hook. Our hooks were highly esteemed by them. They have different sizes and different shapes for the different kinds of fish. Some are made to represent the flying-fish, others for putting on real fish, or what other bait the fish will take.

“ For the dolphin they fish in sailing canoes, at four or five miles distance from land. They never put out a line till they discover a fish, when they make sure of it, as they bait with flying-fish prepared for that purpose. When the dolphin is hooked they play him till spent, when they bring him alongside by degrees, and lay hold on the tail, by which they lift him in, never depending on the hook and line. When they have got to the fishing ground they ply to windward. About fifty or sixty canoes from Matavāi are employed in this fishery during the season, which lasts about six months, as these fish follow the sun. While the sun is to the north they are scarce; when he passes the line, in great plenty. They spawn about March, and then the fishery ceases, and the canoes are otherwise employed, either in trading to the islands, or in sitting for the albicore and bonetta fishery, which next commences.

“ While the dolphin fishery lasts, numbers of large flying-fish are caught by the following means: a number of small white sticks, six or eight feet long, are prepared, and weighted with a stone to keep them erect in the water: to each of these they fix a short line, and a hook of bone, baited with cocoa-nut kernel. These they cast out into the sea as they are standing off at a distance from each other, and taking them up at their return, generally find a fish at every hook; so that if they have no success at the dolphin fishery, they do not return empty-handed, and sometimes bring in sharks and other fish.

“ To fish for ΛΑΗΥΕ, or albicore, and the ΡΑΡΡΟΑ, or bonetta, they have a double canoe; on this a crane is fixed, at the head of which they have two lines made fast to a spreading fork, forming two horns, and at the back a rope. The heel is fixed in a roller on the fore part of the canoe, and all but one man are kept abaft to attend the back rope. The man who stands forwards baits the hook, and when they see a fish, they lower down the crane till the bait touches the water. The man forwards

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forwards keeps heaving out water with a scoop, and now and then casts out a small fish. The moment an albicore is brought he gives the signal, and those abaft raise up the crane, and the fish swings in to the man, who is ready to seize him. Sometimes the fish is so large, and the canoe so light, that without much care, the albicore carries it under water; yet seldom any other damage ensues than the loss of the hook and fish.

“ The PEERARA, or skipjack, is caught with a long bamboo and line; but from its size is more easily lifted in. Most of the other fish are taken with seines, which sometimes inclose turtle, or by hook and line in small canoes; and if they hook a large fish, they steer the canoe after him till he is spent, and then lift him in. In this manner they take the OOROOA, or cavally, the EAVVA, or white salmon, and several of the larger sort. The canoe being light bears little strain, and the fish is soon exhausted. The MARARA, or flying fish, are caught in seines of about twelve or fifteen fathoms long, and one and a half deep. With these they go out in small canoes, and shoot them round the fish; splashing the water and rapping the sides of the seine with their paddles till the fish dart into the net, and mesh themselves. If the weather is calm, and a number of canoes fall in with a shoal of fish, they join their nets, and surround them; then all leap into the water and dive, rising with a fish in each hand, besides those that are meshed in the nets. They then haul them in, take out the fish, and follow the shoal, proceeding in the same manner. Those who fish for the dolphin-bait continue out great part of the night, and the darker the better. When thus employed they sometimes meet with the sword-fish, who strikes through the canoe, and repeats the stroke in two or three places before the sword sticks fast enough to hold him. They leap overboard immediately with a rope and running noose, and secure him; but must instantly hasten on shore, to prevent the canoe from sinking. They catch also sharks, though not very large, with the same noosed rope. The smaller fish take refuge under the canoe, and as the shark approaches they are ready to secure him. Quantities of fine rock-fish are caught in pots. They are also expert at diving after them, and the TOTARRA, or hedgehog-fish, which they seldom catch in any other way. This fish, when pursued, takes refuge under the coral rock; thither the diver pursues him, and

brings him up with a finger in each eye. They sometimes continue under water an astonishing while, chasing the fish from hole to hole, and rise with one in each hand. The weather must be calm for good sport, as the least ripple on the water darkens the bottom. In dark nights they employ torches to draw the fish around the canoes, and have lading-nets ready to scoop them up. When the fish come into shoal water to spawn, they strip cocoa-nut leaves from the stem, and knotting them on a line, sweep with them the reefs and shoal places, till they force them near the beach; when, with lade-nets or small seines, they take great quantities.

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“ Besides these methods of fishing, they use two or three-pronged forks of toa wood, darting them at a distance from the beach, and when they strike a fish swim after it; others, with many prongs, are hurled amidst a shoal from their canoes, and sometimes strike two or three fish at once.

“ Whales are seldom killed, except now and then young ones which get entangled in the reefs, or are thrown over them by the heavy surf. When they discover one in this situation, they surround him with their canoes, and thrust into him their war spears; but often have their canoes dashed in pieces before they can dispatch him.

“ Their fish are numberless, of all sizes, sorts, and colours, common to tropical regions; and many which are peculiar to those seas, and for which no English names are known. Their fishing tackle displays the greatest ingenuity, and can only be exceeded by their art in using it; in this no nation can vie with them. The fisherman builds his own canoe, makes his lines and hooks, and bait, and all the necessary apparatus. The hooks are ground with coral, from pearl-shells, bones, the tusks of boars, and sometimes of hard wood; and of different shapes and sizes, according to the nature of the fishery. Some are formed like our artificial flies, and serve for bait and hook together, and though not bearded seldom lose the fish once hooked; and notwithstanding the form to us appears most clumsy and rude, they will succeed, when we, with our best hooks, cannot.

“ The women who are not of the blood royal, or married to such, are forbidden to eat turtle, whale, porpoise, shark, albicore, and dolphin.

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phin. The turtle not being caught in any great plenty, and regarded as a sacred fish, is usually sent to the chief, and eaten at the morai.

“ The shell-fish are abundant ; pearl and small common oysters, crabs, cray-fish, cockles, some of an enormous size, conchs, muscles, tigers, winkles of various kinds, wilks, clams, prawns, shrimps, sea-eggs, and shells of peculiar beauty ; there are also land crabs, but seldom eaten.

“ During the rains they catch great quantities of small fry at the mouth of the rivers : they form a large net, or rather a vast bag, of the cocoa-nut husk sewed together, with a wide mouth to receive the stream, which is held open and secured by stones to the bottom. With cocoa-nut leaves stripped and tied together, called rōw, they sweep all before them into the bag-net, and catch bushels at a draught. Sometimes the women take each a bag-net and basket, forming a line across the river, and hold it to the bottom by their feet, and the mouth open with their hands ; and when they have filled their basket, go home and dress them. They seldom return empty-handed, and the queen herself and her mother are as often engaged in this work as any others.

“ They have also the same methods practised with us, of running a dam across the river where it is shoal, and leaving only sluices open, where the bag-nets are fixed : they go above, and plunge and beat the water, to drive the fish into the net ; though to this they have seldom recourse till the waters are low, and the fish become scarce.

“ When they angle they stand in the sea up to the shoulders, using a long bamboo fishing-rod, and catch numbers of fine fish, particularly the māvoy, or sea-chub, with others of a delicious kind, as the white mullet : the red are usually caught in seines, and used as bait for the albicore and honetta.

“ There is a fish of the conger eel kind which is poisonous, and affects them as sometimes muscles do us in England, but in a greater degree, producing vast swellings in the body, hands, and feet, and even depriving the limbs of sense and motion : they have, however, found out a medicine which in a few days expels the poison. An Englishman ate of this fish without inconvenience, whilst a native who devoured what was left was almost raving mad, his limbs swollen, inflamed as in

the scarlet fever, with excruciating pain, and his eyes rolling as if they would start from their sockets: yet, after ten or twelve days he recovered, by a preparation of herbs ministered by a priest with many prayers. This kind of fish is about twenty inches long, the fins edged with green, the skin of a brownish hue, and called by the natives *pūbbe*, *pirre*, *rōwte*. It is caught about the reefs, and some are not poisonous, though they know not certainly how to distinguish the good from the bad. There is also a small red crab, no bigger than a horse-bean, so very deleterious, that it always kills the person who eats it. The *hōotdo*, like our *coculus indicus*, is sometimes used by them to intoxicate and poison the fish; but this never injures the person who feeds upon them.*

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SECT. XII. *Canoes.*

“ Their canoes are of different sizes: they are narrow, and have outriggers, or are doubled by lashing two together. The *war canoes* are always double, from sixty to ninety feet long, about three feet wide, and six in depth: the stern rises from twelve to twenty-four feet high. They are strongly secured by cross pieces, firmly bound, and extending over both sides, being fifteen or twenty feet in length. The canoes themselves are from four to six feet asunder; on these a stage is erected for the warriors: in the stage there are scuttle holes for paddling. Each canoe is paddled by sixty or a hundred men; and the largest capable of carrying three hundred persons. On the fore-part, a breastwork of plank is raised about four feet high; at this the spearmen are posted; behind them the slingers, with piles or baskets of stones; and every paddler has this weapon. Their attacks are made with great fury, running on board their adversary, and sparing none but those who attend the lashings. The vanquished can only save their lives by jumping into the sea, and swimming to the canoes not closely engaged. The canoe taken, is carried off by the conquerors in triumph. Such was the fate of great part of Otoo's fleet, the present Pomāre, soon after Cook left

* Sect. xi. concerning the botany is omitted as too prolix for the present design.

the

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the island, and the loss hath never since been repaired: there are not, at present, five large war canoes at Otaheite. Happily the island of Kimōo becoming subject to his son's government, and Iddeah and Māne Māne, since the death of Motuaro, having the chief authority there, the king hath little to apprehend from invasion, as he was most easily vulnerable from that quarter.

“ The war canoes differ from common ones in construction, having high bows, on which are carved rude images of men; and their stems run up tapering, sometimes to twenty-four feet, and ornamented with the like figures: the bottom is sharp; the sides rounding in towards the top in the midship frame, like the print of a spade on a pack of cards. They are built of short pieces about six feet each, except the keel, which seldom exceeds three pieces, of twenty or thirty feet long, and sometimes is formed of two only. The short pieces are lashed together securely with sinnet made of cocoa-nut fibres; the seams are calked with the same, and payed with the bread-fruit gum; but a heavy sea opens the seams, and makes them leaky; and they have no methods of clearing the water but by bailing with scoops, so that five or six hands are thus constantly employed at sea; and in port they are hauled up on dry ground, to prevent their sinking. The bread-fruit tree plank is preferred for durability; for though not a close-grained wood, the salt-water worms will not touch it, a property which few others of their woods possess.

“ In building the canoes, they use fire to burn out the inside of the tree, and smooth the sides with coral and sand; but those who have iron tools prefer the method of cutting them into shape, and hollow, as far more expeditious. They prepare their pitch for paying the seams, by wrapping the gum of the bread-fruit-tree round candle nuts stuck on skewers of cocoa-nut leaf ribs: these being lighted, the pitch drops into a tray of water, and squeezing out the aqueous particles, they spread it on the plank edge, and lay the cocoa-nut hulk beaten fine over it; then smear it with pitch, and fit on the next plank, pressing it powerfully with ropes and leavers, and securing it in its place with lashings.

“ The war canoes, and those sacred to the eatōa, are built by a general levy: the chief issues his orders to the towas, they to the ratūras,

who

who call upon their tenants, the manahoue, for hogs, cloth, oil, &c. SOCIETY ISLES. to support the carpenters who are sent to the work. They first examine the hills, and pitch on the proper timbers: the ratirra on whose land it is found, sends men to cut it down, and hew it in the rough, under the carpenters' direction, that it may be the easier removed, as it is sometimes at a considerable distance: when the timbers are collected, they are laid under the shed where the canoe is to be built: a feast is then made to engage the favourable assistance of the eatōoa; and being very acceptable to the workmen, they hold one before the tree is cut down, another at the commencement of the building, and on making fast every course. When the first strake or bottom is completed there is a great entertainment and offering, and so on till the whole is finished, when the festivity is greatest, and the canoe for the eatōoa dressed out with cloth, breast plates and red feathers, and a human victim is offered. The offerings for the war canoes are only hogs, &c. which are brought to the morai of the chief in whose district it is built; there the priests strangle them as usual, and clean them, smearing them over with their own blood, and placing them on the swhatta, or altar, with young plantain-trees, and long prayers: the entrails and guts are cleaned and eaten at the morai. Sometimes the hogs are dressed before they are offered on the altar; there they are left to putrefy, or be eaten by birds which frequent these places; the heron especially, and the wood-pecker. These birds are respected as sacred, and never killed, as it is supposed the deity descends in them, when he comes to the morai to inspire the priest, and give an answer to their prayers.

“ The canoe offered to the eatōoa, finely dressed, is drawn up to the morai with all the sacrifices and oblations; there the eye of the dead victim is first offered to the king, with the plantain and prayers, and the body interred in the morai. The hogs are killed and offered as before, and the priests take the cloth and decorations, which are presented to the young king.

“ Considering the greatness of the work, and the beauty of the execution, it is astonishing how, without the knowledge of iron, without rule or compass, with a stone adze only, the leg or arm bone of a man sharpened for the purpose of a chisel, gouge, and gimlet, with coral only

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only and sand, they can carve so neatly, and finish so smoothly, our most ingenious workmen could not exceed them. To cut with such instruments, out of the hardest and most solid wood to form planks, not more than two out of a tree, and build vessels capable of carrying three hundred persons, must require such endless labour and perseverance, as makes it wonderful how they should ever be finished.

“ The war canoes differ in construction, as well as size, from the fishing and travelling canoes; these latter being low for paddling, flat-sided, and consisting commonly of but one broad plank fixed on the tree hollowed out, with a raised stern. On the bow a plank projects about six or eight feet, on which a platform is laid, and a travelling house erected, which can be carried on shore and serve for a temporary abode: sometimes only an awning is spread, and here the passengers, or the persons of most dignity, are seated. The sterns are broad, and according to the nobility of the owner, raised and ornamented, some to fourteen feet high, of carved work, representing men supporting each other on their hands, tier upon tier, and surmounted by a piece of carved work, of three or four feet round, and hollow, something like a Gothic tower. These, according to their bulk, are paddled by from four to twenty men, and can be rowed single, or made double, as occasion requires.

“ They have still smaller double canoes, and single ones with an outrigger for common use. Those designed for sailing have some one mast and some two, whether the canoe be single or double: this mast is fixed with shrouds and stays; the sails are made of matting long and narrow, and have a kind of sprit laced up and down the after-reech, and reaching one third higher than the mast-head, forming a bow from the height of the mast upwards, and keeping the weather-reech of the sail tight from the mast-head to the sprit-end, to which a long pennant made of feathers is usually fastened; and the lower part is extended on a bamboo boom, to which the sprit is securely lashed; and here also the sheet is made fast. In the single canoe the mast is placed nearly before the midships; in the double the foremast is raised in the one, and the mainmast in the other, at nearly one third each. The war canoes have their masts and sails in the same manner; on the mast there is a
kind

kind of basket-work like a funnel. The single canoes, when rigged for sailing, are raised with a washboard of ten or twelve inches above the gun-wale, and on the top of this, opposite to the outrigger, is a stage about two feet wide, and running about ten or twelve feet along the side of the canoe: this is made of planks well lashed to the spars which support them, and to this they bring the shrouds. The outrigger is generally two thirds of the length of the canoe; at the extremity is fixed a float as long as the canoe, and kept in the same direction as the keel by a smaller outrigger placed near the stern; but as these are not always exactly parallel and nicely adjusted, they impede the velocity of the canoe, which seldom sails above five or six knots an hour. As they have no method of reducing their sail at the head, being only able to cast it off at the foot, and roll up a part, they are driven to the greatest inconvenience when overtaken by bad weather; and frequently, dismasted, overfet, or blown off the coast, and heard of no more. When a squall comes on, they luff the head of the canoe to it; and if she is likely to fall off, they jump overboard, and hold her head to windward till the gust of wind is passed; then get in, and pursue their course. When overfet, their first care is to lash every thing fast, and tow the canoe round with the mast-head to windward; and having a line fastened to the sprit-end, they get all hands on the float of the outrigger, and hauling the head of the sail out of the water, swing off with their whole weight, and the wind getting under the sail rights the canoe: two or three continue in the water, and hold her head to the wind, and when clear they proceed on their voyage. This accident frequently happens on returning from fishing; and so little danger do they apprehend from being thus overfet four or five miles from land, that they never think of assisting each other; nor do those who are in the water call for any help, though sometimes they lose so much ground, as to be obliged to run down to Eimëo or Ulietëa.

“ Their canoes convey them to the islands in the neighbourhood of Otaheite. Tethuroah, one of the nearest, is the property of Otoo and his family, distant about eight leagues north from Point Venus; it consists of ten small islets, surrounded by a reef ten leagues in circumference. These can only be approached in calm weather because of the surf, and

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then only by small canoes, which are hauled over the reef: thither the king sends his most valuable property in time of war or danger. As these islets are not approachable by war canoes, they afford an impregnable fortrefs. To prevent the inhabitants from casting off his authority, Otoo suffers no bread-fruit nor vegetable food of any kind to grow there, but cocoa-nuts and tarro roots for the convenience of the chiefs who go there on a visit. These islands abound with fish, which they bring to Otoo, and load back with provisions. The fish he uses himself, and distributes to his friends. About forty sail of canoes are thus employed, besides those used at home in fishery. The Matavai canoes also, when not engaged in the dolphin fishery, make frequent voyages to Tethuroah, carrying provisions, and bringing back fish and cocoa-nut oil in exchange; and a fine fish sauce, called tyeyro, made of cocoa-nut kernel at a proper age, grated, and mixed with pickled shrimps. This is put into baskets to digest for a day or two, when it resembles curd, acquires an agreeable tartness, and is fit for use; mixed with salt water it is an admired sauce, not only for fish, but for pork and fowls. The cocoa-nut must not be fully grown, for it would turn oily and become rancid. The same sauce is made in great quantities at Otaheite, and a basket of it always accompanies a present of fish, or a baked hog.

“ Maitēa is subject to a chief of Tiaraboo, and about twenty-seven leagues distant eastward. The communication is by a large war canoe, which makes a voyage or two annually, taking advantage of the north-westerly wind to go thither, and of the trade-wind to return. From this island they chiefly obtain their pearls and pearl-shells, with dishes and stools of tammanoo, and other articles. Tapiohe, famous for pearl, lies farther on in the same direction. In return for what they receive, they carry nails and such iron-work as they can spare; and this passes in exchange to more distant islands.”

SECT. XIII. *Diseases.*

“ Till the Europeans visited them, they had few disorders among them, their temperate and regular mode of life, the great use of vegetables, little animal food, and absence of all noxious distilled spirits

and wines, preserved them in health. The case at present is wofully altered. SOCIETY ISLES.

“ Their most common complaints are coughs, colds, and intermittent fevers, partly brought on by the changes of weather, and partly by the mode of bathing, to which they habituate themselves, often reeking with sweat. They sometimes undergo a temporary insanity during the wet season, when the sun is vertical, probably from being exposed with their bare heads to his perpendicular beams: this disorder attacks them usually when the bread-fruit ripens, and is attended with boils on the skin, which carry off the disorder, and the person once recovered is affected no more; though with some it continues a longer season than with others. The ague sometimes is fatal, as they have no medicine which is effectual for its cure. They are subject to vast ruptures, occasioned by too great exertions in wrestling, jumping, and lifting. The glands behind their ears often swell and suppurate, leaving large scars like the king's evil; to these they make no application but washing; and when we would have persuaded them to lay on a poultice, they objected, as they must not pass the sacred ground with any thing on their heads, or above their shoulders; and there is no confining them to the house as long as they are able to stand on their legs. As it is their fixed opinion, that no disease affects them but as a punishment inflicted by their catōoa for some offence, and never brought on themselves by intemperance or imprudence, they trust more to the prayers of their priests than to any medicine. Nature, however, and their good constitutions, perform wonderful cures. One man had received a musket-ball, which passed through his breast and shoulder-blade; another had his arm broken by a ball; a third received it as he was stooping; it passed through his thigh, entered his breast, and came out behind his collar-bone: several others were dreadfully smothered with stones: one had his upper jaw broken inward, with the loss of six or seven teeth, and a part of the bone: and yet all recovered surprisingly soon, without any application. All bandages they abominate, and cannot bear the smell of the dressings of a wound; flying always to the water when any thing of this kind affects them, and grating sandal wood on the part to take off the offensive fetor. If they happen to have a leg broken,

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it usually kills them, not so much from the fracture itself, as from their efforts to crawl to the water, from which nothing restrains them: this often brings on inflammation and mortification, where there could be else no danger. Some bear the scars of the jagged stringray spear passing through their bodies, and are recovered. A broken arm is sometimes completely restored by bamboo splints, as it admits of their going about with it in a sling.

“ Our surgeon, in his visits to the different parts of the island, adds to this catalogue the elephantiasis, which he observed of a most prodigious kind; one man’s leg being swelled as big as a youth’s body; yet he continued going about. There is hardly one of the chiefs but is affected with cuticular diseases, and many like lepers from head to foot, occasioned by drinking the yava; yet they regard this as an honourable distinction, calling it the yava skin rather than a disease. Many have, in the rainy season, considerable inflammation in their eyes, and their children are often subject to a tetters eruption, which continues for a long while. A few have been found affected with the itch, whether a communicated or an endemical disease is not certain. But of all plagues, that most fatal to society, the venereal, has been communicated to them, probably by Europeans, and it has spread grievously, one in four being supposed affected with it: many most miserable objects, with foul and horrid ulcers, carious bones, loss of limbs, and in the last stage of consumption, presented themselves. Of these was the brother of the high priest Männe Männe, worn to a skeleton by the discharge of a venereal ulcer in his neck, which affected the organs of respiration, and left little hopes of relief. Many are separated from their families in a shed or out-house, nor suffered to touch provision of any kind but what is brought them; their dearest friends and relatives shun them; they are not permitted to bathe near any person in the river; and, though they are not left to starve, they are abandoned to rot alive. Many refused all medicines, and would submit to no applications; others took them with great avidity. The benefit received in many cases by the mercurial ointment caused great wonder in the natives; and in the hands of a skilful man cannot fail of rescuing many from death and misery. This fatal and disgusting disease, being most prevalent, especially claims our

compassion, though the natives are so careless, and averse to all confinement, that it is the hardest task in the world to engage them to follow proper directions. We are using our utmost efforts to have some of our brethren under the best tuition, for the purpose of attaining medical skill: especially to be acquainted with the properest methods of treating this foul plague, and have hope of five or six who will have some medical information, and be particularly conversant with this subject; and who may be capable of affording effectual relief to such as will submit to the necessary regimen.

“ They attribute others of their maladies to an European origin, and suppose every vessel which hath visited them has left them some new diseases; among these they reckon the dysentery from Vancouver.

“ It was difficult to persuade them to take medicine, except in syrups, of which they are fond; though some submitted to swallow the bark in cocoa-nut liquor, and got rid of their intermittents.”

SECT. XIV. *On the Comparative State of the Islands.*

“ It may not be unacceptable to pass in review a few remarks on the comparative state of the different islands where we have begun our missionary attempts, as from the manners and character of the people, and the nature of their governments, some conjecture may be formed respecting the hope of succeeding in our endeavours to civilize and impart to them the blessings of Christianity.

“ Hereditary succession appears the established custom at Otaheite, and Otoo sovereign; his chieftains, though supreme in their several districts, owing him paramount obedience, and apparently at present unable to controul his authority, and in a state of general subjection. At Tongataboo an oligarchy seems to prevail, at the head of which is a monarch of the Futtasaihe race, to whom all pay homage; yet another person, under the title of Dugonagaboola, has the chief power and authority, commanding the army by sea and land: whether this office be hereditary or elective is not ascertained. Toogahowe, though not the eldest son, on the death of Tibo Moomooe, assumed the government;

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ment; his acknowledged warlike character probably removed every competitor. Besides these, other chiefs seem possessed of great power. In Ohitahoo, the only island of the Marquesas which we visited, the chief seems possessed of less power than was exercised in both the others. Tongataboo resembles most the government of Japan, where the sacred majesty is a sort of state prisoner to the captain-general; but at the Friendly Islands Futtafaire has great authority, though Dugonagaboola seems superior in command as he acknowledges himself inferior in dignity. Thus Tacitus describes Germany as possessed of a monarch hereditary, *propter dignitatem*, and a great general, *dux*, elected, *propter virtutem*, on account of his courage and military skill. In these islands strong traits of the ancient feudal system appear.

“ In their persons, the men of the superior rank all seem a larger race than ourselves, or the common people. At Otaheite they were softer featured, more full and fleshy; at Tongataboo more muscular, and affecting a more stately gait and superiority; at Ohitahoo, though complaining of hunger, they were sufficiently plump, and much more tattooed all over, and distinguished by dress and ornaments.

“ The women at the Marquesas, for beauty of feature, symmetry of form, and lightness of colour, far exceeded the other islands. At Otaheite and Tongataboo very few were seen who had pretensions to beauty; they were generally large, their features masculine, their colour deeper, and many very disgusting: yet at Ohitahoo the females appeared in the most abject subjection, whilst at Otaheite some enjoyed distinguished dignity, with particular prohibitions as to food; and those who were under restrictions seemed not so enslaved, and at liberty to change their husbands if they pleased. At Tongataboo some were held in highest reverence, and Futtafaire himself paid one elderly woman the same expression of homage which he received from every other chief-tain.

“ In improvements and civil government the people of the Friendly Islands appear superior: their canoes are larger, more numerous, and better formed; their clubs and carvings more curious, their land better cultivated, their roads neatly maintained, and their country generally enclosed with reed fences; property also appears more protected, and

no

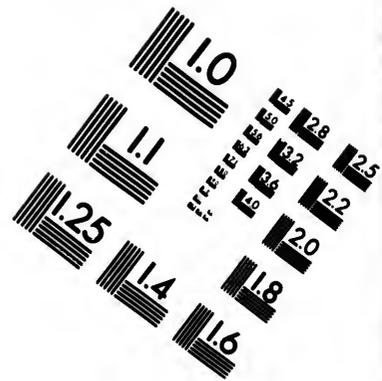
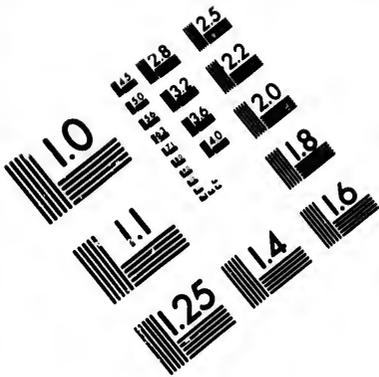
no arbitrary exactions were noticed : while the despotic rule at Otaheite, in many instances, and the insolent demands of the arceoy society, tend to destroy all industry. Respect for the chiefs is every where great, but appeared least at Ohitahoo. SOCIETY ISLES.

“ In manners, the Society islanders seem the most dissolute, and the arceoy society the sink of lewdness and cruelty. In the Friendly Islands marriage is general, and, except the chiefs, they seem to have only one wife. It is said at Tongataboo, that adultery is punished with death. There, and at the Marquesas, no infant murders are allowed ; but, contrariwise, they are fond of their children, and take pleasure in a numerous family. Though at the decease of Tibo Moomōoe, and during his illness, some cruel and inhuman practices are mentioned, yet nothing comparable with the horrible human sacrifices at Otaheite. In another feature also they greatly differ, as old age is as much respected at Ohitahoo and Tongataboo as it is neglected at Otaheite.

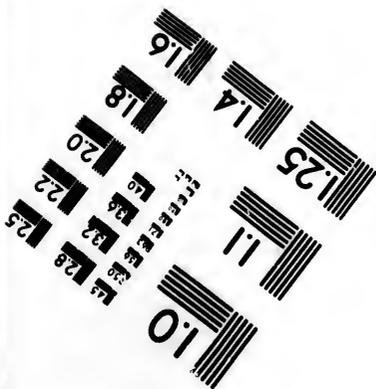
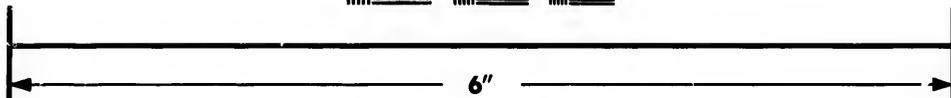
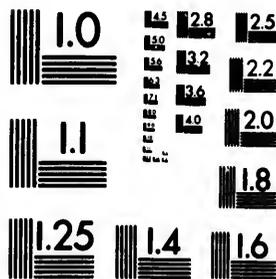
“ In their propensity to theft they too much resembled each other, though the Friendly islanders seemed the most daring. With respect to the disease which makes the most fatal ravage, the Society islanders are much the most generally infected ; fewer at Tongataboo ; and at the Marquesas it is happily yet unknown.

“ As to native fertility, all the islands, with prudence and culture, would furnish abundant supplies ; but as the natives labour little, and trust to the spontaneous productions of the earth chiefly, all suffer at certain times of the year, when the bread-fruit is out of season, a temporary scarcity. At Ohitahoo it amounted to hunger ; the mǎhie was disgusting ; and the very animals were pinched for want of food, though no where did the bread fruit trees appear more flourishing. At Tongataboo, the chiefs, to secure plenty, changed their abodes to other islands. At Otaheite the greatest profusion of native productions appeared, notwithstanding the horrible waste committed at their feasts, and by the arceoy society ; and want is seldom known. The border of low land teems with plenty of bread-fruit, evee, and cocoa-nut. At Ohitahoo there is no low land ; at Tongataboo the country is flat and enclosed, and, though little cultivated, very productive. But after visiting all the other islands, Captain Wilson observes, that he was forcibly struck, at his second visit to Otaheite, with the superior politeness of their manners, their





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their singular cordiality of address, and their visible improvement during that small space in the scale of civilization in dress as well as behaviour: and taking into the account its amenity, the salubrity of the climate, the plenty of fine water, spontaneous productions of the earth, the rich and most romantically picturesque appearances of the country, he felt the justice of the title given to Otaheite by one of the navigators, as the Queen of Islands."*

Easter Island.

As an appendage to this article some account may be added of Easter Island, a detached and remote region, which however, so far as the discoveries yet extend, seems rather to belong to Polynesia, than to South America. This isle appears to have been first seen by Davis in 1686; and was afterwards visited by Cook and La Perouse. It is of a triangular form, the longest side being about twenty-five miles in length, and at one extremity there appears to have been a volcano. The buildings and rude colossal images, here found, impressed Dr. Forster with the idea that Easter Island had once been held by a people more advanced in society than the present inhabitants; but this opinion appears to be overturned by the observations and prints in the voyage of La Perouse. The abundance of loose stones seems to have led the natives to use them in constructing their cottages; and the door is so low that it will only admit a person creeping on hands and knees. The hut is often connected with a cave or cellar, in which these islanders deposit their food, tools, and little property, the height being little more than five feet. The wall of that side of the cottage which is most exposed to the wind, is considerably higher than the rest, to protect the roof, which serves as a terrace. There are also long edifices constructed of wood. The morais, or burial places, are of a more remarkable structure; being a kind of platform, in which are fixed shapeless and uncouth masses, rudely carved in imitation of busts, sometimes about fifteen feet in height, and the face five feet. In these a red lava, very porous and light,† is chiefly employed; and the French engineer observes that any

* Missionary Voyage to the Southern Pacific Ocean, performed in the years 1796, 1797, 1798, p. 315. et seq.

† Perhaps coral rock, for with the French every thing is lava. Yet according to Dr. Forster, Obsf. 19. there are many volcanic appearances in Easter Island, particularly obsidian.

difficulty

difficulty in the erection is easily solved, for "by the assistance of arms, cords, two levers, and three wooden rollers, it is easy to transport and raise the most enormous masses." In fact there appears no more art than is exerted in the rude carvings found throughout the isles of Polynesia. There is scarcely a tall tree in Easter Isle, nor any brook, the water being retained in cavities made in the rocks; but the natives are very industrious, and plant paper-mulberries, and bananas, with regular fields of potatoes and yams. They have the same language and features with the other natives of Polynesia; but, as, upon a scientific comparison, it may perhaps be discovered that the extinct empire of Peru was in great part peopled by a similar race, this argument will not of itself include Easter Isle in that division.*

VII. THE FRIENDLY ISLES.

This group extends chiefly from S. W. to N. E. including the Feejee isles, those called the Isles of Navigators, and several detached isles in a more northerly position. The name was imposed by Captain Cook, in testimony of the disposition of the people; but they had been discovered by Tasman in 1643, who called the chief isle, now styled by the native term Tongataboo, by the name of Amsterdam.* His account of the manners of the people corresponds with the more recent and precise information given by Captain Cook, and other late navigators. They are contrasted with those of Otaheite, as being of a more grave and regular behaviour; and the power of the chiefs is more despotic. A greater security of property has also superinduced more ingenuity and industry; but in general the manners and customs approach so nearly, that a further account might appear repetition; and the persons of the natives are likewise similar, though the chiefs seem inferior in stature.

* The isles of Galapagos, or Tortoise, seems to be quite uninhabited, and unquestionably belong to South America. What are called Low Islands belong to the Society group, and are commonly little level patches which only produce cocoa nuts.

The idea that the Peruvians or Mexicans might also have been Malays seems sufficiently exploded by the table of languages given by Dr. Forster, p. 284. See also the Peruvian vocabulary in the description of America.

* See his description and prints in Dalrymple's Collection, vol. ii. p. 75.

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Tongataboo.

In the Missionary Voyage, 1797, there is an interesting map of Tongataboo, which thence appears to be a plain country, in an universal and surprising state of cultivation, the whole island consisting of inclosures, with reed fences about six feet high, intersected with innumerable roads. The whole is such a picture of industry, as to form a reproach to nations who call themselves civilized. The length of Tongataboo is only about sixteen miles, by about eight at its greatest breadth. On the north side there is a lagoon, with several isles, constituting a tolerable harbour. The commodities are, as usual, hogs, bread-fruit, cocoa-nuts, and yams.

Though the people of the Friendly Isles be more free from wars than those of the group before described, yet Tongataboo is often stained with human victims; nor do their ideas of property prevent their stealing from strangers. Some missionaries were here left, who imparted some useful arts to the natives, but the rats were very destructive to the European plants. These, with hogs, dogs, and guanos constituted the only quadrupeds, till cats were left in the voyage of 1797. The morais seem to have been here called fiatookas; and are constructed in the form of terraces with high steps, the material being coral stone.

Feejee Isles.

To the N. W. are the Feejee Isles, which the English missionaries discovered to be now subject to Tongataboo. It would seem, from Mr. Arrowsmith's elaborate chart of the Pacific, that the principal Feejee isle, and perhaps some of those discovered by Captain Bligh, are much superior in size to Tongataboo. To the N. of the latter is an isle, about the same size, discovered by Maurelle in 1781, and by him called Mayorga.

Islands of
Navigators.

From the accounts of La Perouse it would appear that the isles discovered by Bougainville in 1768, and by him absurdly enough called the ISLANDS OF NAVIGATORS,* are by far the most important in this large group. At Maouna, one of these islands, Captain De Langle, Lamanon the naturalist, and nine seamen were massacred by the in-

* This name was given because the people had many canoes, and shewed great skill in navigating them—circumstances common throughout Polynesia, and not to be admitted as a distinctive appellation. Perousian isles would be more proper.

habitants,

habitants, the Captain having unadvisedly given beads to a few of the chiefs, while he neglected the others. From the chart of La Perouse it appears that the largest of these islands, which he calls Pola, is about thirty-seven g. miles in length, by about half that breadth, being thus inferior to Otaheite, though far surpassing Tongataboo. Next in gradual diminution of size, and in position from W. to E. are Oyolava, Maouna, and Opoun.* If the accounts of La Perouse be not greatly exaggerated, the islands of Navigators constitute the most important group yet discovered in southern Polynesia, in regard to fertility and population. At Maouna the frigates were surrounded with two hundred canoes, full of different kinds of provision, fowls, hogs, pigeons, or fruit. The women were very pretty and licentious; and the men of remarkable stature, strength, and ferocity: so that they despised the comparatively diminutive size of the French. The villages are delightfully situated in the midst of spontaneous orchards, and the huts neatly erected, with rude colonades, and covered with leaves of the cocoa palm. Hogs, dogs, and fowls abounded; with the bread-fruit tree, the cocconut, the banana, the guava, and the orange. Iron and cloth were despised, and beads alone acceptable. But La Perouse, who had left France an ardent disciple of Rousseau, here found that savages are very different in practice from what they are in theory, and is forced to exclaim, "I am however a thousand times more angry with the philosophers who extol the savages than with the savages themselves. The unfortunate Lamanon, whom they massacred, told me, the very evening before his death, that the Indians were worthier people than us." But La Perouse did not know that this fanaticism of philosophy was to occasion such sanguinary scenes in his native country, where an attempt was made to extinguish knowledge and civilization by men who alleged the happiness of savages as a sufficient apology for their conduct.

According to La Perouse the island of Oyolava is at least equal to Otaheite, in beauty, extent, fertility, and population; and he supposes

* In Arrowsmith's chart Pola is called Oteewhy, Oyolava is Oahtooah; Maouna is Tootoolah, and Opoun is Toomahloah. There is no reason for preferring these unpronounceable names to those of the French, who have a prior right of discovery.

† iii. 413.

FRIENDLY
ISLES.

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that this isle, with the larger isle of Pola,* and that of Maouna, contain 400,000 inhabitants.¹⁰ Such is the abundance of provisions, that at Maouna 500 hogs, and an immense quantity of fruit, were procured in twenty-four hours. The natives of Oyolava are also of great stature; and here was observed the largest village in all Polynesia, smoking like a city, while the sea was covered with canoes. Though the people be remarkable for ferocity of character, scarcely to be observed in any other part of Polynesia, they are still industrious and ingenious, polishing their wooden works very highly, with tools made of basalt. They have not only the bark cloth, but a kind composed of real thread, probably from flax, resembling that of New Zealand. Their speech was understood by a native of the Philippines, being derived from the Malay, a language far more widely spread than that of the Greeks or Romans, and diffused through all the scattered isles of Polynesia. La Perouse proceeds to observe that the original inhabitants of the Philippines, New Guinea, &c. were that race of woolly-headed men, still found in the interior of the larger islands; and in some of the smaller the breed seems mingled with that of the Malays. In general the latter are remarkable for treachery and ferocity; but human character depends so much on situation, that, when free from oppression and intestine wars, the Malays appear to be an honest and beneficent people; and it is to be regretted that inquiries more scientific have not been instituted, in order to illustrate their origin.

The Islands of Navigators are covered with fruit trees of various descriptions, in which wood pigeons and turtle doves swarm, and to tame them is a favourite amusement of the natives. Among the coral rocks of the shore are found many pebbles of basalt, whence La Perouse idly concludes that they are of volcanic origin, but this new theory of islands is very rarely to be admitted.

* In La Perouse's narrative, iii. 106. it is said that Pola is somewhat smaller than Oyolava, but his chart seems to demand the preference.

¹⁰ *Ib.* 414. So Cook over-rated the people of Otaheite, now ascertained to be only 16,050. *Miss. Voy.* Foster, *Oif.* 219. sagely argues that Otaheite contains at least 160,000. In like manner La Perouse's 400,000 may probably be 40,000. It is probable that there are not above 300,000 souls in all Australasia and Polynesia.

In Polynesia, as in Australasia, many important discoveries and observations remain to be made, which will gradually enlarge the bounds of geography, so that in time they may, like America, aspire to be distinct portions of the globe, and admit a corresponding extent of description. But in the present imperfect state of our knowledge it was deemed sufficient to indicate their proper arrangement in a description of the earth; for their connections with Asia are so intimate, that if, by the voice of posterity, they be rejected as grand and separate divisions, they must ever, while scientific geography exists, be considered as appendages to that part of the world. Yet amidst this uncertainty, the account of these extensive divisions has been restricted to as narrow limits as were compatible with any just ideas concerning their situation, inhabitants, and productions; the singular manners of the natives having alone received due illustration.

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*Botany of the Asiatic Isles, Australasia, and Polynesia.**

The plants which have already been mentioned as characterizing the peninsula of Hindostan and India beyond the Ganges, form a very essential feature in the botany of those crowded groups that geographers have distinguished by the names of the Philippines, the Moluccas, and the isles of Sunda, and which, on this account, may be regarded as forming a large and important appendix to the Indian continent. Situated as they are directly under the equator, and extending to the distance of about ten degrees north and south on each side of it, every thing that can be produced in vegetation by the combined influence of heat and moisture, is here exhibited in compleat perfection. Being inhabited by a vigilant and warlike people, and unhealthy in the extreme to an European constitution, only a few commercial settlements have been established on the sea coasts, so that we remain almost entirely ignorant of their interior vegetable productions, many of which are probably peculiar to these countries, and require even a more intense heat than is to be found in the plains of Hindostan.

Botany.

* Burman, *Thesaurus Zeylanicus*. Rumphius, *herbarium Amboinense*. Specimens of the Botany of New Holland. Forster de plantis circulentis insularum Oceani Australis.

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All the East Indian palms, such as the cocoa-nut, the areca, the sago, the palmetto, and the great fan-palm, abound in these islands, and furnish food and wine to the natives at the least possible expence of labour: nor are they destitute of any of those fruit-bearing trees that adorn and enrich the neighbouring continent: the luscious mango, the scented eugenia, the sitodium and cynometra, remarkable for the bags of oily farinaceous kernels, resembling the almond and chestnut, that they produce from their trunks, the fever-cooling tamarind, the pomegranate, and the orange, with all its kindred species and varieties, nurtured by the free unstinted bounty of nature, offer themselves on every side to the choice of the inhabitants. The plantain tree, the ginger, the sugar cane, the turmeric, the pine apple, the yam, the sweet potatoe, rice, and an infinite variety of kidney beans, cucumbers, melons, and gourds, are found both cultivated and wild in inconceivable luxuriance; the larger grasses also, such as the bamboo, and the canna, which have been already noticed as inhabitants of India, acquire a still more stately growth in the swamps of Java and Sumatra than on the banks of the Ganges. The sandal wood and the precious calambac or aloes wood, the melaleuca leucadendron, which affords the cajeput oil, and the canaria, from whose bark flows the gum elemi, the annotta, the cassia, and the ebony, together with many other valuable woods and gums, whose uses and even names are unknown to Europe, are produced in these islands in higher perfection than elsewhere. Of the plants distinguished chiefly for their brilliancy of colouring, their grace and singularity of form, it would be in vain, without the help of painting, to attempt a description; the greater part have never been introduced into our hot-houses, and those alone who are familiar with exotic botany can call up at mention of the names of hibiscus, erythrina, æchynomene, aralia, ixora, bauhinia, and euphorbia, those images of splendour and singularity, with which they are associated in the Linnæan system.

The excessive heat and abundance of moisture that distinguish the Indian islands, constitute a climate peculiarly favourable for the growth of those plants whose active qualities and high aromatic flavour place them

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them at the head of the vegetable world: this therefore is the native FRIENDLY ISLES. country of the most valued spices. Pepper, both the long and the round, is found wild, and is largely cultivated in all these islands: the *laurus cinnamomum*, the inner bark of which constitutes the pungently fragrant spice of the same name, is produced chiefly in Sumatra and the neighbouring isles; *caryophyllus aromaticus*, the receptacle of whose blossom is known in the European markets by the name of cloves, abounds for the most part in the Moluccas; and the *myristica*, whose fruit is the nutmeg, and its inner covering the mace, by the mean jealousy of the Dutch East India company has been almost entirely restricted to the little islands of Banda adjoining to Amboyna. But if this part of the globe be enriched by the most precious aromatics, it is also armed with the most active and deadly poisons: the same burning sun that exalts the former matures the latter. In the island of Celebez is produced the dreadful Macassar poison, a gum resin which exudes from the leaves and bark of a kind of rhus, probably the *toxicodendron*; this species, together with other poisonous trees of the same island, is called by the natives *ipo* or *upas*, a name now immortalized by the genius of Dr. Darwin. Such indeed is the deleterious activity of this tree that, when deprived of all poetic exaggeration, it still remains unrivalled in its powers of destruction: from the sober narrative of Rumphius we learn that no other vegetable can live within a nearer distance of it than a stone's throw; that birds accidentally lighting on its branches are immediately killed by the poisonous atmosphere which surrounds it; and that in order to procure the juice with safety, it is necessary to cover the whole body with thick cotton cloth: if a person approaches it bare-headed, it causes the hair to fall off; and a drop of the fresh juice applied on the broken skin, if it should fail to produce immediate death, will cause an ulcer very difficult to be healed.

All that we know of the indigenous vegetables of Australasia is confined to the immediate neighbourhood of the British settlement at Port Jackson. The forests here are for the most part composed of lofty trees, with little or no interruption of underwood, so that they are readily penetrable in any direction, the principal shelter afforded to the few wild animals

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animals being in the long matted grafs, feveral feet in length, which overfpreads the open country. In no difcovered region has nature been lefs lavish of her vegetable treasures than in this part of the great fouth-ern continent: the only fruit-bearing plant is a climbing fhrub, whose Linnæan name is *billardiera scandens*, the feeds of which are enveloped in a yellow cylindrical pulp tafing like a roasted apple. The loftieft of the trees, and which fometimes rifes to the height of a hundred feet, is the *eucalyptus robusta*; it yields the brown gum, and its compact hard red wood has been imported into England by the name of New Holland mahogany. The red gum is procured from the *ceratopetalum gummi-ferum*, almoft the only one of the native woods that will float in water. A confiderable proportion of the vegetables belong to the natural clafs of the papilionaceous, yet few even of thefe are referable to any of the old genera; two elegant fpecies, the *platylobium formofum* and *pultana flipularis*, have been introduced into our hot-houfes. The other indi-genous plants are but little remarkable for their beauty or ufe, and the notice that they obtain in our gardens is chiefly owing to their being foreigners; two of them however deferve an honourable diftinction, the *embothryum formofiffimum*, a fhrub whose large full crimfon blof-foms refemble the pæony, and the *typhelia tubiflora*, remarkable for its fringed fcarlet flowers, nearly analogous in fhape to the common buck-bean.

As we advance further in the great Pacific Ocean towards America, and examine the botany of thofe numerous clufters of iflands difcovered, for the moft part, by the illuftrious Cook and his associates, which extend in breadth from the Ladrones to Eaftter Ifland, and in length from the Sandwich Iflands under the northern tropic, to New Zealand, twenty degrees beyond the fouthern one, we fhall find many features of general refemblance, modified however in fuch a manner as may naturally be expected by the different proportions which each receives of warmth and moiature, the two great fupports of vegetation. The four following efculent plants are found either wild or cultivated in all the iflands of this ocean that have yet been vifited, namely, the fwet potatoe, arranged in the Linnæan fyftem as a fpecies of *convolvulus*; the yam, whose tuberous root in the gardens of Otaheite fometimes attains the weight
of

of thirty pounds; and two species of arum, the macrorhizon and esculentum, plants of considerable natural acrimony, but which, by culture and roasting, become a mild farinaceous food. Of the plants peculiar to the tropical islands, the chief is the artocarpus incisa, or bread-fruit: this valuable tree rises to the height of more than forty feet, with a trunk about the thickness of a man's body; its fruit, which is nearly as large as a young child's head, being gathered while yet unripe, and roasted in the ashes, is a most wholesome nourishment, and in taste resembles new wheaten bread: for eight successive months every year does this tree continue to furnish fruit in such abundance, that three of them are amply sufficient for the support of one man; nor is this the whole of its value, the inner bark is manufactured into cloth, the wood is excellent for the construction of huts and canoes, the leaves serve instead of napkins, and of its milky glutinous juice a tenacious cement and birdlime is prepared. Of almost equal importance with the bread-fruit, and even more generally diffused through the islands, are the plantain and coconut trees. The principal of the sweet juicy fruits are the spondias and eugenia, already noticed as natives of India; the citrus decumanum, or shaddock of the West Indies; and the pandanus odoratissimus. The sweet orange is found sparingly in the New Hebrides, and the fan palm is met with on the mountains of the Friendly Isles. The inocarpus, whose fruit resembles the chestnut, the sugar cane, the paper mulberry, together with several species of mimosa and figs, are inhabitants of all the larger and rocky isles; and the piper methysticum, from which is prepared the highly intoxicating ava or kava, is unhappily but too frequent. Three plants are esteemed sacred, viz. the crateva or purataruru, the terminalia glabra, or tara-iri, and the dracena terminalis, on which account they are chiefly employed in shading the morais.

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ZOOLOGICAL REMARKS,

By Dr. SHAW.

ASIA.

TURKEY IN ASIA.

TO the animals enumerated by Mr. Pinkerton, as natives of Asiatic TURKEY IN ASIA: Turkey, may be added the following:

The common brown bear is said to occur in the mountainous parts of Greece.

That elegant animal the Gennet (*Viverra Genetta*), is also a native of these regions, and is often tamed in the manner of the domestic cat.

The Chamois (*Capra rupicapra*, Lin. Antelope *rupicapra*, Lin. Gmel.), occurs in the mountains of Greece and the islands.

Capra Egagrus, Lin. Gmel. *Caucasian Ibex*, Pennant, is found in the mountains. From this is supposed to be derived the common or domestic goat.

Capra Ibex (Lin. Gmel.), or Steinbock, wild goat, Pennant, is in the same regions, and has been by some considered as the parent of the domestic goat.

Ovis Ammon, Lin. Gmel. (*Capra Ammon*, Lin. ed. 12.) Siberian goat, Pennant, in the same regions.

Ovis Strepticeros, Lin. Gmel. Cretan sheep, Pennant, in the Grecian mountains and in the islands.

The common Land Tortoise, *T. Græca*, occurs in many parts of Asia Minor, and in the islands of the Archipelago.

TURKEY IN ASIA. In the island of Cyprus occurs that elegant species of lizard the *L. aurata*, Lin. in its general form resembling the Skink, but longer bodied, and of a pale brown colour with a gilded lustre, and marked along each side with a broad dusky zone or stripe.

L. Gecko is a middle sized lizard with a strongly warted skin, shortish tail, and broad lobated feet.

L. Turcica is a small species of a brown colour, and with a rough or warty skin.

Coluber Cebetius, is of the viper kind, and about a cubit in length, of a grey colour above, marked with rows of dusky alternate transverse spots; and beneath whitish with black specks: it occurs in corn fields, and is often productive of much mischief among the reapers.

Among insects that elegant little animal the *Panorpa Coa*, remarkable for the singular length and slenderness of its two lower wings, occurs in the Grecian islands, and has been long ago pretty well figured in the works of Petiver.

The *Hoopoe* is not uncommon in the Turkish dominions, and is called the War-Bird, from its crest.

The rose-coloured Ouzel (*T. rosfeus*), is known about Aleppo by the title of the Locust-Bird, from its feeding principally on those insects during the summer months.

ASIATIC RUSSIA.

Among the Siberian animals worthy of particular notice may be numbered the Siberian Jerboa (*Dipus salsus*, Lin. Gmel.) It occurs in sandy plains. Two smaller varieties have also been noticed by Dr. Pallas. The *Dipus jaculus*, or common Jerboa, is also found in Siberia, and particularly in the sandy plains near the river Irtysh.

Many curious species of mice are natives of various parts of Asiatic Russia, and have been accurately described by Dr. Pallas in his excellent work on the Glires. Of these the *Mus minutus* seems to be the same with the Harvest Mouse of Mr. Pennant, a native of Hampshire and some other parts of England.

Sorex minutus, or Minute Shrew, a native of Siberia, was supposed by Linnæus to have been the smallest of all the *Mammalia* or viviparous quadrupeds.

quadrupeds. A still smaller species, however, is found in the same ASIATIC RUSSIA. regions, viz. the *Sorex exilis*, which weighs only half a dram. In its general shape it resembles the common or fetid shrew, but is of a paler colour.

The Musk, or *Moschus Moschiferus*, occurs in the high mountains of Siberia, being usually found about the summits.

About the confines of the Altaic chain of mountains is found the Antelope called the Saiga, remarkable for its yellowish and semitransparent horns: it is the Scythian Antelope of Pennant.

Among the birds of this part of Asia the curious species of owl, called, from its small size, *Strix diminuta*, and from its elegance, *Strix pulchella*, is one of the most remarkable.

Strix Uralensis is another curious species, and inhabits the Ural mountains.

That elegant species of duck, the *Anas casarca*, is found in Siberia, as is likewise the *Anas falcaria*.

The *Parus pendulinus* and *Sibiricus*, the former remarkable for its pendile nest, are found in the same region.

CHINA.

A variety of the cat, with pendulous ears, and known by the name of *Sumxu*, is said to be often seen in China in a domestic state.

The Long-armed Black Gibbon, or *Simia Lar*, (Lin. Gmel.) is, according to some zoologists, found in China, while others restrict it to India.

The Chinese are said to have a remarkably swift variety of the camel, which they call *Fong Kyo Fo*, or Camel with feet of the wind.

The small Chinese variety of the hog is of a black colour, and remarkable for its short legs and tail, pendulous belly, and almost naked skin.

Among the birds occurs the elegant Chinese cuckoo, of the size of a thrush, and of a beautiful blue above, white beneath, with a long tail, each feather being marked at the tip with a white spot.

The Gold Pheasant is now too well known in our own country to require particular description.

The Silver Pheasant, though far less splendid, is remarkable for the elegance of its appearance.

China

CHINA.

China is also in possession of some very large species of pheasant at present undescribed, and known only by its two long tail-feathers, which are occasionally brought over, and which are above six feet in length, of a narrow, sharpended form, and of a fine blueish grey colour, with very numerous transverse bars of deep chefnut-brown.

The *Pavo bicalaratus*, Lin. commonly termed the Peacock Pheasant, is of a pale brown colour, thickly sprinkled with whitish specks, and adorned with numerous oval amethystine spots on the whole upper part of its plumage.

The *Hirundo esculenta*, or Esculent Swallow, whose nest, formed of gelatinous marine substances, is in so much request among the Chinese epicures, is said to be about half the size of the Sand-Martin, and of a dusky black colour above, and pale ash-colour beneath.

The *Anas galericulata*, Lin. or Mandarin Duck, is justly numbered among the most beautiful of birds, and is particularly distinguished, exclusive of the beauty of its colours, by a pair of upright curved feathers on each side the back: these feathers, which are of a rich chefnut colour, edged with white, are the last or interior pair of the wing-feathers.

The *Pelecanus Sinensis*, or Fishing Pelican, described in Sir G. Staunton's account of the British Embassy to China, is of the size of a Cormorant, and of a brown colour above, white beneath, with brown spots: this bird is trained to the practice of fishing by the Chinese, and readily brings its prey to its master.

The *Cyprinus auratus*, Lin. or Gold-Fish, the most beautiful of the finny tribe, is found in some particular lakes in the southern part of China. Of this fish many elegant varieties occur, which are cultivated with great care by the Chinese ladies.

The insect tribe in China affords numerous instances of peculiar beauty. Among the moth tribe the most magnificent is the *Phalena Atlas*, the largest of all the lepidopterous insects, and well known to entomological collectors.

Among the smaller sized moths the *Phalena militaris* and *lectrix* are peculiarly elegant in their colours.

The *Phalena mori*, or Silk-worm, of which many varieties are cultivated, forms one of the principal articles of Chinese zoology, and furnishes the materials of many of the most important and curious manufactures of that ingenious people.

To

To particularize the butterfly tribe would be an endless task.

CHINA.

Of the coleopterous, or shell-winged insects, it may be sufficient in a general view to say, that many curious kinds of beetles, as the *Scarabæus facer*, *Midas*, *Moloffus*, &c. are found here: Many *Curculiones* of elegant forms and colours; many of the genus *Buprestis*, among which the *Buprestis ocellata* and *vittata* are eminently beautiful. The *Meloe cichorei* is plentiful, and is used as a vesicatory, in the same manner as the *Meloe vesicatorius* in Europe.

The *Fulgora candelaria*, or Chinese Lantern-Fly, is distinguished by its beautifully, freckled, green, and black upper wings, and its orange lower wings, bordered with black.

Among the less agreeable insects of China, are many species of scorpions, spiders, and *Scolopendræ* or *Centipedes*, and particularly the *Scolopendra morsitans*, or Great Centipede.

CHINESE TATARY, AND TIBET.

Many of the animals mentioned under the article China Proper occur in various parts of Chinese Tatory. Among the Tatarian animals worthy of particular notice are the following, viz. The wild horse, said to be found about the Lake Aral near Kusneck, in lat. 54°, and in the great Mongolian deserts. It is less than the domestic kind, and of a mouse-colour, with very thick hair, a larger forehead than the tame or domestic horse, and with a remarkably arched front. These animals go in herds, and are excessively swift and vigilant, a sentinel, as it were, usually placing himself on an eminence, and giving warning to the herd in case of danger.

In the deserts of West Tatory occurs the *Equus Hemionus* of Pallas, or the *Dzhikketai Horse* of Pennant, a species of wild ass, of the appearance of a common mule, with a large head, and a flat forehead, growing narrow towards the nose; ears much longer than those of the horse, upright, and lined with a thick, whitish, curled coat; neck slender, compressed; mane upright, soft, and grey; body rather long; limbs long and elegant; tail like that of a cow, slender; naked for about half its length, the rest covered with ash-coloured hair. The winter coat of this animal is grey; the summer coat yellowish-grey, a blackish-chestnut line or stripe extending down the back; the end of the nose, the insides of the limbs, and the

belly

CHINESE TATARY
AND TIBET.

belly white. This species, according to Mr. Pennant, is the *Hemionos* of Aristotle, which, in those times, appears to have been found in Syria.

In the dry and mountainous parts of Great Tatory also occurs the ass in a wild state, in which it is eminently beautiful, being much higher on its limbs than the common or domestic ass, and its general colour a silvery white, tinged on the fore parts with cream-colour; along the top of the back runs a stripe of bushy, waved, blackish chestnut hair, crossed (in the male) by a second stripe of similar colour over the shoulders. It is called by the name of *Koulan*, and is seen in large herds, occasionally migrating to the north of India, Persia, &c.

The mountains of Tibet seem the favourite haunts of the *Moschus moschiferus*, or Musk.

The Tibetan ox, called *Yak*, is the *Bos grunniens* of Linnæus, and is considered by zoologists as a distinct species from the common race of cattle, though it is said that it will breed with those animals. In its wild state it is extremely fierce, and grows to a very large size. The long tails of these animals, which consist of fine, spreading, white, silky hair, are sold at a high price, and, after being mounted on silver or other handles, are used in India and other eastern countries as fly-flaps.

A peculiar kind of peacock, called *Pavo Tibetinus*, occurs in these regions: it is about the size of a *Pintado*, and of the length of two feet and a half; its colour on the upper parts is grey, freckled with small white specks, and marked on the wing-coverts, back, quills, and tail with round blue green changeable spots. This bird is described by Brisson on the authority of a drawing, and seems much allied to the *Pavo bicalcaratus*.

JAPAN.

Among the more remarkable animals of Japan may be numbered the following: viz.

A species of cat (the Japan cat of Pennant,) said to be of the size of a common cat, and of a yellowish grey colour, with darker transverse stripes, and a broad black band running from head to tail. It seems greatly allied to the European wild cat.

The Japan peacock (*Pavo muticus*, Lin.) is described as of the size of the common peacock, but with a larger bill; the space round the eyes

red, and on the top of the head an upright crest, four inches in length, JAPAN. and nearly of the shape of an ear of corn; the legs are said to be without spurs; but, upon the whole, this bird does not seem to be sufficiently known to ornithologists.

Japanese lizard, (*Lacerta Japonica*, Lin. Gmel.) is a smallish species, of a livid brown colour above, with a broad dentated yellow stripe from head to tail, which is somewhat compressed at the tip; the under parts are yellow.

MALACCA.

The *Viverra Malaccensis*, or Malacca Weasel, is a beautiful species, about the size of a cat, and of a pearl-grey colour, marked above with longitudinal black spots; the tail is long, and ornamented with numerous black rings or bars. It has a musky odour, and inhabits trees; is of a fierce disposition, and preys on the smaller animals. The Malays collect the musky secretion of this animal, and regard it as stimulant and stomachic.

The *Erinaceus Malaccensis*, Lin. figured in the splendid work of Seba, and resembling in its general appearance a porcupine, but considered by Linnæus as a species of hedge-hog, is the animal from which the celebrated concretion known in the old *Materia Medica* by the name of *Piedra del Porco* is said to be taken. It seems at present to be considered as a doubtful species, and is said to occur in Malacca.

HINDOSTAN AND CEYLON.

In Hindostan is found the *Simia Lar*, or long-armed black Gibbon, once named *Homo Lar* by Linnæus: it is an inhabitant of the interior parts of Bengal, as is likewise a smaller species, once considered as a variety of the former, and entirely of a white colour, except the face and hands: this latter is the *Simia longimana* of the work entitled *Museum Leverianum*, and the *Simia Moloch* of Audubert.

The *Simia Mormon*, or great red-nosed Baboon, with blue cheeks, is a native of the same country, as is likewise the *Simia ferox*, Lev. Mus. or *Ouanderou*.

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Among the other Indian monkies are the *Simia Faunus*, or Malbrouk; *Simia Sinica*, or Chinese Bonnet Monkey; and *Simia Talapoin*, or Talapoin Monkey.

Of the genus *Lemur* or *Macauco* two species are found both in India and Ceylon, and are much allied in general appearance, but differ in their manners. The first of these is the *Lemur tardigradus* or Slow Macauco (Tail less Macauco, Pennant), sometimes improperly termed the Ceylonefe Sloth, from the general slowness of its movements during the day. The other species, which has often been confounded with the former, is distinguished by the peculiar slenderness of its limbs, and the greater briskness of its motions. It is the *Lemur Loris* of the General Zoology, &c.

Among the most remarkable animals of Hindostan may be reckoned the Naked snouted Bear, which, till lately, was but very obscurely known to the naturalists of Europe, and was, by Mr. Pennant and others, considered as a species of Sloth, and described under the title of *Bradypus Ursinus*, or Urfine Sloth; the specimen, which was first brought into England, having either not acquired the front teeth, or lost them by violence or accident. The animal has since been examined in its native regions by Dr. Buchanan, who informs us that it is a genuine species of bear, and, when full grown, is considered as a highly formidable and ferocious animal. Its size is that of a large bear; its colour black, the hair very long and shaggy; the snout naked, lengthened, and whitish; the claws, especially those on the fore-feet, very large and strong.

The curious genus *Manis*, or Pangolin, is found both in India and Ceylon: two species, with their respective varieties, are all that are at present known: these animals are allied to the Ant-Eaters in the structure of their mouth, but differ in being covered with very large and strong horny scales.

Of the Ox genus are many varieties, one of the most remarkable of which is the small Indian Ox, called the *Zebu*, with a large protuberance over the shoulders.

The Elephant is too well known to require particular mention.

The *Sorex pilorides* (*Museum Leverianum*), or Perfuming Shrew, inhabits India and Ceylon. It is about the size of a common rat, and of an elegant blue-grey colour, with a very sharp, slender snout. So powerful are the musky effluvia of this animal, that Mr. Pennant was assured on good authority, that a bottle of wine has been rendered undrinkable merely from the circumstance of this creature having passed over the cork.

The Ceylon Squirrel is nearly thrice the size of a common squirrel, and is black above, and dull orange-yellow beneath. HINDOSTAN AND
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The Ruddy Squirrel of Pennant is found in India.

The *Tagnan*, or Great Flying-Squirrel, (described among the animals of Java and Sumatra), occurs in some parts of Ceylon.

The elegant species of Musk, called *Moschus Meminna*, is a native of Ceylon, and is figured in the works of Buffon, &c.

Among the birds of India, the Peacock well deserves particular mention, being found in this country in all its native splendour of plumage.

The wild cock, or parent of all the races of domestic fowl, is found here and in Ceylon, and chiefly differs from the domestic kind in having each of the neck-feathers tipped with an oblong, flattened, horny dilatation or process of a yellowish colour.

The beautiful Impeyan Pheasant, described at large in the *Museum Leverianum*, is a native of Hindostan, as is likewise the still more beautiful bird the *Maleagris Satyra* of Linnæus, called in India the Napaul Pheasant.

The large and singular bird called the Rhinoceros-bird, *Buceros Rhinoceros*, with two or three more of the same extraordinary genus, are natives of this country.

To these must be added many splendid Parrots, particularly of the kind called Lories; the beautiful Indian Roller; the Mino, so remarkable for its imitative powers, with innumerable others impossible here to particularize.

The *Lacerta Gargetica*, or Indian Crocodile, is of larger size than the Nilotic, and is distinguished by the great length of its snout, and the far greater number of its teeth: it is common in the Ganges.

The snakes of India are numerous: of these one of the chief, and perhaps the most poisonous, is the Coluber Naja, Lin. or *Cobra de Capello*; a moderately large snake of a pale yellowish brown colour, and distinguished by a large black mark, edged with white, and shaped like a pair of spectacles situated on the upper part of the neck; the skin on this part is dilatable to a great degree at the pleasure of the animal; this faculty is owing to the great length of the bony rays proceeding from the sides of the *vertebræ* in that part, and which, assisted by proper muscles, enable the creature to extend the skin of the neck into a large flattened oval. Of this snake there are many varieties, the chief of which are well described by Dr. Ruffel, in his work on the Serpents of India.

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About the coasts of Hindostan and Ceylon, as well as other Indian isles, are found several species of *Hydri*, or Water-Snakes, with compressed tails. The Indian coasts also present many curious Mollusca and Zoophyta.

The insects of India, &c. are peculiarly splendid and numerous, and are rivalled only by those of South America. Many of these may be found admirably figured in the publication of that ingenious artist Mr. Donovan.

PERSIA.

The Caracal, or Persian Lynx, the Syah Gush of the Oriental describers, seems to have been first figured by Edwards in the Philosophical Transactions: it was, however, described long before by Charleton, Ray, &c. It is a middle-sized species, of a bright bay colour, with slender limbs, and upright ears tipped with a sharp tuft of long black hair. It is of an extremely fierce nature in its wild state, but is said to be sometimes tamed by the Persians, and used in the chase of other animals.

INDEPENDENT TATARY.

Many of the more remarkable animals described as natives of Chinese Tatory will be found to occur in these extensive regions: the reader is, therefore, referred to what has been said of the zoology of that part of Asia.

ARABIA.

The chief animals of this country being already mentioned in the body of the work, it is unnecessary here to recapitulate them.

BORNEO, JAVA, AND SUMATRA.

The islands of Borneo, Java, and Sumatra, afford many highly interesting and curious species of animals. In Borneo is found the reddish or chestnut-coloured Oran-Otan, formerly confounded with the black Oran-Otan, which is an inhabitant of the hotter parts of Africa. The reddish Oran Otan is well figured in the splendid publication of M. Audebert.

In Java occurs the diminutive species of Musk, the *Moschus Pygmaeus* of Linnæus, which is about the size of a small cat, and of a bright tawny colour above, and white beneath, with a few streaks of a lightish colour on the sides. These animals are found, not only in Java, but in Ceylon and some other islands, and are caught in great numbers by the natives in small snares, and are carried to the markets and sold at little more than two-pence a piece. This animal seems to have been often confounded with the *Antilope pygmaea*, or Royal Antelope, an inhabitant of the warmer parts of Africa, and of nearly similar size. The *Moschus pygmaeus* is distinguished as a species by the want of the small or spurious hoofs accompanying the rest of the ruminant tribe.

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The *Sciurus Petaurista* of Pallas, or Sailing Squirrel of Pennant, inhabits the woods of Java, and leaps from tree to tree as if it flew or sailed along the air. It is said to be sometimes seen of the size of a cat, and is of a bright chestnut-colour above, and yellowish-white beneath: the general length, from nose to tail, is eighteen inches; of the tail itself, which is round, like that of a cat, fifteen inches.

Moschus Javanicus, or Java Musk, appears to have been first described by Dr. Pallas. It is introduced into the sixth supplementary volume of Buffon, under the name of *Chevrotain de Java*. Its size is that of a rabbit, and its general colour a ferruginous brown, and whitish beneath, with a pair of longitudinal white stripes running down each side of the lower part of the neck.

The Javan Squirrel, (*Sciurus bicolor*, Lin. Gmel.), is a large species, observed in Java by Dr. Sparmann; it measures twelve inches from nose to tail, which is of the same length: its colour is blackish above, and fulvous or deep tawny beneath.

The Java Snake, described in the Memoirs of the Batavian Society for the year 1787, is a species of great beauty, and of very considerable size, growing to the length of nine feet; it is principally seen in the rice-fields of Java: its colour is grey, with the head striped with blue, and the body crossed by blue streaks with gold coloured edges: it is not of a poisonous nature.

The Sumatran Antelope, a native of that island, seems to have been first mentioned by Mr. Marsden, under the name of Cimbing Ooran, or Goat of the Woods. It is about the size of a common goat, but stands considerably higher on its legs, and is of a black colour, with a patch of
strong,

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strong, whitish, bristly hair above the shoulders; the ears are marked internally with three obscure longitudinal white bands, and the horns are six inches long, bending slightly backwards, black, sharp-pointed, and annulated near half their length, with prominent rings; the tail measures about six inches, and is of a sharpened form; the hoofs rather small, and black.

A very singular species of Tortoise, is said by Bontius, to be found in Java, inhabiting fresh waters, and differing from all the rest of the tortoise tribe in being covered above with numerous scales, which, according to the rude figure given by Bontius, resemble, in some degree, those of the genus Manis, or Pangolin; its size is not mentioned: the Javanese call it Tannah or the Digger. Its flesh is said to be extremely delicate.

About the coasts of Java is found the fish constituting the genus *Monopterus* of Lacepede. It was observed by Commerçon, who considered it as a species of *Muraena*: it has the general appearance of an Eel, with a thick black head, and a very sharp-pointed tail, and is of a blackish colour, with slight ferruginous transverse bands: it is considered as an excellent food.

In Borneo occurs the beautiful Long-tailed Scarlet Lory of Edwards, (*Pittacus Borneus*, Lin.), it is of a fine scarlet colour, except the top of the wings, which is green, and the tips of the wing and tail-feathers are of the same colour.*

PHILIPPINE, MOLUCCA, AND OTHER ISLANDS.

In the Philippine islands is found that most singular animal the *Galeopithecus volans*, or Flying Colugo, which by Linnæus was considered as a species of Lemur. It is about three feet in length, from the nose to the tip of the tail, and the breadth, when the flying membrane is fully expanded, not much less: the general appearance of the animal is that of a gigantic flying squirrel; the colour above is a fine grey, waved with darker transverse undulations; beneath yellowish buff-colour: the flying skin or expansile membrane by which the animal is enabled to spring to a great distance at pleasure, and to flutter from tree to tree, is continued on each side, from the neck to the fore-feet, thence to the hind-feet,

* It should here be observed that many animals are common to several of the Asiatic islands, as those of the great Sumatran chain, the Moluccas, &c.

and

and from them to the tip of the tail, and is furry above, like the rest of the body, but bare and veiny beneath; the feet are each furnished with five very strong, crooked claws. It was first described by Bontius in his History of Java, where it also occurs. He informs us that it is of a gregarious nature, and flies chiefly in the evening. It was afterwards described by Camelli in his account of the Philippine isles; but Dr. Pallas seems to have been the first who gave an accurate description of the teeth, and who instituted for it a separate genus, under the name of *Galeopithecus*, which is adopted by modern zoologists. Of this animal a variety occurs, of smaller size, and differing in being of a rufous or cinnamon colour. A magnificent representation of both these animals may be seen in M. Audebert's splendid work on the Genera of Simia and Lemur.

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The Tarsier of Buffon, Lemur Tarsier, is found principally in Amboina, where it is known by the name of Podje.

A most curious species of Lizard, of large size, and of the Guana tribe, is found in some parts of Amboina, and has been elaborately described by Dr. Schloffer. It grows to the length of three feet, and is seen principally in the neighbourhood of rivers and other fresh waters, sitting on the banks, or on small shrubs, and when disturbed, instantly plunges into the water, and endeavours to conceal itself: the head and neck are green, with transverse whitish undulations; the back and tail brown, with a slight purplish cast; the sides and lower parts pale-brown, with round white spots of different sizes; along the back runs a continued serrated crest as in the Guana, and the tail, which is very long and of a lateral compressed form, rises on the upper part into a high scolloped crest or fin, strengthened internally by several bony rays, as in the fins of fishes. This animal is considered as a very delicate food, the flesh being very white and of a fine flavour.

In the hollows of rocks, in Amboina and other Asiatic islands, lurks the Cancer Latro, a large and curious species of Crab, with a softish body, or destitute of the strong shell with which the major part of the genus is guarded. This animal is said to ascend the cocoa-trees by night, and rob them of their fruit while yet in a soft or tender state.

The insects of many of the Asiatic isles are peculiarly splendid; but as it would be impossible here to attempt a regular enumeration of their species, we shall content ourselves with particularizing the large Amboina Butterfly, (*Papilio Priamus*, Lin.), which is justly considered as one of

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the principal ornaments of entomological cabinets. Its extent, when the wings are displayed, is more than six inches, and its colour velvet-black, with green bands and variegations of the richest lustre.

The coasts of these islands are rich in shells and zoophytes of the most curious kind.

AUSTRALASIA.

This sketch of Australasian zoology is not supposed to be confined to New Holland, but to comprize New Zealand; and even a few of the scattered islands of Polynesia.

Among the quadrupeds of Australasia the Kangaroo may be considered as the chief. In the General Zoology of Dr. Shaw, it is described under the name of *Macropus major*, or Great Kangaroo. The first discovery of this animal was in the year 1770, when our celebrated navigator Captain Cook was stationed for a short time on that part of the coast of New Holland, now called New South Wales. "On Friday, June 22d (says Captain Cook), a party who were engaged in shooting pigeons for the use of the sick of the ship, saw an animal which they described to be as large as a greyhound, of a slender make, of a mouse-colour, and extremely swift." The following day the same kind of animal was again seen by a great many other people. On the 24th it was again seen by Captain Cook himself, who, walking at a little distance from the shore, observed a quadruped which he thought bore some resemblance to a greyhound, and was of a light mouse-colour, with a long tail, and which he should have taken for a kind of wild dog, had not its extraordinary manner of leaping, instead of running, convinced him of the contrary. Mr. Banks also obtained a transient view of it, and immediately concluded it to be an animal perfectly new and undescribed. On the 17th of July this gentleman, accompanied by a small party, went out at dawn of day in quest of discoveries in natural history; and in a walk of many miles, at length saw four of these animals, two of which were chased by his greyhound, but readily outstripped their pursuer, and threw him out at a great distance, by leaping over the long grass, which prevented the dog from running to advantage:* all that could then be distinctly observed

* In such parts of the country, however, where dogs can run with ease, or without being too much impeded by long grass and shrubs, the Kangaroo is found unequal in the chase, and has several times been caught with greyhounds.

was,

was, that the animal in some degree resembled the Jerboa in its manner of AUSTRALASIA. springing forwards on the hind legs, instead of running in the manner of other quadrupeds. The sight of a creature so extraordinary could not fail to excite, in the mind of a philosophic observer, the most ardent wishes for a complete examination: these were at length gratified. Mr. Gore, one of the associates in the expedition of Captain Cook, having been so fortunate as to shoot one in the course of a few days; and it seems to have been from this specimen that the figure given in the voyage was drawn, which may be considered as sufficiently expressive, except in the article of the hind feet, which, instead of their very remarkable natural structure, are represented something like those of a dog. In Mr. Schreber's work on Quadrupeds, as well as in the first edition of Mr. Pennant's History of Quadrupeds, this figure is copied, with the fault just mentioned; but in Mr. Pennant's last edition of that work it is properly corrected, and rendered a faithful representation. It should seem that the first described specimens of the Kangaroo were males; so that one of its greatest singularities was still unobserved, viz. the large abdominal pouch or receptacle in which the young are preserved for many months after their first production, and in which particular this animal is allied to the Opossums; while, on the contrary, it differs from those animals in the teeth, and is, at the same time, allied in habit or general form to the Jerboas. The general size of the Kangaroo is at least equal to that of a full-grown sheep; the upper parts of the animal are small, while the lower are remarkably large in proportion; yet such is the elegance of gradation in this respect, that the Kangaroo may justly be considered as one of the most picturesque of quadrupeds. The head bears some resemblance to that of a deer, and the visage is mild and placid; the ears are moderately large, of a slightly sharpened form, and upright; the eyes large, and mouth rather small; the neck thin, and finely proportioned; the fore legs extremely short, with the feet divided into five toes, each furnished with a sharp and somewhat crooked claw. From the breast downwards the body gradually enlarges, and again decreases a little towards the tail; the thighs and hind legs are extremely stout and long, and the feet are so constructed as to appear, at first sight, to consist of but three toes, of which the middle is by far the largest, and is furnished with a claw of great size and strength; the exterior toe is also furnished with a very strong claw, but far smaller than that of the middle one; and the interior consists of two small toes, united under a common skin, with their re-

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spective claws placed so close to each other as to appear like a split or double claw; the whole appearance of the foot bears a distant resemblance to that of a bird. The Kangaroo rests on the whole length of the foot, which is callous, blackish, and granulated beneath. The colour of the animal is an elegant pale brown, lighter, or more inclining to whiteness on the abdomen; the ventral pouch, or receptacle for the young, is situated in the same manner as in the Opossums, and is extremely large and deep. The dimensions of a full-grown Kangaroo are given as follows, in Governor Phillip's Voyage to Botany Bay, viz. eight feet from the tip of the nose to that of the tail: length of the tail three feet one inch; of the head eleven inches; of the fore legs two feet; of the hind three feet seven inches; circumference of the fore part of the animal, near the legs, three feet nine inches; of the lower part, near the legs, four feet five inches; round the thickest end of the tail one foot one inch. The weight of the largest specimens is said to have been about 150 pounds; but it is imagined that this animal attains a still larger size.

Though the general position of the Kangaroo, when at rest, is that of standing on its hind feet, yet it frequently places its fore feet on the ground also, and thus feeds in the manner of other quadrupeds. It drinks by lapping. In its natural state it is extremely timid, and springs from the sight of mankind by vast bounds of many feet in height, and to a surprising distance. When in a state of captivity, it has sometimes a way of springing forward and kicking with its hind feet, in a very forcible and violent manner; during which action it rests or supports itself on the base of the tail. In a natural state it sometimes uses its tail as a weapon of defence, and will give such severe blows with it to dogs as to oblige them to desist from their attack. The female Kangaroo has two mammæ or breasts, situated in the abdominal pouch, and on each are seated two teats; yet, so far as has hitherto been observed, the animal produces but one young at a birth; and so exceedingly diminutive is the young, when first found in the pouch, as scarce to exceed an inch in length: it continues in the pouch till it is grown to a large size, and takes occasional refuge in it long after it has been accustomed to come abroad. The Kangaroo feeds entirely on vegetable substances, and chiefly on grass. In their native state, thirty or forty are often seen together, and one is generally observed to be stationed as if on the watch, at a distance from the rest. The flesh of the Kangaroo is said to be rather

ther coarse, and such as to be eaten rather in defect of other food than as an article of luxury.

The Kangaroo may now be considered as in a great degree naturalized in England; several having been kept for some years in the royal domains at Richmond, which have, during their residence there, produced young, and seem to promise to render this most elegant animal a permanent acquisition to our country; though it must, no doubt, lose by a degree of confinement and alteration of food, a part of its natural habits, and exhibit somewhat less of that bounding vivacity which so much distinguishes it in its native wilds of Australasia.

It should seem that there are in reality either different species, or at least permanent varieties of the great Kangaroo, which are hitherto not exactly ascertained. Some of these exhibit a darker colour than the common species, while others are of a most elegant silvery grey colour.

The *Macropus minor* (General Zoology), from its colour and general aspect has obtained the title of the Rat Kangaroo. Its size is nearly that of a rabbit, and the general shape of the animal bears a resemblance to that of the great Kangaroo, but with far less elegant proportions, and its colour is a dusky cinereous brown, the fur being of a rather coarse appearance; the structure of the hind feet resembles that of the former species, but the fore feet have only four toes: the female is furnished with an abdominal pouch for the reception of the young.

The animals of the Opossum tribe are numerous in Australasia, and differ much in size and appearance from each other. Of these the Lemurine Opossum (General Zoology), is one of the most remarkable. Its size nearly that of a cat, but it is longer bodied in proportion: its colour is a fine brownish or iron-grey above, and pale yellowish beneath; in some specimens nearly white; the sides of the neck and the feet have also a tinge of this colour; the fur on the whole animal is extremely thick, soft, and rich; the muzzle is short and roundish; the whiskers large and black; the ears upright, large, and a little inclining to a pointed form at the tips; the eyes bright and reddish; the hind feet furnished with a rounded thumb or interior toe; the tail, which is thick, long, and very furry, is prehensile, and is of the same colour with the rest of the body for about a fourth part of its length, the remainder being black; it is naked beneath to a considerable distance from the tip; the general length of the body is about eighteen inches; of the tail about twelve.

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Living specimens of this beautiful animal have been brought into England. In their manner of life they resemble the rest of the Opossum tribe; feeding on small birds, and their eggs, vegetables, &c. In feeding they often sit in the manner of a squirrel, holding their food in their paws.

A far more elegant and singular species is the *Petaurine Opossum* (General Zoology), or Great Flying-Opossum. It measures about twenty-two inches from the tip of the nose to the beginning of the tail, which is twenty inches in length, and extremely full of long, soft fur, growing looser or more flocky towards the tip; it is of a cylindrical or round form, but from the disposition of the fur appears slightly flattened. The general appearance of the whole animal is similar to that of the large Ceylonese Flying-Squirrel; an expansive membrane, covered with fur, stretching from the fore legs to the hind on each side the body, and thus enabling the animal to spring to a considerable distance at pleasure. The general colour of this species is a very fine fable, or deep grey-brown above, varied with a ferruginous cast; beneath it is nearly white; a stripe of darker brown than the rest runs along the back, from head to tail; the fur, near the edge of the flying membrane, has also a blacker or darker tinge than on the other parts, while the edge itself is white; thus forming a beautiful contrast of colour round the whole border of the membrane: a darker or blacker shade than on the rest of the fur also prevails on the upper parts of the shoulders, extending over each side of the neck; the tail is still darker than the rest of the upper parts, being nearly black. This species is most elegantly figured in Mr. White's Journal of a Voyage to Botany Bay. The same figure is also repeated in the Naturalists' Miscellany, where the animal is considered as constituting a genus under the name of *Petaurus*; it being at that time unknown that it possessed the abdominal pouch of the Opossum tribe. Its native name is *Hepoona Roo*.

The Squirrel Opossum (General Zoology), is, perhaps, next to the preceding, the most beautiful of the Australasian Opossums, and like it, is also furnished with a flying membrane. In its general aspect it has so much the appearance of a squirrel, that, on a cursory view, it might be mistaken for such; and accordingly Mr. Pennant, in his last edition of the History of Quadrupeds, has described it as such, under the title of Norfolk-Isle Squirrel. Its size is nearly that of a common squirrel, but, from the

the fulness and particular growth of the fur, which, like that of a Lemur, AUSTRALASIA. grows in a sub-erect manner, it appears somewhat larger. Its general colour is exactly like that of the North American grey squirrel. A black stripe passes over each eye along the top of the head; under each ear is a black patch surrounded with white; the white part having a more soft and flocculent appearance than the black; the tail, which is prehensile, is of the same colour with the body for about half its length, the remainder being black; it is very full of hair, and tapers a little towards the extremity, but without any acute termination; the eyes are black, rounded, and full; the ears round, shortish, and very thin; the whole under-side of the animal is milk-white, and the edge of the lateral, or flying membrane, which extends from the fore feet to the hind, is edged with a blackish border, as in the Flying-Squirrels; the abdominal pouch is of considerable size, and is situated as in other Opossums, on the lower part of the abdomen; the hind feet are furnished with a rounded thumb. This species is a nocturnal animal, and continues torpid during the greatest part of the day, but by night is full of activity. In this, as well as in other Australasian Opossums, the two toes on the hind feet, nearest to the thumb or rounded toe, are connate, or both conjoined under one common skin.

The Porculline Opossum (General Zoology), is about the size of a half-grown domestic rat, and is of a thicker or more corpulent habit than most others of the genus; the hind legs are considerably longer than the fore, and have, in miniature, the form of those of the Kangaroo, though the middle claws are far smaller in proportion; the inner ones are double, or both covered by a common skin; the colour of this species is pale yellow-brown, inclining to whitish beneath; the hair is of a coarser, or more harsh appearance than in the rest of the small Opossums; the ears are rounded, and the tail rather long. When viewed in a cursory manner, this animal has a distant resemblance to a pig in miniature.

The Viverrine Opossum is remarkable for its slender form, which, together with its sharpened visage, and long brushy tail, gives it, at first view, the appearance of one of the weasel tribe, rather than that of an Opossum. Its general size seems to be that of a stoat; its colour is black, varied with spots of white; the tail entirely black; of this animal a variety appears to exist, of somewhat smaller size, and entirely of a greyish brown colour.

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The Long-Tailed Opossum (General Zoology), is about the size of a black rat, and is of a dark grey above, and whitish beneath; the head and neck are also whitish, but a dusky stripe runs along the top of the head almost to the nose; the ears are whitish, and slightly rounded; the upper parts of the fore feet are whitish, and the tail, which is very long, but not brushy, is grey at the base, and gradually deepens into a blackish cast as it approaches the tip; the skin on each side the body is slightly dilated.

The Brush-Tailed Opossum (General Zoology), is of similar size with the immediately preceding; its general colour is a deep grey; the nose is rather sharp; the ears moderately large, and very slightly pointed at the tips; the sides of the mouth are furnished with very long vibrissæ, or whiskers; the sides are slightly dilated into a flying membrane, and the tail is thin and ash-coloured for near half its length, and from thence jet black, with very long, fine hairs, so disposed as to represent a brush, or large camel-hair pencil.

The White-Tailed Opossum is described in Hawkesworth's Voyage, vol. iii. p. 586, as well as in the first volume of Captain Cook's last Voyage: it is about twice the size of a rat, and of a rusty brown above, whitish beneath; the hair soft and glossy; the tail taper, and nearly the length of the body; it is covered with brown hair to within about four inches and a half at the end, where it is white, bare, and prehensile; the ears are short and rounded, and the face rather long.

The Wombat, or Urine Opossum (General Zoology), is the largest of all the Opossums, being nearly of the size of a badger; its colour is a pale dull yellow; the fur longish, and sub-erect; the limbs very thick and strong; the neck so thick and short as greatly to restrain the motions of the head, which is large and somewhat flattened, with small, distant eyes, pointed ears, and small mouth; the fore feet are furnished with five very strong, crooked claws, and the hind feet with four; the tail is entirely concealed by the hair, and is a mere naked stump of about half an inch in length. This animal is described in Captain Collins's Account of the English Colony in New South Wales, where it is said to be somewhat awkward in its movements, and of no great swiftness; it may be seized with impunity, but if much irritated, defends itself fiercely with its teeth and claws.

Lastly, the Pygmy Opossum (General Zoology), is by far the most minute of all the Opossums, and is a quadruped of extraordinary elegance: its size scarcely

scarcely equals that of the common mouse; the fur on the whole animal is extremely fine, and of a pale brown colour above, whitish beneath; the sides are furnished with an expansive flying membrane, the edges of which are white; the nose, feet, and internal surface of the ears light pink, or flesh-colour; the tail is of the length of the body, and of a flattened form, being beautifully edged on each side, to a small distance, with soft, silky hair; the opening of the abdominal pouch is of a semilunar form, and on opening this receptacle, two young ones, rather large in proportion to the parent, have been found, totally destitute of hair, and consequently not yet arrived at the period of their second birth; the tongue in this little animal is remarkably large and long, and of a flattened form; the hind feet have rounded thumbs, and the two inner toes are united under a common skin.

A very extraordinary species of *Myrmecophaga*, or Ant-Eater, is found in New Holland. This is the Aculeated Ant-Eater (General Zoology). It is a striking instance of that beautiful gradation so frequently observed in the animal kingdom, by which creatures of one tribe or genus approach to those of very different ones. It may be said to form a connecting link between different genera, being allied, in its external coating, to the Hedgehogs and the Porcupines, while in the structure of its mouth it is closely allied to the Ant-Eaters and the Pangolins. Its general length is about a foot, the body being of a plump or thick form, but capable of considerable elongation at the pleasure of the animal; the whole upper parts of the body are thickly coated with strong and very sharp spines of considerable length, and resembling those of the Porcupine, except that they are thicker in proportion, and that instead of being encircled or annulated with several alternate rings of black and white, as in that animal, they are mostly of a yellowish white colour, with dusky or black tips, the colour running down some part of the quill, and being separated from the whitish part by a circle of dull orange. The head, legs, and whole under parts of the body are deep brown or sable, and are thickly coated with strong, close-set, bristly hair; the tail is extremely short, slightly flattened at the tip, and coated on the upper part with spines, at least equal to those of the back in length, and pointing perpendicularly upwards; the snout is long and tubular, and perfectly resembles in structure that of the *Myrmecophaga jubata*, or great Ant Eater; having only a very small orifice or opening at the tip, from whence is protruded a very long worm-shaped tongue,

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tongue, as in other Ant-Eaters; the nostrils are small, and seated at the extremity of the snout; the eyes are small; the legs very short and thick; each furnished with five rounded, broad toes; on the fore feet are five very long, strong, and blunt claws, of a black colour; on the hind feet are only four claws; the thumb, which is broader than the rest of the toes, being destitute of a claw. In its mode of life this species perfectly resembles the rest of the Ant-Eaters. It is generally found in the midst of some large ant-hill. It burrows with great strength and celerity under ground when disturbed, its feet and legs being excessively strong and short, and wonderfully adapted to this purpose. It will even burrow under a pretty strong pavement, removing the stones with its claws, or under the bottom of a wall. During these exertions its body is lengthened or stretched to an uncommon degree, and appears very different from the short or plump aspect which it bears in its undisturbed state.

A second species of Aculeated Ant-Eater has been lately discovered in the same country. This differs from the former in being of a dull white or cream-colour, and in having considerably shorter spines in proportion.

The *Vespertilio Vampyrus*, or Vampire Bat, is found in New Holland, as are also two or three other much smaller species.

The *Dingo*, or Dog of Australasia, is an animal of great strength and fierceness. It approaches in appearance to the largest kind of shepherd's dog; the ears are short and upright, and the tail rather bushy: the hair of these dogs is long, thick, and strait, and is commonly of a reddish dun-colour. The dog is supposed to have been brought into New Holland from New Guinea; so that it cannot be considered as a real native.

The *Platypus anatinus*, or Duckbill, the most extraordinary of all quadrupeds, is an inhabitant of small lakes in New Holland, and is never observed on land, but appears at intervals to rise from the deeper parts of the water to the surface in the manner of a turtle, in order to breathe. Of all animals it exhibits the most extraordinary conformation; the beak of a duck seeming engrafted on the head of a quadruped: so accurate is the similitude, that, at first view, it excites the idea of some deceptive preparation by artificial means; the epidermis, proportion, serratures, manner of opening, and other particulars of the beak of a Shoveler, or other broad-billed species of duck, presenting themselves to the view; nor is it, without minute examination, that we can persuade ourselves of its being

being the genuine snout of a quadruped; the body is depressed, and has some resemblance to that of an otter in miniature; it is covered with a very thick, soft, and beaver-like fur, and is of a moderately dark brown colour above, and of a sub-ferruginous white beneath, with some variation as to intensity of colour in different individuals; the head is flattish, and rather small than large; the eyes very small; the tail flat, furry like the body, rather short, and obtuse, with an almost bifid termination; it is broad at the base, and gradually lessens to the tip. The general length of the animal, from the tip of the beak to the end of the tail, seems to be from thirteen or fourteen to eighteen inches; the legs are very short, terminating in a broad web, which, on the fore feet, extends to a considerable distance beyond the claws, but on the hind feet reaches no farther than the roots of the claws; the claws on the fore feet are five in number, strait, strong, and pointed, but on the hind feet, in the male, are six claws, the sixth or interior one being seated much higher up than the rest, and resembling a strong, sharp spur. The Duckbill was first described by Dr. Shaw, in the Naturalist's Miscellany, under the title of *Platypus anatinus*. One specimen only had at that time made its way to England. About a year afterwards Sir Joseph Banks received some specimens. In the Philosophical Transactions may be found some very interesting particulars relative to the anatomy of this animal, by Mr. Home, who examined for this purpose a specimen which had been sent preserved in spirits to Sir Joseph Banks. According to Mr. Home's observations, the animal appears to be ovi-viviparous, in the manner of several of the Amphibia. Mr. H. could not discover any nipples on the female, so that it may be doubted whether this extraordinary being can properly be ranked among the Mammalia.

The birds of so extensive a region as Australasia may well be supposed to be extremely numerous. Among those which have hitherto attracted the notice of the naturalist are the following:

The *Mountain Eagle*. This species is figured in Captain Collins's Account of the English Colony in New South Wales. It is said to have stood about three feet in height; and according to the coloured engraving accompanying the memorandum, was of an uniform dusky or cinereous brown, the edges of the smaller wing-coverts rust-coloured; the bill palish brown; the cere (if such it be), flesh-coloured, and the eyes bright red; the top of the head furnished with a smooth and somewhat depending

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slightly ferruginous crest; the legs feathered down to the feet, which are pale; the claws black; the tail very slightly pointed. The natives asserted that it would carry off a middle-sized Kangaroo. A variety of the Cincereous Eagle is found in New Holland.

The *White Hawk* in shape and general appearance seems very nearly allied to the *Falco cyaneus*, or Hen-Harrier, but is entirely white, without any variegation; the beak is black; the cere and legs yellow.

A fine species, allied to the Pondicherry Eagle, but larger, and with the head and under parts milk-white, is called in New Holland by the title of *Girrinera*.

The *Radiated Falcon* is a New Holland species, measuring nearly two feet in length, and of a bright chestnut colour, with numerous black streaks, the head and neck being crossed with fine lines of the same colour; the larger wing-feathers and tail are brown; the latter very long, and crossed by pretty numerous black bars.

Among the birds of the Owl tribe in New Holland may be particularized a species called *Boobook*, allied to the common brown owl, but marked on the head with yellow streaks, and on the back with yellow spots; the chin and throat are yellow; the thighs and legs covered with yellow feathers, marked with black.

A variety of the Canada Owl is also found in these regions, of a browner colour than in the Canadian specimens.

A seeming variety of the White or Barn Owl also occurs, of a deeper or richer colour than in Europe.

The *Yellow-bellied Shrike* is of the size of the great English Shrike, or Butcher-Bird, and is of an olive-brown above, and of a bright yellow beneath; the head and neck black, with two white stripes on each side the head, which is somewhat crested.

The *Black-headed Shrike* is about six inches long, and of an olive colour, with black head, a black bar across the tail, which is tipped with yellow. It is chiefly found in the Sandwich Islands.

Several other species of this genus are found in New Holland, but as they are chiefly known from drawings, their size and some other particulars are as yet uncertain.

Of the Crow and Roller tribes may be mentioned a species extremely similar to the common or Carrion Crow, observed about Botany Bay. In the Sandwich Islands the common Raven has been observed.

The *Blue and White Crow* is smaller than a Magpie, and is white, AUSTRALASIA. with the crown, nape, and back of the neck to the middle of the back, the greater part of the wings, and the tail, for one-third of its length, deep blue; the bill and legs brown.

A species of Roller, much allied to the Indian Roller, but of less brilliant colours, has been observed in New Holland; and a second species allied to the Madagascar Roller, having a much shorter and stronger beak than others of the genus, and very broad at the base.

The *Striated Roller* is about fifteen inches in length, and is olive-green above, with numerous longitudinal black streaks; those on the cheeks, whitish; the wings and tail dusky; the under parts of the body white, streaked with black; the bill is flesh-coloured, and the tongue bristly at the end; the legs black.

The *Wattled Crow* is greyish brown, whitish beneath, the belly tinged with yellow; the bill black, and rather slender; and the neck furnished on each side with a cylindrical wattle; the tail is very long, and cuneated, the feathers being tipped with white. It inhabits New Zealand.

The *White-vented Crow* is in length about nineteen inches, and nearly the size of a Magpie, which in its general appearance it somewhat resembles; it is entirely black, except the vent, the tail and wing-feathers, and the tips of the side-feathers of the tail, which are white; the bill is stout, and rather long, and of a black colour, as are also the legs.

The *Wattle-Bird* (*Callaas cinerea* Lath. Ind. Orn. *Glaucopsis cinerea*. Lin. Gmel.), is of the size of a Jay, and measures about fifteen inches in length; its colour is an uniform deep or blackish grey, and from beneath the lower mandible, on each side, hangs a rounded wattle of considerable size, and of a red colour, in substance not ill resembling the same part in the common cock; the base of each wattle is blue; the irides of the eyes are also blue; the bill is short, thick, and convex; the tail of moderate length, and in shape slightly cuneiform.

The *Scythrops*, or Channel-Bill, is a bird about the size of a Crow, but of very different proportions; the total length being twenty-seven inches; the bill, from the tip to the base, nearly four inches, slightly curved, ridged above, and channeled on the sides; the legs are short, and of the same structure as in the Cuckow, viz. two toes forwards, and two backwards; the general colour of the bird is cinereous brown above; the head, neck, and under parts pale grey; the tail is long, shaped as in the

Cuckow,

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Cuckow, and of a cinereous brown; the side-feathers marked on their inner edges with numerous black bars, and each feather marked near the end with a broad black bar, the tip being white; the bill and legs are pale yellowish brown.

The Parrot tribe is numerous in Australasia. Of those with stout bodies and crested heads, commonly called Cockatoos, the most remarkable is the species called the Banksian Cockatoo, which is of the size of a Maccaw, and of a black colour, slightly speckled on the crest and shoulders with yellowish white, and the tail decorated by a broad red zone, with numerous black bars; the middle feathers alone being entirely black.

The *Funereal Cockatoo* is probably a variety of the former, with which it agrees in all respects, except in having the tail marked by an ochre-coloured zone, with numerous black spots.

The *Small, or Sulphur-crested Cockatoo*, a native of the Philippine and Molucca isles, is also found in New Holland, and is too well known to need particular description; the variety found in New Holland has, however, a more slender and elongated crest than in those of the regions just mentioned.

Of the thick or stout-bodied Parrots with rounded, or even tails, one of the most remarkable is the Red-crowned Parrot, measuring about thirteen inches in length, and of a dark olive-brown colour; the under parts obscurely marked by several red bars, and the whole upper part of the head red, the feathers appearing unusually full, and forming a kind of crest.

The *Pfittacus Nestor*, or Southern Brown Parrot, measures about sixteen inches in length, and is of a dull olive-brown colour, with a greyish head, large hooked grey bill, and the fore part of the neck and lower part of the belly of a dull red colour.

Of those with lengthened tails, inclining more or less to a sharpened termination, one of the most beautiful species is the Pennantian Parrot, or rather Parrakeet. It measures about sixteen inches in length, and is of a deep scarlet, spotted with black, with the throat, wings, and tail of a deep blue.

The *Rose-Hill, or Nonparcil Parrot*, is still more beautiful: it is of the size of the Pennantian, and of a bright apple-green colour, spotted with black, with the throat white, the head and breast scarlet, the wings and tail blue.

The *Red-breasted*, or *Red-bellied Parrakeet*, is about fifteen inches in length, and of a beautiful grass green colour, with the head violet-blue, and the breast and belly red, with a deep blue longitudinal zone, the sides blotched with yellow; it is subject to considerable variety as to the disposition of colours on this part.

The *Black-backed Parrakeet* is eminently beautiful. It is of nearly similar size with the immediately preceding, and of a bright green colour, paler beneath; the back jet black, the rump bright blue, and the wing-coverts of the richest scarlet.

The *Pacific Parrakeet* is of similar size, or a degree smaller, and is green, with a red forehead, a descending red patch behind each eye, and the crown of the head pale blue.

The *Tabuan Parrakeet* is somewhat larger than the *Pennantian*, and of a rich scarlet colour, with deep grass-green wings and tail; across the shoulders runs an oblique band of a bright pea-green colour, and the rump is of a fine blue.

The *Pompadour Parrakeet* differs from the preceding in being of a deep crimson or pompadour colour, with the wings of a darker green, and the tail inclining to deep blue: it is found in the island of Tonga-Taboo.

The *Horned Parrakeet* is of an apple-green colour, with the neck encircled by a yellowish ring, and the head crimson, with two very slender and lengthened feathers, directed backwards, and capable of being erected at pleasure: this species measures about eleven inches in length.

The *Ground Parrot* is a bird of singular elegance, being of the size of a Turtle, and of a grass-green colour, spotted with black; the tail, which is very much sharpened, is of a bright jonquil-yellow, with numerous jet black bars; the two middle feathers dark green, with paler bars; the claws of the hind toes are lengthened like those of a lark. This species is said to be never seen on trees, but to frequent marshy places, running along the ground in the manner of a Rail.

The *Blue-crested Parrakeet* is a small species, measuring about six inches and a half in length; its colour is a beautiful green, the top of the head blue, the feathers being lengthened into a slight crest; the throat and a broad band across the belly red: it is found in the island of Otaheite.

The *Violet Otaheitan Parrakeet* is of the same size, and entirely of a deep violet-blue, except the throat, which is white; the head is crested as in the former species.

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The *Zoned Parrakeet* is of the size of the Tabuan, and is grass-green, with the head and long wing-feathers black, the belly marked across the middle by a broad pale-yellow zone or band, and the nape of the neck by a half collar of the same colour.

The *Undulated Parrakeet* is a highly elegant bird: its size is small, measuring scarcely nine inches in total length; its colour above is pale yellowish green, with very numerous, linear, brown undulations; beneath pale green; the tail sharply lengthened, the two middle feathers blue, the rest green, each obliquely crossed towards the base by a jonquil-yellowish band.

The *Turquoise Parrakeet* is smaller, scarcely exceeding seven inches in length; the upper part of the head, neck, and back grass green, the wings turquoise blue; the under parts orange-yellow; the front, to some distance round the bill, blue; the two middle tail-feather green, the rest jonquil-yellow, the inside of each marked by a longitudinal jet black patch; the shape of the tail is similar to that of the Pennantian.

The *Crested Parrakeet* measures twelve inches in length, and is of an olive-brown colour, paler beneath, with the crown of the head yellow, and decorated with a slender crest of six feathers, two of which measure near three inches in length; on the wing is an oblique white bar, and the tail is long and cuneiform; behind each eye is a small red spot. It inhabits New Holland.

Among the Kingfisher tribe the most remarkable is the *Great Brown Kingfisher*. This bird, which is about the size of a Crow, and measures eighteen inches in length, is of a brown colour above, with a slight gloss of pale blue, or blueish white on the wings and lower part of the back; the under parts are whitish, shaded by undulating transverse brown lines and specks; the tail is rather long, even, or slightly rounded, of a brown colour, barred with black; the feathers on the head are very full, of a narrow lengthened form, and so disposed as to constitute a thick crest; the bill and legs are brown. This, which is the largest species of Kingfisher yet known, like the rest of its tribe, frequents watery places, feeding on fish, and when disturbed, utters a loud, hoarse, interrupted, cry; from which circumstance it is said to be called by the settlers in New Holland by the title of the Laughing Jackass. It varies occasionally in colour, the wings in some being strongly tinged with blueish green.

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The *Sacred Kingfisher*, so named from the peculiar veneration in which it is held in some of the Southern islands (of which, as well as of Australasia, it is a native), is about the size of a small thrush, measuring ten inches in length; its colour blue-green above, and pale rufous white beneath, the colour running round the neck so as to form a white collar; the tail of moderate length, and even; the bill dusky; the legs reddish-brown: this bird, however, is subject to very considerable variety in its colour.

The *Tridigitated Kingfisher* (so named to distinguish it from a different species usually called the Three-toed Kingfisher), is of the size of the common European Kingfisher, and of a fine deep blue above, pale ferruginous beneath, with a streak of the same colour behind each-eye; the bill black, and the legs red; the feet furnished only with three toes, one pointing backwards; the wings are of a dull black, and the tail deep blue.

The *Venerated Kingfisher* inhabits the Friendly Islands, and measures nine inches; its colour is greenish brown above, and pale beneath; the wing coverts brown, with green margins; the bill is black, with the base of the lower mandible white; the legs brown.

The *Respected Kingfisher* is a native of Otaheite, and is of the size of a common Kingfisher; the upper parts are olive-green, and the under parts white; over the eye is a white streak, and round the neck a greenish black collar. Like the Sacred Kingfisher, it is said to be held in high esteem by the inhabitants of Otaheite.

The genus called *Merops*, or Bee-Eater, appears to be numerous in Australasia. Among the most elegant species is the Embroidered Bee-Eater, which is nearly the size of a thrush, and of a black colour; the feathers of the back, coverts, and under parts edged with yellow; the larger coverts deeply so, forming a bar across the wings; the wing-feathers are yellow on their outer edges, as are also those of the tail; the eyes are encircled by a bare carunculated yellow space.

The *Poe-Bird*, or *Poe Bee-Eater*, is of a black colour, with a varying lustre of glossy green, and is distinguished by a beautiful pendant tuft of white curled feathers on each side the throat. It is chiefly found in New Zealand.

The *Wattle Bee-Eater* is a native of New Holland, and measures fifteen inches in length; its colour is brown, marked above by numerous small

Australasia. small longitudinal white streaks, the shafts of the feathers being of that colour; behind the base of the lower jaw hangs an orange-coloured naked wattle.

The *Knob-fronted Bee-Eater* is of the size of a thrush, and of a brown colour above, whitish beneath; above the base of the upper mandible, rises a small longitudinal callous knob, or eminence.

The *Hooded Bee-Eater* is near ten inches in length, and of a pale cinereous brown above, white beneath; the forehead is white, and across the top of the head runs a black bar, which descends down each side of the throat; the wings are brown, tinged towards the middle with greenish yellow.

The *Variiegated Bee-Eater* is one of the smaller species, measuring about seven inches, and is blue-green above, with the wings barred across the larger coverts by two orange-yellow bars; the top of the head is orange-coloured; the throat, and a streak across the eyes black, the under parts yellow; the two middle tail-feathers much exceed the rest in length, being produced into two narrow shafts.

Some other species of this genus have been observed in New Holland and the neighbouring isles, which, in the general and cursory survey here intended, it would be tedious to enumerate.

The genus *Certhia*, or Creeper, appears to be numerous in Australasia. Among these one of the most elegant is the *Slender-billed Creeper*, measuring six inches in length, and of a fine grey above, with the long wing-feathers and tail black; the under parts of the bird are orange-coloured, the top of the head black, descending to a considerable distance on each side the neck; the throat is whitish, with a small black crescent, the horns pointing upwards; the bill black, long in proportion to the bird, and slender.

The *Sanguineous Creeper* is of the size of a White-Throat, and of a bright red above, varied with large and differently shaped black spots; the long wing feathers black, with white edges, and the tail black; the under parts of the bird are pale, or brownish white; the bill rather short and of a black colour.

The *Cardinal Creeper* is of the size of the common European Creeper, and is black, with the head, neck, breast, and a stripe down the back bright crimson.

The *Scarlet Creeper* is scarcely so large as a Wren, and is of a bright AUSTRALASIA. scarlet, with black wings and tail, and the lower part of the belly white.

The *Hook-Billed Red Creeper* is six inches long, with a pale, curved bill, and is of a scarlet colour, with the wings and tail black. It inhabits the Sandwich and other Islands of the Polynesia, and is in great request among the natives on account of its red feathers, which are used in the mantles of the chiefs, &c.

The *Hook-Billed Green Creeper* is rather larger than the preceding, with an extremely curved bill, and is of an olive-green colour, paler beneath. This species is also used in the dresses of the Sandwich Islands.

The Cuckow tribe affords an elegant species about the size of a Thrush, and called the *Fan-Tailed Cuckow*: it is black above, deep yellow beneath, with a black band across the throat; the tail is long, and of a cuneiform shape, with the two middle feathers black, the rest black on the outer webs, but marked by numerous alternate black and white bars on the inner webs, exhibiting an agreeable spectacle when the tail is spread. It is a native of Notasia.

The *Pheasant-Cuckow*, which is also found in New Holland, is a remarkable species, measuring about eighteen inches in length: the bill, head, and all the under parts are black; the whole of the back and wings varied with rufous, yellow, brown, and black, somewhat in the manner of the plumage of a Woodcock; the tail is long, and barred with the same colours. In New South Wales it is called by the name of Pheasant.

The *Society Cuckow* of Mr. Latham measures nineteen inches in length, and is brown above, with ferruginous variegations, and beneath white, with longitudinal brown streaks: the tail is long and cuneiform, with numerous brown bars. It chiefly inhabits Otaheite.

The *Shining Cuckow* is a bird of great beauty: it is a native of New Zealand, and is nearly of the size of a thrush; the upper parts are green, with a rich gilded gloss; the under parts white, transversely waved or scalloped with green-gold; the tail is short, and of a rounded form.

A highly curious bird of the Gallinaceous tribe, and allied to the Pheasants, occurs in New Holland. This bird, which is about the size of a common Pheasant, is of a brown colour above, paler beneath and is distinguished by the very remarkable structure of the tail, which, at first view, greatly resembles the tail, improperly so named, of the Paradise-Birds; it consists of sixteen feathers, of which twelve are very loosely webbed, the two

middle

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middle ones are very slender, of a different structure, sharp pointed, and exceed the rest in length, while the two exterior feathers are very broad, curved in a semi-circular manner at the tips, and are of a pale brownish grey on the outer web, while the inner, which is much broader, is of an elegant chestnut colour, marked with numerous sub-triangular transparent spaces, owing to the extreme delicacy of the fibres on those parts; the curved tips of these two feathers are black, edged with white, and the length of the tail is about two feet; the legs are very stout, and of a dusky colour, with strong claws. This bird is figured in the sixth volume of the Linnæan Transactions, under the title of *Menura superba*, under which name it is also represented in the second supplement to Mr. Latham's Ornithology; but the most splendid, as well as accurate representation of this curious bird, may be seen in the magnificent work of M. Viellot, comprising the Humming-Birds, Paradise-Birds, &c. In this work it is entitled *Le Parkinson*, in compliment to Mr. Parkinson, junior, of the Leverian Museum, through whose care an admirable drawing, by Mr. Sydenham Edwards, was transmitted to the publishers. This figure, on account of its superior elegance, is also copied in the Naturalists' Miscellany, under the name of *Paradisea Parkinsoniana*.

The *Columba Melanoleuca*, or *White-faced Pigeon*, is larger than a Turtle, and is dull green above, and beneath, from the breast, white; the face is white, with a black triangular spot before each eye, and a crimson spot behind; the sides of the breast black, and the sides of the body spotted with black.

The *C. Meridionalis*, or *Southern Pigeon*, is of the size of a Turtle, and is of a deep reddish brown, paler or whiter beneath; the tail short and cuneiform, with a black bar across the two middle feathers: inhabits New Holland.

One of the most elegant birds of New Holland is the *Columba chalcoptera*, or *Bronze-winged Pigeon*, nearly of the size of a Wood-Pigeon, and of a brownish colour, with red beak and legs; the covert-feathers of the wings being each marked with a large spot of a golden copper-colour.

Columba antarctica is of similar size, and is of a blueish grey above, whitish beneath, with the wings and tail blackish, the latter being marked by a pale bar, and the head furnished with an elegant semi-pendant occipital crest of a mixed brown and yellowish colour.

The *C. Erythroptera*, or Garnet-winged Pigeon, is found in Otaheite, AUSTRALASIA. and is black, with the back of the neck and upper part of the wings of a fine garnet-colour; the forehead is white, and a white streak passes over each eye; it varies occasionally in colours. Its length is about ten inches.

The *Brown Pigeon* is found in New Zealand, and has the upper part of the head and neck, the upper part of the back, and the wing-coverts red-brown; the fore-part of the neck, breast, and rump of a glossy-green colour.

The genus *Turdus* or *Thrush* appears to be numerous in Notafia or New Holland. The *Prairie Thrush* of Latham is of the size of a Song-Thrush, and of a pale slate-blue colour, spotted with black on the wings; the chin is white, and the breast and belly pale ochre-colour; below each ear is a large oval patch of black; the tail also is entirely black.

The *Blue-checked Thrush* is of similar size, and of a pale green above, and milk-white beneath; the eyes are seated in a patch of blue on each side; the quills are brown, and the bill and legs slate-coloured.

The *Black-eyed Thrush* is eight inches long, with a strong bill, and is brown above, with the crown of the head and the under parts yellow; the eyes are inclosed by a broad black stripe on each side the head.

The *New Zealand Thrush* is of the size of a Song-Thrush, and is of a dusky black, with the breast and belly white.

The *White-fronted Thrush* measures about seven inches, and is of a blackish lead-colour above, and buff-coloured beneath; the forehead milk-white. This bird is observed to vary in colour.

The *New Holland Thrush* of Mr. Latham is chiefly seen in Van Diemen's Land, and is lead-coloured, with a black throat; the quills and tail brown, tipped with white.

The *Thick-billed Thrush* is found in New Zealand, and is of the size of the Mistle Thrush: its colour is brown, deepest on the under parts, which are marked from the throat to the vent by numerous pale spots; the bill, as the name imports, is unusually thick and strong.

The *Guttural Thrush* of Mr. Latham is about the size of a common Thrush, and is green above, with a black head, the colour descending as far as the breast, which, with the belly, is yellow.

The *Turdus f. actatus*, or *Spotted-shouldered Thrush*, is of the size of a Fieldfare, and of a greyish brown colour, spotted with black, the breast

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lead-colour, and the shoulders black, with numerous white spots, each feather on those parts being tipped with white; the throat is black, bordered on each side with white; the two middle feathers of the tail are brown, the remaining ones black, with white tips.

The *Blue-headed Thrush* is of the size of a Song-Thrush, and is brown above, with the top of the head deep blue; the under parts are yellowish-white, crossed next the wings by several narrow black lines or streaks; the tail is rounded, and the outer margins of all the feathers marked with triangular white spots.

Of *small birds*, comprising the Grosbeaks, and Finches, as well as the Soft-billed small birds, or warblers, nothing more than a very general account can be expected in a work of this nature. Among the former may be remarked the *White-headed Finch*, of the size of a Bullfinch, with the head and neck white, the breast and sides black, the latter marked with white specks; the wings brown, the rump crimson, and the tail black. It inhabits New South Wales.

The *Nitid Grosbeak* of Latham is a very beautiful species; of the size of a Linnet, and of a pale olive-brown colour above, with numerous curved, linear, black streaks; beneath whitish, streaked in a similar manner; the quills and tail brown, and the rump bright red; the bill short and red; the legs yellowish. It inhabits New South Wales.

In the Soft-billed division may be numbered the *Red-bellied Flycatcher*, which is of the size of the European Redstart, and is coal-black above, with the forehead and a patch on the middle of the wings white; the breast and belly bright crimson, and the vent white. It inhabits the woody parts of Norfolk Island.

The *Crimson-bellied Flycatcher* is nearly allied to the former, and is brown above, with black wings and forehead, a white patch on the wings, white throat, crimson belly, and the tail white on each side towards the tip.

The *Soft-tailed Flycatcher* is a small species of a slender form, of a brown colour, paler beneath, with the throat blue, and the tail-feathers, which are of considerable length, remarkable their loosely-webbed structure.

Of the soft-billed division none can surpass in elegance the *Superb Warbler*, of a thin or slender shape, and of a fine black colour, with the belly white, and the tail-feathers edged with a gloss of blue; the wings are

are brown, the front ornamented by a slightly elevated crest of the most brilliant sky-blue, while from each eye, to some distance down the neck, proceeds a broad patch of similar colour; the throat and breast are black; the feathers of the head appear unusually full, and those on the whole bird are remarkably soft; the tail is rather long, and of a cuneated shape. This bird is chiefly found in Van Diemen's Land.

Of the Swallow tribe the most remarkable is the *Needle-tailed Swallow*, twice the size of the common Swallow, and of a dusky colour, glossed with green; the tail-feathers are furnished with bare, projecting, sharp-pointed shafts.

Of the birds called Titmice the *Great-headed Titmouse* is one of the principal: it is about the size of the common Blue Titmouse, but with a longer tail, and is of a black colour, with the forehead, middle of the wings, and sides of the tail white, and the belly dull orange; the head is very full of feathers, appearing remarkably large for the size of the bird. It is chiefly found in New Zealand.

The *New Zealand Titmouse* is of similar size; rufous ash-colour above, rufous grey beneath, with a white streak over each eye; the two middle tail-feathers black, and the lateral ones marked in the middle by a square white spot.

Of the tribe of Birds called Manakins, New Holland affords a beautiful species called the *Speckled Manakin*, of the size of a Wren, of a greyish brown colour, with the top of the head, wings, and tail black, marked with white spots; the upper tail-coverts bright red. Of similar size, and allied to the former, is the *Striped-headed Manakin*, which is olive-brown, yellowish beneath, with the top of the head black, marked by numerous white streaks, and the wings and tail black, with the feathers edged with white.

The *Goatsucker* tribe seems to abound in the regions of New Holland, and several highly remarkable species have been discovered.

The *Thick-billed Goatsucker* is one of the largest of these, and differs from the rest in having a bill of great size, and of much superior strength; the gape is very wide; the size of the bird is very considerable, and its colour dusky brown, with whitish and rufous variegations; the quills and tail are barred with black and white alternate spots.

The *Banded Goatsucker* is twice the size of the common European species, and its general colour nearly the same; but the top of the head

is

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is black, and the neck marked behind by a black bar, beneath which it is of a speckled orange colour; the quills and tail are barred and spotted with black and rust-colour.

The *Crested Goatucker* is an elegant species, about nine inches in length, of a cinereous brown above, with minute whitish variegations, and beneath pale or whitish, with dusky sub-transverse freckles: the wings and tail are marked with numerous pale bars, and on each side the base of the upper mandible stand several very long, pectinated bristles, forming a pair of upright, radiated crests.

Among the web-footed water-birds of this part of the world, we must by no means omit the celebrated *Black Swan*, or *Anas Plutonia*, which is found in various parts of New Holland, and is in size scarcely inferior to the common European Swan; its colour is deep black, but the wing feathers are white: the bill red, with a yellowish bar towards the tip; the legs reddish brown.

The *Scnipalmated Goose* is nearly the size of a Wild-geese; the head, neck, back, wings, thighs, and tail are deep brown; the remaining parts white; the bill yellowish, and the legs red; the feet are webbed only half way from the base. It is a native of Notasia, where it is seen in flocks, and is said to have a tuneful note.

The *Lobated Duck* is of the size of a Mallard, and is of a very dark or blackish brown colour above, marked with numerous transverse whitish lines, accompanied by innumerable freckles of the same colour, not unlike those on the common European Goatucker; the fore part of the neck, and the lower part of the belly are whitish, streaked or undulated with dark spots; the wings and tail are nearly black, the latter of a pointed shape; but the leading character of this bird is a remarkably large, orbicular, pendant, black wattle or flap, hanging in a longitudinal direction from the lower mandible. The bill is black, and the legs deep lead-colour. Native of New Holland.

The *Fasciated Duck* is an elegant species, and is about the size of a Garganey: the back, wings, and tail are brown; the feathers at the hind part of the head brown, and lengthened into a pendant crest; the whole under parts of the bird whitish, with very numerous black bars, broadest on the sides of the body; the bill is very long, broad, and somewhat soft on the sides.

The

The *Short-billed Goose* is a very singular species, and, indeed, has been AUSTRALASIA. considered by Mr. Latham as sufficiently distinct from the rest of the tribe to constitute a distinct genus, under the title of *Cereopsis*. Its size is that of a small Goose: its colour deep cinereous grey, somewhat paler beneath; the bill black, and only about three quarters of an inch in length; the whole face of the bird is bare, yellow, and of a granulated appearance; the legs are orange-coloured; the feet black, and scarce perceptibly webbed.

The *Harcoksbury Duck* is of the size of a Wigeon, but with a rather shorter bill: the general colour of the bird is grey-brown, the head and neck chestnut-colour, and the breast grey, elegantly spotted with black; on the hind-head is a slight crest, of a yellowish colour, the feathers being tipped with black; the middle of the wings are white, marked with a lucid green bar; the sides of the body are grey, finely lineated with black, and the vent black, but in the female, white. It inhabits New South Wales, and is observed occasionally to perch on trees.

Of those curious birds called Penguins, that beautiful species the *Crested Penguin*, is not very uncommon.

The *Little or Small Penguin* occurs in New Zealand, and no doubt other species occasionally visit these extensive coasts.

A variety of the common or *White Pelican* is found in New Holland: its plumage white; the beginning of the back, and all the quills black; the legs blue.

The *Striated Tern*, an elegant species, of the size of the White Tern, and marked on the upper parts with numerous black, transverse undulations; inhabits the shores of New Zealand.

The *Glaucous Gull*, a fine bird, larger than the Herring Gull, with the back and wings of a hoary grey, and the head and under parts white, is found about New Zealand, as are also other species of the same genus; and the same may be said of the birds of the *Petrel* genus.

Of the *Grallæ*, or Waders, are the following: The New Holland *Jabiru*, or *Mycteria*, is more elegant, in point of colour, than either the African or American *Jabiru*. It measures, from the tip of the bill to the end of the claws, about six feet; the head and neck are of a greenish black, with changeable hues; the wing-coverts, and tail black; the remaining parts white; the bill black, and the legs red.

The *White-fronted Heron* is a native of New Holland, and is about half the size of a common Heron: the bill black, with the orbits of the eyes, and

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and lore greenish; the legs pale brown; the upper parts of the body are blueish ash-colour; the crown of the head black, with the feathers lengthened; the front, and fore part of the neck, as far as the middle, white; the quills and tail blueish black; the breast, belly, and thighs bright cinnamon-colour; the feathers on the breast being lengthened in an elegant manner; the back-feathers are also lengthened into very slender plumes, which fall over part of the tail.

A variety of the *Little Bittern*, or *Ardea minuta*, occurs in New Holland, differing in but few particulars from the European bird.

A distinct species, called by Latham, the *Spotted Heron*, has also been observed in the same regions: its size is that of the Little Bittern; the general colour of the plumage brown, spotted on the back and wings with white; under parts of the body dusky white; bill and legs dull green.

The *New Holland Emen*, or Cassowary, is a bird of great magnitude, standing seven feet high: its colour is brownish grey, paler beneath; the head is destitute of the horny crest so conspicuous in the common or black Cassowary, and the fore parts of the neck are less covered with feathers than the other parts; the skin, which is of a blueish colour, appearing through them; the wings are extremely short, covered with loose-webbed feathers, and perfectly useless for flight; the bill short, flattened, somewhat pointed, and considerably allied to that of an Ostrich; the legs very strong, black, and strongly scaled; the toes, three in number, all pointing forwards, and furnished with stout claws. The feathers on this bird consist each of two greatly lengthened plumes, springing from a common shaft.

A variety of the *Purple Gallinule* (*Fulica Porphyrio*, Lin.), occurs in Notasia: its colour deep black, with the throat, fore part of the neck, and breast, outer part of the wing-coverts, and the quills, deep blue; bill, front, legs, and bare parts above the knees, red; knees, and joints of the toes black; vent white.

The *White Gallinule* is of the size of a hen, with the whole plumage pure white; bill and legs red. Sometimes the shoulders and back are blue; like the former, it is perhaps a variety of the common or purple Gallinule.

The Snipe, Plover, and Sandpiper tribes in New Holland afford some remarkable birds: of these the *Wattled Sandpiper* is an instance; it measures about a foot and a half in length; the back and wings are brown;

the quills and tail black; the top of the head, back of the neck, and sides of the breast black; the neck and under parts white; the sides of the head, round the eyes, are covered with a granulated yellow skin, hanging down on each side, in the form of a pointed wattle. AUSTRALASIA.

The *High-legged Plover* (allied in length of legs to the Long-legged Plover of Europe), is of a blueish grey above, with black streaks; and beneath dull white, with brown streaks; the colour of the legs is pale blue.

The *Great-billed Plover* is of the size of the Golden Plover of Europe, and is blueish grey, streaked with black; beneath pale ash-coloured, with similar streaks; the bill is black, thick, and broad, like that of the Tody genus.

The animals of the Linnæan division called *Amphibia* inhabiting New Holland are the following:

The *Green* and *Logger-head Turtles*, both of which are found about the coasts of New Holland, and the neighbouring islands.

The *Long-necked Tortoise* (General Zoology), a fresh-water species, with a smooth, oval shell, of a deep olive-colour above, pale beneath; the head is smooth, the neck of a great length, and retractile at pleasure into the shell, the length of which is about five inches and a half.

A species of Frog, called the *Spiny-footed Frog* (General Zoology), is described from a drawing communicated by Mr. White. Its size seems rather larger than that of a common frog, and its colour dark blueish-brown, speckled on the sides with ochre-colour; it receives its name from the appearance of the toes of the fore feet, which are furnished above with a row of small spines.

In Mr. White's Voyage to New South Wales, mention is made of Frogs of a blue colour, and of the size of common Frogs, with the hind feet webbed.

Among the Australasian Lizards, one of the most remarkable, is the *Lacerta platyura*, or Broad-tailed Lizard, distinguished by the remarkable appearance of its tail, which is very broad, greatly compressed, and covered with a harsh and somewhat spiny skin: this lizard sometimes measures eight inches in length, but is generally seen of smaller size.

Lacerta varia, or Embroidered Lizard, is extremely nearly allied to some varieties of the L. Monitor of Linnæus, but is more beautiful on account of the rich contrast of its colours; the ground being deep black,

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Lacerta muricata, or Muricated Lizard, is greatly allied to the Linnæan *L. Agama*, and is of a brown colour with darker bars and variegations, and is about eighteen inches in length; the scales on the head are lengthened into the appearance of spines.

Lacerta taniolata, or Ribbon Lizard, is a small and elegant species, much allied to the *L. Jemifcata* of Linnæus, and is marked with alternate longitudinal black and white stripes.

Lacerta Scincoides, or Skinoid Lizard, is a large species, about eighteen inches in length, of a strong and thickish shape, covered with rounded scales, and is greatly allied to the species called in the West Indies by the name of Galliwasp: its colour is pale brown, with darker variegations; the limbs and tail rather short.

Among the Snakes of New Holland, the most elegant yet observed, is the *Coleber porphyriacus*, or Crimson sided Snake (General Zoology), of a beautiful violet-black above, and purple beneath, the scuta or broad under-scales being deeply edged with black; along each side of the body the purple colour is considerably richer or stronger than beneath; this snake is numbered among the poisonous species, and its bite is said to be much dreaded by the natives.

A large snake of the length of about seven feet, and of a yellowish colour, with dusky variegations and whitish specks has been found in New Holland, and is figured in Mr. White's Voyage: it is said to be not of a poisonous nature.

Another snake found in New Holland was nearly three feet in length, slender, and of a tawny yellow colour, with numerous indistinct bars of dark brown, somewhat irregular or flexuous in their disposition.

A third was of the same general proportions with the common English Snake, and of a blueish ash colour, with scales rather large for the size of the animal.

A fourth was about fifteen inches in length, and fasciated throughout its whole length with alternate zones of black and yellowish white.

A very elegant snake, seemingly of the genus Boa, is also found in this country, and is figured in Mr. White's Voyage: it is covered with very small scales, and varied with irregular yellow markings and spots on a blackish ground; its length is about fourteen inches.

A rather

A rather large snake of the Viper tribe, and variegated with brown bands and marks, occurs in New Holland, and is considered as highly poisonous. AUSTRALASIA.

Lastly, about the coasts of New Holland and the neighbouring isles, occur some species of Marine Snakes or Hydri; particularly the elegant species called *Hydrus colubrinus*, or Colubrine Hydrius (General Zoology), measuring from two to three feet in length, and of a blueish white colour, with numerous black bands.

Hydrus bicolor, or Black-backed Hydrius (General Zoology), is found in the same seas: it is coal-black above, and pale yellow beneath; the tail varied with black spots. In both these snakes, as well as in some other marine ones, the tail is of a dilated and flattened form.

The Fishes observed about the Australasian coasts are, as may well be imagined, of very various kinds. Some of the more remarkable species are the following:

Squalus tentaculatus, or Tentaculated Shark (General Zoology), of the Saw-fish tribe, and remarkable for two long and flexible tentacula situated towards the middle of the snout or saw; the colour of this species is pale brown above, and whitish beneath; the length of the specimens hitherto observed about three feet, but it probably arrives at a much larger size.

Squalus Philippinus, or Philippian Shark (General Zoology), with a lengthened lobe on each side the head.

Squalus Isabella, or Isabella Shark (General Zoology), so named from its colour, which is pale yellow.

Squalus ocellatus, or Ocellated Shark (General Zoology), distinguished by a very large, round, black spot, edged with white, on each side the pectoral fins.

Chimæra Callorhynchus, or Southern Chimæra (General Zoology), of a slightly silvery colour, with the snout produced beneath into an inflected lip; size nearly similar to that of the *Chimæra monstrosa*, or Northern Chimæra.

Striped Angler (General Zoology), much allied to the *Lophius Histris* of Linnæus, but differing in being marked all over, chiefly in a transverse direction, by very numerous, and closely placed, narrow black streaks of unequal lengths, with fine black lines interposed.

Painted Angler (General Zoology), of the length of about four inches, of a compressed form, with yellowish blotches, margined with red.

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Marbled Angler (General Zoology), length about five inches, of a sub-compressed form, with whitish and ferruginous variegations, and simple dorsal fin.

Balistes papillofus, Lin. Papillose File-fish (General Zoology), with two spines above the head, and the body covered by granular papillæ.

Balistes liturofus. Blue-streaked File-fish (General Zoology). An elegant species, of a lengthened form, and of a black colour, with obliquely longitudinal blue streaks, a very long spine over the head, and white fins, with a blue bar across the tail.

Balistes bicolor. Patched File-fish. Shape broad oval; colour black, or very dark brown, marked about the lower or under parts by numerous large ovate white or yellowish-white spots of unequal size.

Ostracion Melcagris. Speckled Trunk-fish (General Zoology). Quadrangular Trunk-fish, of a blackish-brown colour, speckled on all parts with white.

Striped Trunk fish. *Ostracion striatus* (General Zoology), of a broad shape, with the back very convex; general length three or four inches; colour consisting of a variegation of yellow and blue stripes in different directions; over each eye a strong spine, two on each side the back and belly, and one on each side the body.

Syngnathus foliatus. *Foliated Pipe-fish* (General Zoology). This is one of the most singular fishes yet discovered. In its general appearance it is allied to the *Syngnathus Hippocampus*, popularly called the *Sea Horse Pipe-fish*, but is of a longer form, and is furnished, on the head, back, belly, and upper parts of the tail, with several distant, very strong, square, mucronated spines or processes, each tipped with a pair of large, oblong, leather-like lobes or leaf-shaped appendages, so much resembling those of some kinds of fuci, or sea weeds, that they might, at first view, be mistaken for such: the colour of this curious fish is deep or blackish olive, with numerous pale specks.

Several kinds of *Muræna* are found about these coasts, some of an elegant, and others of a very repulsive aspect.

Gadus Tau, or the Toad *Gadus* (General Zoology), has the head and fore parts of a very broad and compressed form, while the remainder of the animal is compressed and tapering to the tail: its colour is yellowish brown, with black variegations; the lower lip is fringed with beards; the gill-

gill-covers are three-spined, and the first dorsal fin three-rayed; it grows to the length of twelve inches. AUSTRALASIA.

Blennius fuliens, or Salient Blenny (General Zoology), is a small species, of a gregarious nature, and remarkable for springing up and down with great celerity among the rocks. The pectoral fins are unusually large in proportion to the body, and consequently enable it to exert these unusual motions with facility.

A singular species of *Chaetodon* has been observed about the coasts of New Holland, and has been named the Constricted *Chaetodon*, the body being narrowed or constricted in the middle: the specimen observed was eight inches in length, of a yellowish grey colour, with eight transverse black bands.

Another species is the Armed *Chaetodon*, which is about four inches long, of a silvery colour, with seven transverse bands, a somewhat lengthened head, and two dorsal fins, the third ray on the first of which is very strong.

The remarkable fish, called the *Southern Trachichtys*, is about five inches long, and of a thick rounded form, tapering rather suddenly to the tail, which is forked; the head and eyes are very large, the mouth opens downwards, and the whole fish is clothed with unusually strong and rough-edged scales, which, on the belly, are dilated so as to form a strong serrated keel beneath that part: the general colour of this fish is a bright pink-ferruginous, or fair reddish-brown, the middle part of all the fins of a deeper colour than the rest of the animal, and the edges lighter, or of a yellowish brown. It is found about the coasts of New Holland.

The *Fistularia tabacaria*, or Slender *Fistularia*, grows sometimes to the length of three or four feet, and is of a round or eel-shaped form, with a very long horny snout, and a bifid tail, terminated by a long cartilaginous bristle springing from the middle: this fish is of a brown colour above, marked with numerous blue spots, and of a silver colour beneath, and the fins are red.

In a work of this nature it will hardly be expected that a particular enumeration of the insects of Australasia should be detailed. It may be sufficient to observe, that many highly curious and beautiful animals of this kind have for some years past been introduced into the European cabinets. Many of these have been admirably figured in the elegant publication of

AUSTRALABIA. Mr. DONOVAN, entitled "An Epitome of the Natural History of the Insects of New Holland, New Zealand, New Guinea, Otaheite, &c."

Among the most remarkable insects figured by this ingenious artist are, the *Sphinx Australasica* and *Sphinx triangularis*, both of very large size; the former of a rufous brown colour, with orange or fulvous under-wings; the latter of a dusky brown, with the upper-wings marked by an obscure triangle; the lower-wings rufous-brown, with the shoulder-parts orange-coloured: all the wings in this latter insect are entire or rounded at the tips, without any approach to an angular shape.

Three very curious large Moths of the *Cossus* tribe occur in the same work: of these the *Cossus nebulosus* has hoary wings, with numerous dusky reticulations; the *Cossus lituratus*, of similar size, has whitish-grey wings, with innumerable, abrupt, small, transverse lines, and several black spots and streaks on the upper wings. The *Cossus labyrinthicus*, which is also a very large species, has lengthened wings of a cinereous cast, the upper pair whitish in the middle, and most curiously marked with numerous labyrinthiform, involuted, dusky lines and streaks.

Many very elegant Butterflies, Beetles, Cicadae, and other insects adorn the entomology of these regions, which, at present, can be considered as only very slightly surveyed.

Cancer ferratus, or the Serrated Lobster, is much allied, in general appearance, to the common Lobster, but has the chelæ or claspers ferrated on the edges by a double row of sharp protuberances, and the tail is strongly mucronated on each side by a triple row of large, pointed tubercles.

APPENDIX

TO

THE SECOND VOLUME.

No. I. *Extracts concerning the Chinese War in Little Bucharía, 1755 to 1759.*

From the Histoire Generale de la Chine, tome xi. Paris 1780, 4to. p. 556, &c. This Work being rare and expensive, the following brief Summary of that remarkable War, which so much enlarged the Chinese Empire, may be acceptable; especially as it presents every Circumstance which can illustrate the obscure Geography of an interesting Country. (See p. 453.)

SINCE the accession of the present, or Mandshur, dynasty, the chief wars, of the Chinese have been with those Monguls called Kalkas, who dwell towards the rivers Kerlon and Tula. These tribes being at length subdued, and the family of the Kaldan, or sovereign, extinguished or forgotten, a new vicinity produced, as usual, a new enmity, and the Chinese arms were directed more to the west. The throne of the Eluts was contended by Debatchi, (called by the Chinese Taoua-tsi,) and by another chief named Amoursana. The latter was forced to withdraw, and seek refuge in the Chinese court at Gcho. The kings of the Eluts used to reside on the river Ili, where a city has since been built by the Chinese; and though chosen as a place of exile, was greatly increasing in population.

Kien-Long, the Chinese emperor, wished to avoid a distant and expensive war against the Kalmuks of Soongaria, also called Eluts by the Chinese, but being irritated by the disrespectful conduct of Debatchi, he undertook this war in opposition to the advice of all his councils. In the beginning of 1755 Amoursana proceeded at the head of a Chinese army against Debatchi, who was taken prisoner, and sent to the court of Peking, where he soon after died. Amoursana was named king of the Eluts or Kalmuks under the protection of China; but, speedily revolting, he attacked the Chinese stations on the Ili, destroyed the forts and redoubts, and having slain the two Chinese generals Panti and Aiougan, he pitched his camp before Palikoua, one of the chief towns of the Eluts, which was strongly garrisoned by the Chinese. This town is probably the Bulugan of the Russian maps, about 60 miles N. W. from the lake Barkol.

Other Chinese generals were equally unfortunate; but the garrison of Barkol was reinforced, and checked the progress of the enemy. This seems clearly to be the town of Barkol, or Ortie, on the east of the lake of Barkol. At length, in 1757, the emperor was fortunate in appointing a general of real skill, named Tehao-hoi, and the dissensions of the Kalmuks contributed to their destruction. The Chinese lieutenant general, Fouté, was also a man of distinguished courage and enterprise: and Amoursana was soon forced to retire into Siberia, where he died. Numbers of the Kalmuks took refuge among the Pourouts or Baruts, a part of the Kirgises; others among the Tanguts towards Tibet, and among the Torguts or more western Kalmuks. Kien-Long divided the country of the Eluts among several chieftains, who were bound to the court by homage and titles.

The country of Little Bucharía, styled by the Chinese Ho-men, or Hoel-pou, that is, *the lord of Mahometans*, had been subject to the Kalmuks of Soongaria. During the course of the war, the Mahometan chiefs of Yerquen, or Yarcand, and Hahar, or Cashgar, (princes called by the Chinese the Greater and the Lesser Ho-tehou,) ungrateful for favours received from Kien Long, had slain a Chinese officer and 100 cavalry. The Chinese general, Tehao-hoi, advanced against the Ho-tehous, who being defeated retired to Yerquen, which surrendered; and was speedily followed by Hahar. "Besides Hahar and Yerquen, they likewise became masters of seventeen other towns large and small, and of 16,000 villages or hamlets. In the district

district of Hafhar were reckoned about 60,000 families; without comprising those who had followed the rebels, and about 12,000 people exiles in the country on the li. Hafhar was little more than ten li (probably of 250 to the degree) in circuit, and only contained 2500 families. To the east of Hafhar were situated Ouhei and Akkou. Between this last town and Hafhar were three towns, Poifonpat-hotchil, Poï-inké, Entouché; and two large villages, Peferguen and Arvonat, inhabited by about 6000 families. To the west of Hafhar were the Buruts of Katchi-yen, (probably Adjian;) and between the two, the towns of Paha-ertouché, Opil, Tajamelik; and the villages of Saïram and Tokoufak, which however were only computed at 2200 families. To the south of Hafhar, before arriving at Yerquen, are situated two towns, Inkatar-han, Kalik; and two hamlets, Tofoboua and Kavalkar: the four containing about 4400 families. Finally, to the north of Hafhar, are the Buruts, properly so called, to whose country one passes by the town of Arkoui, and the village of Horhan, which may contain nearly 800 families. On a general computation, the Mahometans depending on Hafhar were about 16,000 families, estimated at 1000,000 heads, as is proved by the public registers."

There were fifteen degrees of magistracy; among which the chief was that of Akim or governor of the city; his lieutenant the Hichehan; the Haïfee, or judge of criminal affairs; and the Marab, or collector of the taxes. The letter of Tchao-hoï to the emperor, 13th September 1759, presents further particulars. Chinese garrisons were established even in small posts, as Opil, Tajamelik, Telik, Entouché, and Paï soupath.

Meanwhile Fouté pursued the fugitive Ho-tchoms, or Mahometan chieftains, whom he defeated at Atchour, whence they fled towards Badakhhan, and arrived at Poulouk-kol. Fouté continued the pursuit to the great range of mountains (Belur Tag); and learnt from a native that the enemy had passed, and arrived near Badakhhan, but had still a very high mountain to ascend, situated between two lakes, that on the one side being called Paloum-kol, and that on the other side Ili-kol. Beyond the former is a high mountain, whence Badakhhan may be descended. Fouté pursued the Mahometans again, defeated them amidst the mountains, and summoned the governor of Badakhhan to surrender the Mahometan princes. One had died in battle, but the head of the other was sent to Pekin; and the Chinese general retired satisfied with his success.*

Position of the chief Places subject to the Eluts or Kalmuks; the Longitude computed from the Meridian of Pekin.
(Ib. xi. 575.)

	Latitudes.		Longitudes.				Latitudes.		Longitudes.		
	Deg.	Min.	Deg.	Min.			Deg.	Min.	Deg.	Min.	
Kouatché,	41	37	33	32	Paltchouk,	—	—	39	15	39	35
Pou-kou-cullh,	41	44	32	7	Peichéniya,	—	—	36	26	35	53
Chaïar,	41	5	33	21	Iliché,	—	—	37	—	35	52
Cou ko-pou-yn,	41	20	33	40	Halachaché,	—	—	37	10	36	14
Akfou,	41	9	37	15	Yulongaché,	—	—	36	52	35	37
Saïlim,	41	41	34	40	Tchila,	—	—	36	47	34	42
Paï,	41	41	35	12	Také,	—	—	36	13	33	45
Ouhei,	40	6	38	27	Kelia,	—	—	37	—	33	33
Gaoché,	40	19	42	50	Antchiyen,	—	—	41	28	44	35
Pefet-karam, or Poche kolmon,	37	20	42	10	Istalchan,	—	—	41	43	45	0
Hafhar,	39	25	42	25	Marhalan,	—	—	41	24	45	10
Ingazar (Inkefal)	38	47	41	50	Namkan,	—	—	41	38	45	40
Tajamelik	39	6	42	53	Haohan,	—	—	41	23	45	56
Yerquen,	38	19	40	10	Altonbet,	—	—	41	33	48	10
Oulelek,	37	41	39	48	Tachekhan,	—	—	43	3	47	33
Chatou,	37	43	39	30	Badakchan,	—	—	36	23	43	50
Harhalik,	37	41	39	15	Chekouan,	—	—	36	47	44	46
Selekoueulh,	37	48	42	24	Gaolochan,	—	—	36	49	45	26
Koukiar	37	7	39	2	Ouhan,	—	—	38	—	45	9
Santchou,	36	58	37	47	Poloeulh,	—	—	37	—	43	38
Tououa,	36	52	37	7	Hatchouté,	—	—	37	11	42	32

* The reign of Kien-Long is here continued till 1780, but there is no hint of his having visited Badakhhan, a reported but most improbable circumstance.

No. II. *Construction of the southern Mountains of Hindoostan.*

[Communicated by Dr. Buchanan.]

The most common rocks in *Karnata*, that is to say in the country above the *Ghats*, belonging to the British and their ally the *Raja of Mysore*, are various granites and gneisses with other aggregate stones, disposed in vertical strata, and much intersected by veins of quartz and of feldspar. Some of these veins are of great thickness. The granites are of great variety, and some of them and of the porphyries are very beautiful, afford large masses for building, and take an elegant polish. Iron shot quartz and hornstone are very common; as is also flintstone mica, most beautiful specimens of which may be procured on the *Karighat* hill which overlooks *Seringapatam*. Hornblende and pot-stone, with a variety of rocks of an intermediate nature, are also common, and afford excellent materials for building. Of the first have been formed the highly polished columns by which *Hyder's tomb* is supported. In almost every part of the country are found in the soil sporadic calcareous concretions, which in some fields are very abundant, and supply the inhabitants with lime.

Dravida or the country between the Eastern *Ghats* and *Madras* consists nearly of the same materials with those above mentioned; but the most common aggregate rock is one composed I imagine of small masses of arid and fat quartz united. Some suppose that what I have called arid quartz is feldspar in a state of decay; the stone however is excessively hard, and an excellent material for building, although it does not admit of a marble polish.

In the province of *Coimbatore* the same vertical rocks form the basis of the country; but in many parts they are covered entirely by a calcareous stratum, which in its nature and appearance entirely resembles the sporadic concretions found to the northward, and these also are common in *Coimbatore*. That it is a tufa, or deposition from water, I have no doubt, having found it marked by the impression of leaves of trees, and also united with small fragments of the primitive rocks so as to resemble the cement formed of lime and small gravel.

The maritime region between the sea and the western mountains from *Pali-ghat* to *Goa*, and probably still farther north and south has for its basis a solid grey granite without veins of quartz. Towards the north I observed intermixed with this granite rock of talcoze argillite and hornblende slate. The most remarkable stratum in this part of the country lies over the primitive rock, and by the natives is called *Brick-stone*. It is an indurated clay containing much oxyde of iron. While in the stratum, and covered by the soil, it is so soft that it can readily be cut with any iron instrument, such as a knife; and is easily raised in masses with a pick-ax, after which it is cut with a saw into pieces fit for building, which by exposure to the air become equal in hardness to the best bricks, and are used in all buildings, even such as are under water, as a most durable and excellent material. The parts of this stratum that are exposed to the air assume the appearance of a black rock, containing numerous small cavities as if it had undergone the action of fire, and which is extremely sterile.

Iron ore abounds in almost every part of the south of India: the most common is in the form of black sand, which is found pure in the channels of torrents, or is procured by washing it from beds of clay with which it is intermixed.

Height of the Mountains of Datan or Tibet:

By Colonel *Crawford's* observations, taken with great care near *Patna*, the highest peak of *Himala* then within view is more than twenty thousand feet above the plain of *Nipal*, which is probably five thousand feet above the sea.

•• In the Hindoo chronology mention is made, by *Slr W. Jones*, of Billions, &c. of years. *Dr. John'on* having given no explanation, the following may not be unnecessary.

Trillions.	Billions.	Millions.	Units.
222,222	222,222	222,222	222,222

By a Billion is meant, in short, what is otherwise called a Million of Millions; and by a Trillion, is meant a Million of Millions of Millions. And the like is to be understood of Quadrillions, Quintillions, Sextillions, &c. *Wells's Arithm.* 1723, 8vo. p. 8, 10.

No. III. *Revenues, &c. of Hindoostan.*

An estimate of the probable Amount of the Revenues and Charges in India, for the Year 1805-6; together with the Amount of the Commercial Charges not added to the Invoices, the Interest on the Debts, and the Supplies to Bencoolen, Prince of Wales Island, and St. Helena.

From the accounts presented to the House of Commons and printed by their order June 1806.

Revenues :

Bengal: at 2s. the Current Rupee :			
Mint Post Office, Stamps, and Judicial Fees	£	197,200	
Ceded Provinces in Oude	-	1,786,400	
Conquered Provinces	-	614,800	
Land, &c. Revenues of Bengal, Bahar, &c.	-	3,630,800	
Customs	-	353,060	
Salt Sales	-	1,474,360	
Opium, Do.	-	707,600	
			8,763,220
Madras: at 8s. the Pagoda :			
Mint Post Office, Farms, and Licences, Judicial Fees	£	92,382	
Revenues and Customs of the Carnatic	-	1,233,628	
Do. and Do. Tanjore	-	452,398	
Do. and Do. of Cessions by the Nizam	-	670,460	
Do. and Do. of possessions before 1790	-	1,086,255	
Do. and Do. of Mysore, Malabar, Canara, &c.	-	1,239,173	
			4,774,296
Bombay: at 2s. 3d. the Rupee :			
Revenues and. Customs of former possessions		330,188	
Do. Do of late Acquisitions		411,819	
			742,017
Total estimated Revenues,			£. 14,279,533

Charges :

Bengal. Civil Revenue, Judicial, &c.		£	3,402,814	
Military, including Fortifications		-	4,012,556	
				7,415,370
Madras. Civil Revenue, Judicial, &c.		-	1,751,433	
Military, including Fortifications		-	3,898,749	
				5,650,182
Bombay. Civil Revenue, Judicial, &c.		-	519,473	
Military, including Fortifications		-	1,060,819	
				1,580,292
Total estimated Charges			£ 14,645,844	

APPENDIX TO VOL. II.

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Commercial Charges not added to Invoices :

Bengal	-	-	-	£	104,388	
Madras	-	-	-		77,924	
Bombay	-	-	-		17,494	
						199,806

Interest on Debts :

Bengal	-	-	-	£	1,153,040	
Madras	-	-	-		400,000	
Bombay	-	-	-		270,000	
						1,823,040

Total estimated Charges and Interest,	16,668,690
Supplies from Bengal to Prince of Wales Island, Fort Marlbro' and St. Helena	266,800

Deduct estimated Revenues,	16,935,490
	14,279,533

Estimated Deficiency,	2,655,957
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East India House, }
3d June, 1806. }

(Errors excepted.)

WM. WRIGHT,
Auditor of India Accounts.

An Account shewing the Annual Amount of Bullion, Stores, and Merchandise, respectively exported by and for the Service of the East India Company, to India, from the Year ending the 1st March 1793 to the 1st March 1804 ; together with the Expenditure and Sales thereof at each Presidency, and the respective Balances in store and afloat, on the 30th April 1793, and the 30th April 1803 ; as far as the same can be made out.

Exported from 1st March 1793 to 1st March 1804.

	Merchandise.	Stores.	Bullion.	Total.
From 1st March 1793 to 1st March 1794	278,644	236,456	10,246	525,346
— 1st March 1794 to 1st March 1795	133,411	80,194	—	213,605
— 1st March 1795 to 1st March 1796	266,811	159,580	—	426,391
— 1st March 1796 to 1st March 1797	629,264	247,843	—	877,107
— 1st March 1797 to 1st March 1798	677,573	164,229	20,680	862,482
— 1st March 1798 to 1st March 1799	309,557	267,945	720,368	1,297,870
— 1st March 1799 to 1st March 1800	463,578	330,204	318,611	1,112,393
— 1st March 1800 to 1st March 1801	471,630	520,597	220,920	1,213,147
— 1st March 1801 to 1st March 1802	792,627	316,065	535,879	1,644,571
— 1st March 1802 to 1st March 1803	416,216	423,214	572,131	1,411,561
— 1st March 1803 to 1st March 1804	605,649	380,326	852,207	1,838,182
	£ 5,044,960	3,126,653	3,251,042	11,422,655

East India House, }
3d June, 1806. }

(Errors excepted.)

CHAS. CARTWRIGHT,
Accountant General.

Com.

* What is the cause of this extraordinary increase of Bullion exported ?

As

An Account, shewing the Annual Amount of Bullion, Stores, and Merchandise, respectively exported by and for the Service of the East India Company, to China; from the Year ending the 1st March 1793 to the 1st March 1804.

	<i>Bullion.</i>	<i>Stores.</i>	<i>Merchandise.</i>	<i>Total.</i>
From 1st March 1793 to 1st March 1794	—	526	633,574	640,160
— 1st March 1794 to 1st March 1795	—	949	795,914	796,863
— 1st March 1795 to 1st March 1796	—	513	819,955	820,478
— 1st March 1796 to 1st March 1797	38,302	506	821,931	862,739
— 1st March 97 to 1st March 1798	393,859	1,741	460,495	766,095
— 1st March 98 to 1st March 1799	309,206	1,349	505,500	817,055
— 1st March 1799 to 1st March 1800	552,967	1,141	880,476	1,438,904
— 1st March 1800 to 1st March 1801	140,734	11,258	912,237	1,064,229
— 1st March 1801 to 1st March 1802	—	12,281	1,361,005	1,376,286
— 1st March 1802 to 1st March 1803	—	8,078	838,633	846,711
— 1st March 1803 to 1st March 1804	570,963	4,375	1,494,155	2,069,494
	£ 1,866,031	43,078	9,535,905	11,445,014

East India House }
3d June, 1806. }

(Errors excepted.)

CHAS. CARTWRIGHT.

Accountant General.

END OF THE SECOND VOLUME.

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h 1793 to the

Total.

40,160
96,863
20,478
62,739
66,095
17,055
81,904
24,229
76,286
6,711
9,494

5,014

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